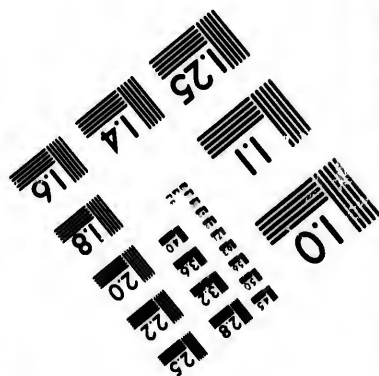
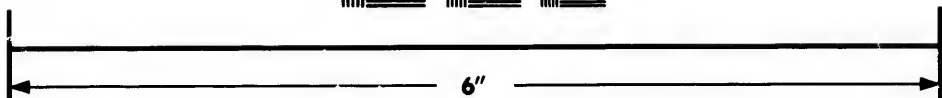
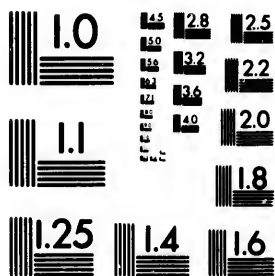


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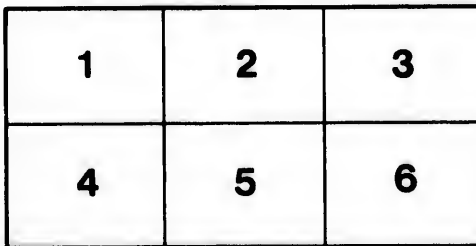
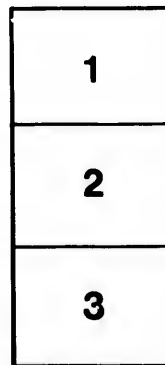
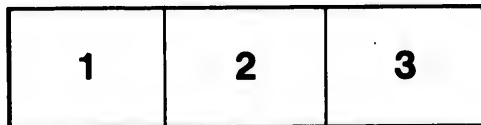
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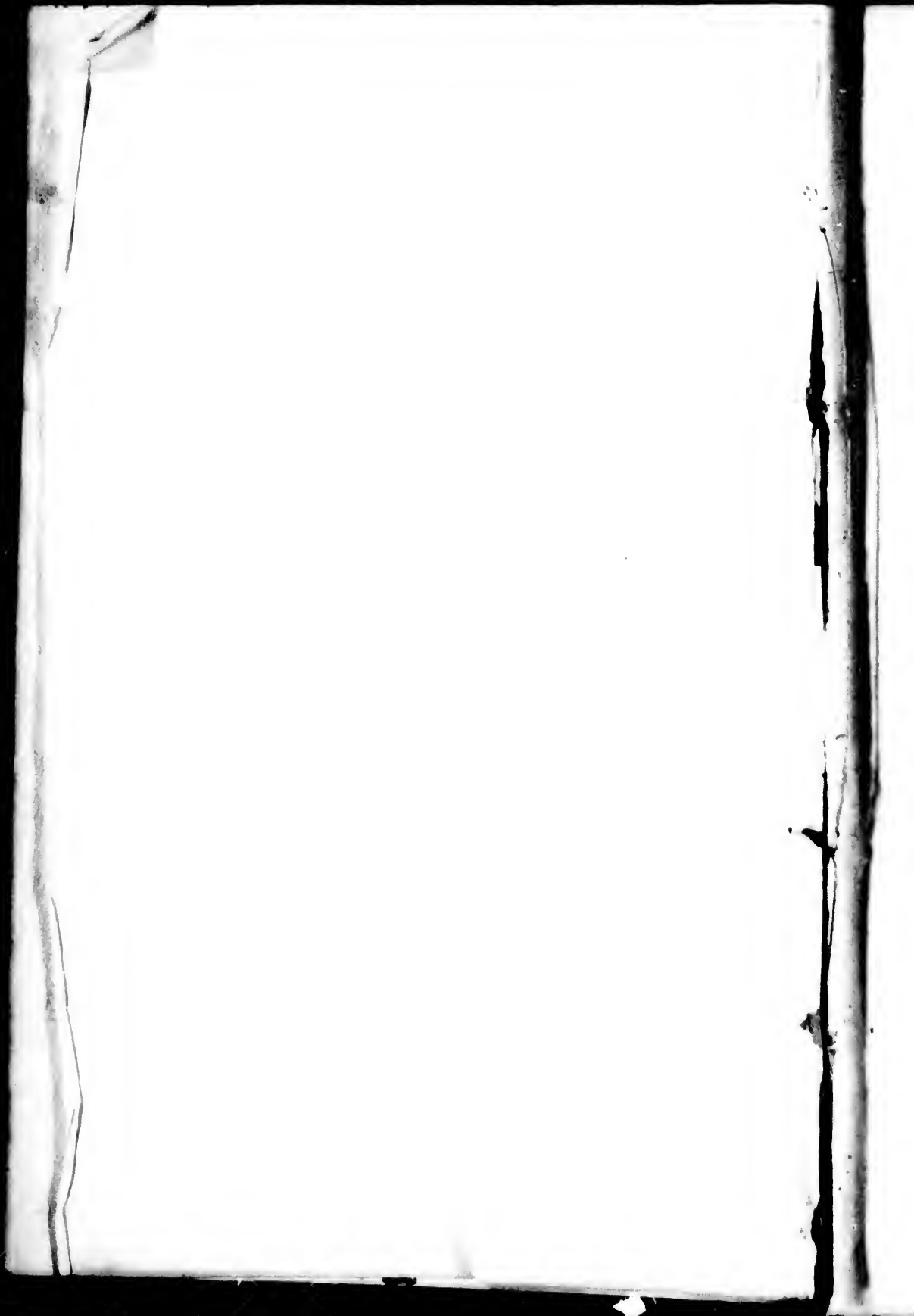
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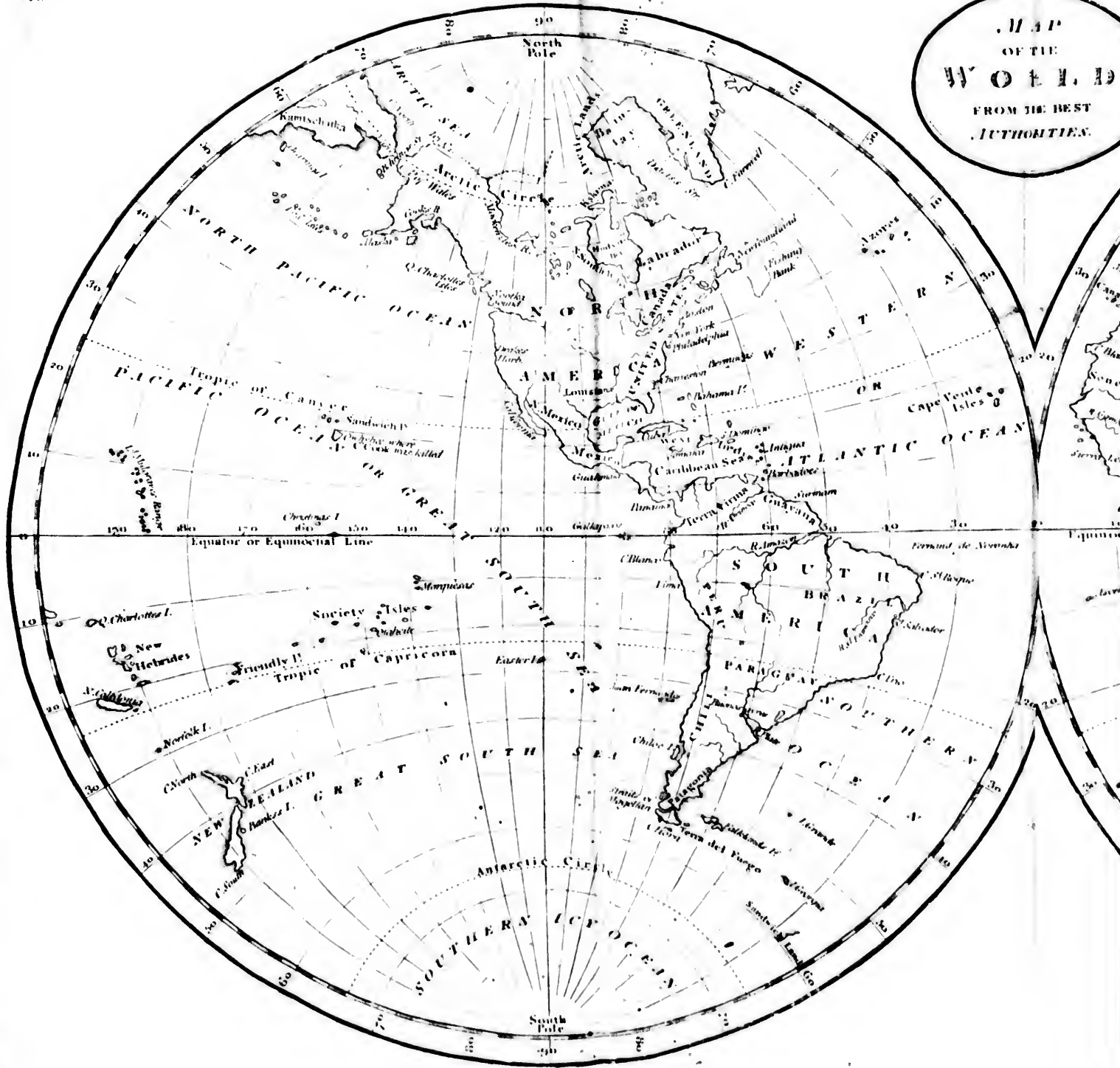
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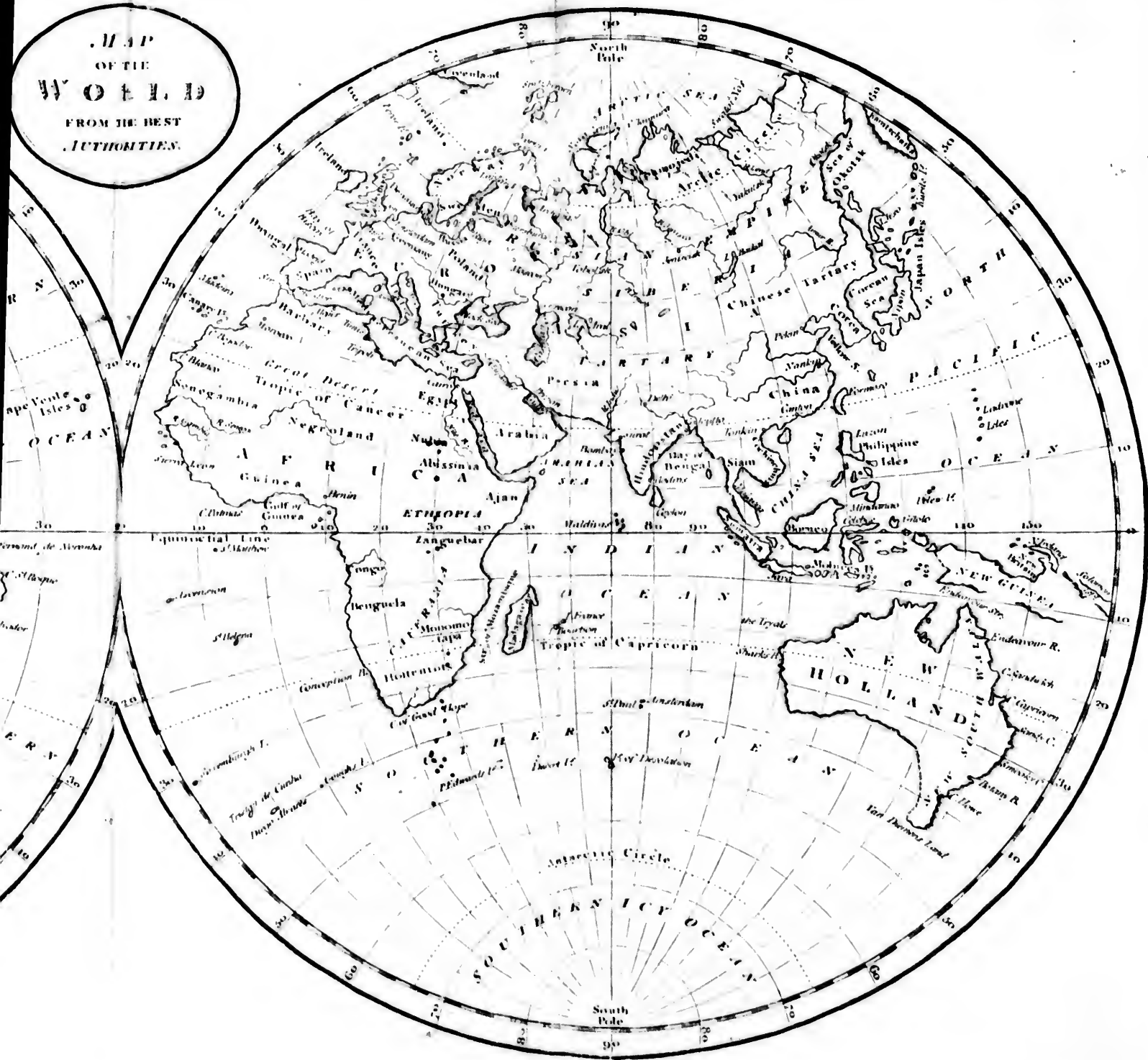
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A NEW
GEOGRAPHICAL, HISTORICAL,
AND
COMMERCIAL
GRAMMAR;

AND
PRESENT STATE
OF THE SEVERAL
KINGDOMS OF THE WORLD. 1835

CONTAINING

- | | |
|---|--|
| <p>I. The Figures, Motions, and Distances of the Planets, according to the Newtonian System, and the latest Observations.</p> <p>II. A general View of the Earth, considered as a Planet; with several useful Geographical Definitions and Problems.</p> <p>III. The grand Divisions of the Globe into Land and Water, Continents and Islands.</p> <p>IV. The Situation and extent of Empires, Kingdoms, States, Provinces, and Colonies.</p> <p>V. Their Climate, Air, Soil, Vegetable Productions, Metals, Minerals, Natural Curiosities, Seas, Rivers, Bays, Capes, Promontories, and Lakes.</p> <p>VI. The Birds and Beasts peculiar to each Country.</p> | <p>VII. Observations on the Changes that have been any where observed upon the Face of Nature, since the most early Periods of History.</p> <p>VIII. The History and Origin of Nations, their Forms of Government, Religion, Laws, Revenues, Taxes, Naval and Military Strength, Orders of Knighthood. &c.</p> <p>IX. The Genius, Manners, Customs, and Habits of the People.</p> <p>X. Their Language, Learning, Arts, Sciences, Manufactures, and Commerce.</p> <p>XI. The chief Cities, Structures, Ruins, and artificial Curiosities</p> <p>XII. The Longitude, Latitude, Bearings, and Distances of principal Places from London.</p> |
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TO WHICH ARE ADDED,

- I. A **GEOGRAPHICAL INDEX**, with the Names of Places alphabetically arranged. II. A **TABLE** of the **COINS** of all Nations, and their Value in **ENGLISH MONEY**. III. A **CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE** of remarkable Events, from the Creation to the present Time.

By **WILLIAM GUTHRIE, Esq.**

THE ASTRONOMICAL PART BY **JAMES FERGUSON, F. R. S.**

TO WHICH HAVE BEEN ADDED

The late Discoveries of Dr. Herschel, and other eminent Astronomers.

ILLUSTRATED WITH
A **CORRECT SET OF MAPS,**
ENGRAVED FROM THE MOST RECENT OBSERVATIONS AND DRAUGHTS OF
GEOGRAPHICAL TRAVELLERS.

THE TWENTIETH EDITION,

Corrected and considerably Enlarged.

LONDON:

PRINTED FOR **J. WALKER, WILKIE AND ROBINSON, SCATCHERD AND CO.**
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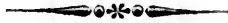
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THE distinguished approbation which the public have shown to this work, as is evident from the many editions through which it has passed, from the rapidity of the sale of very large impressions, and from the increasing demand which continues to be made for it, affords, it may be presumed, a proof sufficiently satisfactory of its utility and excellence.

In this edition, however, very considerable improvements, and a variety of alterations and additions, have been made, of which it will be necessary to give some account.

In the first place a regular and uniform arrangement has been given to the several articles or heads which compose the description of each country, with the addition of such as were found necessary to complete this uniformity. Some alteration has likewise been made in the arrangement of the several countries and kingdoms, which, except in one or two instances, where a somewhat abrupt transition was unavoidable, are treated of according to their contiguity of situation; an order which appears at once more natural, and more adapted to a geographical work, than an arrangement derived from their supposed political importance, by which the reader is suddenly transported from Prussia to Spain; from Spain to Turkey in Europe; and from Turkey in Europe to Holland.

New Tables have been given of the divisions of several countries, as of the provinces of Sweden and the governments of Russia. To the enumeration of the counties of England and Scotland, are added the number of inhabitants in each, according to the returns under the late population act. A table is also given of the departments of France, including those into which the countries she has violently annexed to her territory

have been divided, with the extent in square miles and population of each, as published by the French government. The new divisions of Holland, of the Italian Republic, or as it is now styled Kingdom of Italy, and of Switzerland under its latest constitution, are likewise given; as also a new and complete table of the states, principalities, &c. of the German Empire, with their respective extent and population after the numerous and great changes they have undergone by the plan of indemnities lately carried into execution under the influence of France and Russia. General views are added of the dominions, revenues, and forces of the Austrian and Prussian monarchies in their present state, with additional separate descriptions of several countries appertaining to them; as Galicia, or Austrian Poland, Silesia, and Moravia.

Nor have our improvements of this kind been confined to Europe: the account of Hindoostan, its divisions, &c. has received a new arrangement, and been carefully revised, with a variety of alterations and additions. New and separate descriptions have likewise been given of the countries of Chinese Tartary, Tibet, Independent Tartary, and Asiatic Russia; as also of the settlement of the Cape of Good Hope, (principally from the judicious Travels of Mr. Barrow), and of Louisiana lately annexed to the territory of the United States.

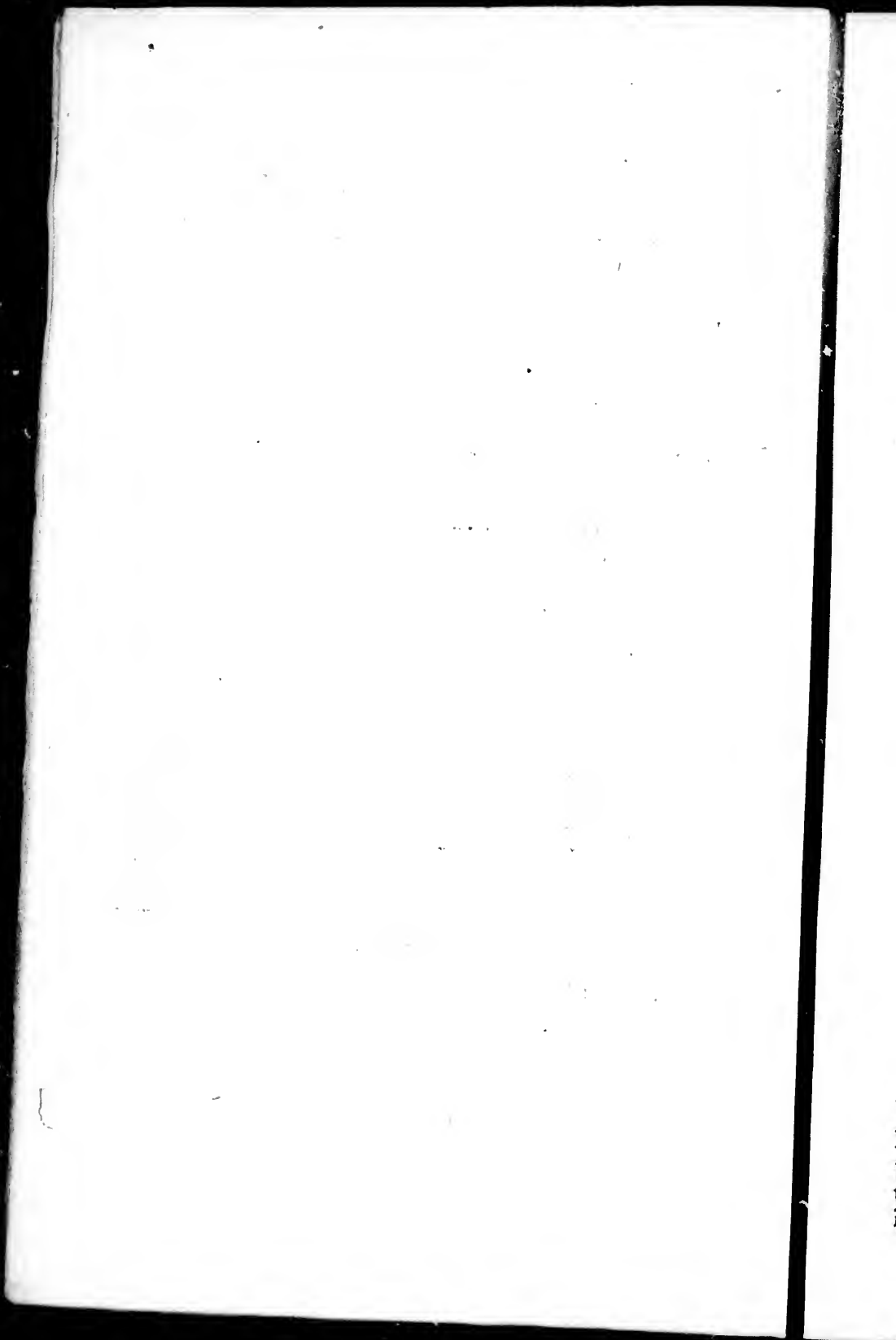
In the two last editions of this work, many important corrections and additions were made from the latest voyages and travels; among which may be enumerated Sir George Staunton's Account of the voyage and embassy of lord Macartney to China; the embassies to Tibet and Ava, of captain Turner and major Symes; the travels of Mr. Park in Africa, with the geographical illustrations of his journey by that judicious geographer major Rennell; those of Mr. Browne in Egypt and Dar-Fur; and the voyages of the unfortunate French navigator M. de la Perouse, and captain Vancouver. In the present edition we have availed ourselves of the travels of Mr. Barrow in Southern Africa, and those of Mr. Hornemann, into the interior of the same continent; of those of Mr. Acerbi in Sweden and to the North Cape in Lapland; and of

those of Mackenzie, Ellicot, and Michaud, in North America. In fine, no publications on the subject of geography, and the present state of the different countries of the world, have been published since the last edition, which have not been carefully consulted.

As this work is historical as well as geographical, the perpetual changes of states and human affairs, especially those produced by the late revolutions which have convulsed Europe, have rendered some considerable additions and alterations necessary in the historical part. Such have been made in this edition; and the history of each country is brought down to the present time; that of Great Britain is considerably enlarged; and the stupendous exertions and rapid conquests of the French republic have been faithfully detailed; while the calamitous events, which, in that distracted country, have been the consequence of contending factions, an unsettled government, and a despotic usurpation, have been pourtrayed in their true colours, and such as cannot fail to excite every honest Briton to cherish and defend the excellent and well-poised constitution of his own happy island; a constitution formed and improved by the accumulated wisdom of ages.

In making the various and important alterations and additions above enumerated, care has been taken, by abridging and compressing some parts, and totally omitting others that had become obsolete, that the work, which had already attained the utmost size consistent with the original plan, should be rather diminished than increased in bulk; at the same time, the utmost attention has been exerted to give it, in every respect, a just and continued claim to the general notice and approbation which it has so long enjoyed.

June, 1805.



P R E F A C E.

TO a man sincerely interested in the welfare of society and of his own 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 cramp the genius but sour the temper of man, and disturb all 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 universal as it is useful.

This general diffusion of knowledge is one effect of that happy constitution of government which, towards the close of the seventeenth century, was confirmed to us, and which constitutes the peculiar glory of this nation. In other countries, the great body of the people possess little wealth, have little power, and consequently meet with little respect; in Great Britain the people are opulent, have great influence, and claim, of course, a proper share of attention. To their improvement, therefore, men of letters have lately directed their studies; as the great body of the people, no less than the dignified, the learned, or the wealthy few, have an acknowledged title to be amused and instructed. Books have been divested of the terms of the schools, reduced from that size which suited only the purses of the rich and the avocations of the studious, and are adapted to persons of more ordinary fortunes, whose attachment to other pursuits admitted of little leisure for those of knowledge. It is to books of this kind, more than to the works of our Bacons, our Lockes, and our Newtons, that the generality of our countrymen owe that superior improvement which distinguishes them from the lower

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 treated in a manner that may render it more generally useful.

The knowledge of the world, and of its inhabitants, though not the sublimest pursuit of mankind, it must be allowed, is that which most nearly interests them, and to which their abilities are best adapted. And 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 on earth; promise the best assistance for attaining this knowledge.

The compendium of Geography now offered to the Public differs in many particulars from other books on that subject. Besides exhibiting an easy, distinct, and systematic account of the theory and practice of what may be called Natural Geography, the Author has attempted to render the following performance an instructive, though compendious, detail of the general history of the world. The character of nations depends on a combination of a great number of 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, the object of which is to include moral, or political, as well as natural Geography, no one of these subjects should pass unnoticed. The omission of any one of them would, in reality, deprive us of a branch of knowledge, not only interesting in itself, but which is absolutely necessary for enabling us to form an adequate and comprehensive idea of the subject in general. We have thought it necessary, therefore, that this work should comprehend 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 will, on a little reflection, appear altogether requisite, when we consider the powerful influence of learning upon the manners, government, and general character of nations. These ob-

jects, indeed, till of late, seldom found a place in geographical performances ; and, even where they have been introduced, are by no means handled in an 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 were indeed ill qualified, 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 hands, was not enabled to give us any 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 many into distant lands. These they have explored with a philosophic attention ; and, by laying open the internal springs of action, by which the inhabitants of different regions are actuated, exhibit to us a natural and striking picture of human manners, under the various stages of barbarity and refinement. Without manifest impropriety, we could not but avail ourselves of their labours, by means of which we have been enabled to give a more copious and a more perfect detail of what is called Political Geography, than has hitherto appeared.

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

We are sensible that a reader could not examine the present state of nations with much entertainment or instruction, unless he were also made acquainted with their situation during preceding ages, and of the various revolutions and events, by the operation of which they have assumed their present form and appearance. This constitutes the historical part of our work, in which, 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 be read with equal pleasure and advantage, and which may be considered as a proper introduction to more copious accounts.

Having, through the whole of the work, mentioned the ancient names of countries, and, in treating of their particular history, 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 ancient 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 now appear, but as they subsisted in ancient ages; which exhibiting a general map, as it were, of the history of mankind, renders our work more complete than any geographical treatise extant.

In the execution of our design, we have constantly endeavoured to observe order and perspicuity. Elegance we have sacrificed to brevity; happy to catch the leading features which distinguish the characters of nations, and by a few strokes to sketch, though not completely to finish.

What has enabled us to comprise so many subjects within the narrow bounds of this work, is the omission of many immaterial circumstances, 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, has been long since detected.

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 moderation of her religious system. With regard to the British empire we have therefore been singularly copious.

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 for useful reflection. By comparing together our accounts of the European nations, the important system of practical knowledge is inculcated, and a thousand arguments will appear in favour of a mild religion, a free government, and an extended, unrestrained commerce.

Europe having occupied so large a part of our volume, Asia next claims our attention ; which, however, 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 ancient customs, and the weight of tyrannical power, bear down the active genius of man, and prevent that variety in manners and character which distinguishes the European nations.

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, besides that it could afford little instruction, would be disgusting to every lover of mankind. 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 trifling distinctions which are discovered among them seem rather to arise from an excess of brutality on the one hand, than from any perceptible approaches towards refinement on the other. But though these quarters of the globe are treated less extensively than Europe, there is no district of them, however barren or savage, entirely omitted.

America, whether considered as an immense continent, inhabited by an endless variety of different people, or as a country 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, and the manners and pre-

judices of the original inhabitants, are objects which, together with the description of the country, deservedly occupy no small share of this performance.

In treating of such a variety of subjects, some less obvious particulars, 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 imperfections which are unavoidable in a work of this extensive kind.

We cannot, without exceeding the bounds of a Preface, insist upon the other parts of our plan. The Maps, which are executed with care, by the ablest artists, will, we hope, afford satisfaction. The science of Natural Geography still remains in a very imperfect state; and the exact divisions and extent of countries, for want of geometrical surveys, are far from being well ascertained. With respect to these we have however constantly resorted to the best authorities which, in the present state of geographical science, we have been able to procure.

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INTRODUCTION.

PART I. OF ASTRONOMICAL GEOGRAPHY.

SECT. I.

OF THE FIGURE AND MOTION OF THE EARTH, THE
DIFFERENT SYSTEMS OF THE UNIVERSE, THE PLANETS,
COMETS, AND FIXED STARS.

THE science of GEOGRAPHY, in the more extensive signification of the word, is so intimately connected with that of ASTRONOMY, that it will be necessary to begin this work with a summary view of the system of the world, and a brief account of the order and revolutions of the heavenly bodies. But first we shall premise a few observations on the figure and motion of the earth.

The earth was long considered as an extensive plain of unknown thickness, beneath which was the abode of the spirits of the dead—the regions of Elysium and Tartarus. The heavens, 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 its use and ornament. More attentive observation, however, soon showed that the earth was of a globular figure. Thus, when a ship sails on the sea, the tops of the masts first become visible at a distance; the setting sun may be distinctly seen from the top of a hill when it appears to those below to have sunk beneath the horizon; and the shadow of the earth in a lunar eclipse is of a circular figure. But it is needless to insist on these proofs, since the frequent voyages of different navigators round the world, from the time of Magelhaens, or Magellan, whose ship first circumnavigated the globe between the years 1519 and 1522, he himself being killed at the Ladrone islands, to that of the repeated voyages of Captain Cook, have demonstrated the figure of the earth to be globular beyond the possibility of a doubt.

The spherical figure of the earth being admitted, its motion became much more probable from the very nature of its form; and besides, a very strong, and in fact unanswerable, argument for that motion was derived from considering, that if the earth did not move round the sun, not only the sun, but all the planets and stars, must move round the earth. Now as astronomers, by calculations founded on the principles of geometry, are able to ascertain very nearly the distances of the heavenly bodies from the earth and from each other, 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 twenty-four hours.

The earth, therefore, in the space of twenty-four hours, moves from west to east, while 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 an idea of its annual or yearly motion round the sun. For, as that luminary seems to have a diurnal motion round our earth, which is really occasioned by the daily motion of the earth round its own 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 annual motion of the earth in its orbit or path round the sun, which it completes in the space 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.

DIFFERENT SYSTEMS OF THE UNIVERSE.] Thales, the Milesian, who, about 600 years before Christ, first taught astronomy in Greece, had made a sufficient progress in this science to calculate eclipses, or interpositions of the moon between the earth and the sun, or of the earth between the sun and the moon. Pythagoras, a native of Samos, flourished about fifty years after Thales, and was, no doubt, equally well acquainted with the motion of the heavenly bodies. He conceived an idea, which there is no reason to believe had ever been suggested 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 explain consistently the heavenly motions. His system, however, was so extremely opposite to all the prejudices of sense and opinion, that it never made great progress, nor was ever widely diffused in the ancient world. The philosophers of antiquity, despairing of being able to overcome ignorance by reason, endeavoured to adapt the one to the other, and in some measure to reconcile them. Ptolemy, an Egyptian philosopher, who flourished 138 years before Christ, supposed with the vulgar, that the earth was fixed immovably in the centre of the universe, and that the seven planets, considering the moon as one of the primaries, were placed near to it. Above them he placed the firmament of fixed stars, then the crystalline orbs, then the primum mobile, and, last of all, the cœlum empyreum, or heaven of heavens. All these vast orbs he imagined to move round the earth once in twenty-four hours, and also to perform other revolutions round it, in certain stated and periodical times. To account for these motions, he was obliged to conceive a number of circles, called eccentrics and epicycles, crossing and interfering with each other. 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, 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 the year 1543. This doctrine had remained 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.

But Europe was still immersed in ignorance, and Copernicus had many opponents. Tycho Brahe, in particular, a noble Dane, sensible of the defects of the Ptolemaic system, but unwilling to acknowledge the motion of the earth, endeavoured, about the year 1586, 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 centre of its orbit; and makes the sun to be the centre 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, notwithstanding its absurdity, met with many advocates. Longomontanus, 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 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 afforded 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 stifled the science in its infancy; and Galileo was obliged to renounce the Copernican system, as a damnable heresy. The happy reformation in religion, however, placed a great part 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 render 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 our Maker, 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. Not only the motions of the heavenly bodies were 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, retains the planets in their orbits, and preserves the whole fabric of nature from confusion and disorder.

THE COPERNICAN SYSTEM.] In the solar system of Copernicus, as confirmed and demonstrated from geometrical principles by the illustrious sir Isaac Newton, the sun is placed in the centre, and round him revolve the seven planets, the names of which are, beginning with the nearest to the sun, Mercury, Venus, the Earth, Mars, Jupiter, Saturn, and the Georgium Sidus. The last of these was first discovered by Dr. Herschel with his telescope of great size and power, 40 feet in length, and $4\frac{1}{2}$ in diameter, in the year 1781. For this discovery he received from the Royal Society the honorary recompense of sir Godfrey Copley's medal. Though the Georgium Sidus was not till then known as a planet, there are many reasons to suppose it had been seen before, but had been considered as a fixed star. But from the steadiness of its light, from its diameter being increased by high mag-

nifying powers, and from the change he had observed in its situation, Dr. Herschel first concluded it was a comet; but in a little time he, with others, determined that it was a planet, from its vicinity to the ecliptic, the direction of its motion, and its being stationary in the time and in such circumstances as correspond with similar appearances in other planets. When the moon is absent, it may be seen by the naked eye; and the discovery of six satellites attending it confers upon it a dignity, and raises it to a conspicuous situation among the great bodies of our solar system*.

The magnitudes, annual periods, and mean distances from the sun, of the several planets, are given in the table subjoined. Their relative distances may likewise be thus stated in a manner more compendious and easy to be remembered. If the distance of the earth from the sun be supposed to be divided into ten parts, the distance of Mercury will be four such parts, that of Venus seven, that of Mars fifteen, that of Jupiter fifty-two, that of Saturn ninety-five, and that of the Georgium Sidus one hundred and ninety.

Besides these seven planets, there are eighteen others which move round four of these in the same manner as they do round the sun. Of these our Earth has one, called the Moon; Jupiter has four; Saturn seven, two of these having been lately discovered by Dr. Herschel; and the Georgium Sidus six, discovered, as well as the planet itself, by the same excellent astronomer. These are called moons, from their resemblance to our moon; and sometimes *secondary* planets, because they seem to be attendants of the Earth, Jupiter, Saturn, and the Georgium Sidus, about which they move, and which are called *primary*.

The orbits described by the planets are not exact circles, but ellipses or ovals: hence the same planet is not always at the same distance from the sun; and the distance which is exactly between the greatest and least distance is called the *mean distance*.

In the following table the *inclinations of the axes of the planets to their orbits* are given; and the meaning of this term it may be necessary to explain. We have already said that the annual motion of the earth occasions the diversity of seasons: but this would not happen were the axis of the earth exactly parallel to, or in a line with, the axis 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 vicissitudes of the seasons arising from the difference in length of the days and nights produced by this inclination of the axis. The axes of several others of the planets are in like manner inclined to the planes of their orbits, and the angle of their inclination is given in the following table.

* Another new planet was discovered on the 1st of January 1801. by M. Piazzi, astronomer-royal at Palermo in Sicily, who called it *Ferdinandea*, in honour of his Sicilian Majesty. It is also called *Ceres*, or *Ceres Ferdinandea*. It has its orbit between those of Mars and Jupiter. According to the latest observations, its period is four years 222 days. Its distance from the sun is to that of the earth as 267 to 100, consequently above 250 millions of miles. It is not visible to the naked eye; and so small, that glasses of a very high magnifying power will not show it with a distinctly-defined diameter: Dr. Herschel has however estimated its diameter at 160 English miles.

Another planet has also been discovered by Dr. Olbers of Hamburg: it is likewise situated between Mars and Jupiter. It has been named *Pallas*. Its distance from the sun is to that of the earth as 280 to 100, or nearly 270 millions of miles. It is extremely small; its diameter being estimated by Dr. Herschel at only 110 miles.

A TABLE OF THE DIAMETERS, PERIODS, &c. OF THE SEVERAL PLANETS IN THE SOLAR SYSTEM.

Names of the planets.	Diameters in English miles	Mean distances from the sun, as determined from observations of the transit of Venus in 1761.	Annual period round the sun.			Diurnal rotation on its axis.	Hourly motion in its orbit.	Hourly motion of its equator.	Inclination of axis to orbit.
			Y.	D.	H.				
Sun	890,000								
Mercury	3,245	36,841,463	0	87	23	25 14 0	109,699	3,318	unkwn.
Venus	7,743	68,891,486	0	224	17	0 23 23	80,295	1,043	unkwn.
Earth	7,942	95,173,000	1	0	0	0 23 56	68,243	1,042	23 29 0
Moon	2,162	ditto	1	0	0	29 12 44	22,290	91	2 10 0
Mars	4,220	145,014,148	1	321	23	1 0 40	55,287	556	0 0 0
Jupiter	89,800	494,990,976	11	315	14	0 9 56	29,083	25,920	0 0 0
Saturn	79,600	907,956,130	29	174	2	0 10 16	22,101	22,400	28 0 0
Georgium Sidus	39,900	1,815,912,260	83	150	18	unkwn.	15,000	unkaw.	unkwn.

COMETS.] Besides the primary and secondary planets already enumerated, there are other bodies which revolve round the sun, and, consequently, make a part of the solar system. These are called *Comets*, and appear occasionally in every part of the heavens. Descending from the far distant parts of the system with great rapidity, they surprise us with the singular appearance of a train, or tail, which accompanies them; become visible to us in the lower parts of their orbits; and, after a short stay, go off again to vast distances, and disappear. Though some of the ancients had more just notions of them, yet the opinion having prevailed, that they were only meteors generated in the air, like to those we see in it every night, and in a few moments vanishing, no care was taken to observe or record their phenomena accurately till of late. Hence this part of astronomy is very imperfect. The general doctrine is, that they are solid compact bodies, like other planets, and regulated by the same laws of gravity, so as to describe equal areas in proportional times by radii drawn to the common centre. They move about the sun in very eccentric ellipses, and are of much greater density than the earth; for some of them are heated in every period to such a degree as would vitrify or dissipate any substance known to us. Sir Isaac Newton computed the heat of the comet that appeared in the year 1680, when nearest the sun, to be 2000 times hotter than red-hot iron, and that, being thus heated, it must retain its heat till it comes round again, although its period should be more than 20,000 years; and it is computed to be only 575. The number of comets is very much greater than that of the planets which move in the vicinity of the sun. From the reports of historians, as well as from the observations of late years, it has been ascertained that more than 450 were seen previous to the year 1771; and when the attention of astronomers was called to this object by the expectation of the return of the comet of 1759, no fewer than seven were observed in the course of seven years. From this circumstance, and the probability that all the comets recorded in ancient authors were of considerable apparent magnitude, while the smaller were overlooked, it is reasonable to conclude that the number of comets considerably exceeds any estimation that might be made from the observations we now possess. But the number of those, whose orbits are settled with sufficient accuracy to ascertain their identity

when they may appear again, is no more than fifty-nine, reckoning as late as the year 1771. The orbits of most of these are inclined to the plane of the ecliptic in large angles, and the greater number of them approached nearer to the sun than to the earth. Their motions in the heavens are not all in the order of the signs, or direct, like those of the planets; but the number whose motion is retrograde is nearly equal to that of those whose motion is direct. All which have been observed, however, have moved through the æthereal regions and the orbits of the planets, without suffering the least sensible resistance in their motions; which sufficiently proves that the planets do not move in solid orbs. Of all the comets, the periods of three only are known with any degree of certainty, being found to return at intervals of 75, 129, and 575 years; and of these, that which appeared in 1680 is the most remarkable. This comet, at its greatest distance, is about 11,200 millions of miles from the sun, while its least distance from the centre of the sun is about 490,000 miles; being less than one third part of the sun's semidiameter from his surface. In that part of its orbit which is nearest the sun, it flies with the amazing velocity of 880,000 miles in an hour; and the sun, as seen from it, appears 100 degrees in breadth, consequently 40,000 times as large as he appears to us. The astonishing distance that this comet runs out into empty space naturally suggests to our imagination the vast distance between our sun and the nearest of the fixed stars, of whose attractions all the comets must keep clear, to return periodically and go round the sun.

THE FIXED STARS.] Having thus briefly surveyed the solar system, which, though great in itself, is small in comparison with the immensity of the universe, we next proceed to the contemplation of those other vast bodies called the *Fixed Stars*. These 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 stars 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 that are visible without a telescope.

The first observers of the heavens, in the early ages of the world, divided the stars into different assemblages or *constellations*, each of which they supposed to represent the image of some animal or other terrestrial object. These constellations have, in general, preserved the names which were given them by the ancients, by whom they were reckoned twenty-one *northern*, and twelve *southern*; but the moderns have increased the number of the northern to thirty-six, and that of the southern to thirty-two. Besides these, there are the twelve *signs* or constellations of the Zodiac, as it is called from the Greek word *ζῳδια*, an animal; because almost all these signs represent some animal.

As to the number of the fixed stars, 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 into constellations, the number that can at any time be seen with the naked eye is not above a

thousand. Since the invention 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, late royal astronomer at Greenwich, has given us a catalogue of about 3000 stars. These are called telescopic stars, from their being invisible without the assistance of the telescope. Dr. Herschel, to whose ingenuity and assiduity the astronomical world is so much indebted, has evinced what great discoveries may be made by improvements in the instruments of observation. "In passing rapidly over the heavens "with his new telescope," says M. de Lalande, "the universe increased "under his eye; 44,000 stars, seen in the space of a few degrees, seemed "to indicate that there were seventy-five millions in the heavens." But what are all these, when compared to those that fill the whole expanse, the boundless fields of æther? Indeed the immensity of the universe must contain such numbers as would exceed the utmost stretch of the human imagination; for who can say how far the universe extends, or point out those limits where the Creator "stayed his rapid wheels," or where he "fixed the golden compasses?"

The immense distance of the fixed stars from our earth, and from each other, 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 or path (which is at least 190 millions of miles in diameter) 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 to 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 it, or 190 millions of miles farther removed from the same star. The star nearest us, and consequently the largest in appearance, is the dog-star, or Sirius. Modern discoveries make it probable, that each of those fixed stars is a sun, having planets and comets 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. A ray of light, therefore, though its motion is 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, which, next to light, is considered as the quickest body we are acquainted with, would not arrive to us from thence in 50,000 years. And a cannon ball, flying at the rate of 480 miles an hour, would not reach us in 700,000 years.

The stars, being at such immense distances from the sun, cannot possibly receive from him so strong a light as they seem to have, nor any brightness sufficient to make them visible to us. For the sun's rays must be so scattered and dissipated before they reach such remote objects, that they can never be transmitted back to our eyes, so as to render those objects visible by reflexion. The stars, therefore, shine with their own native and unborrowed lustre, as the sun does; and since each particular star, as well as the sun, is confined to a particular portion of space, it is evident that the stars are of the same nature with the sun.

It is far from probable that the Almighty, who always acts with infinite wisdom, and does nothing in vain, should create so many glorious suns, fit for so many important purposes, and place them at such distances from each other, without proper objects near enough to be benefited by their influences. Whoever imagines that they were created only to give a faint glimmering light to the inhabitants of this globe, must have a

very superficial knowledge of astronomy*, and a mean opinion of the divine wisdom; since, by an infinitely less exertion of creating power, the Deity could have given our earth much more light by one single additional moon.

Instead then of one sun and one world only, in the universe, as the unskilful in astronomy imagine, that science discovers to us such an inconceivable number of suns, systems, and worlds, dispersed through boundless space, that if our sun, with all the planets, moons, and comets belonging to it, were annihilated, they would be no more missed by an eye that could take in the whole creation, than a grain of sand from the sea-shore; the space they possess being comparatively so small, that it would scarcely be a sensible blank in the universe, although the Georgium Sidus, the outermost of our planets, revolves about the sun in an orbit of 10,830 millions of miles in circumference, and some of our comets make excursions upwards of ten thousand millions of miles beyond the orbit of the Georgium Sidus; and yet, at that amazing distance, they are incomparably nearer to the sun than to any of the stars, as is evident from their keeping clear of the attracting power of all the stars, and returning periodically, by virtue of the sun's attraction.

From what we know of our own system, it may be reasonably concluded that all the rest are with equal wisdom contrived, situated, and provided with accommodations for rational inhabitants. For although there is an almost infinite variety in the parts of the creation which we have opportunities of examining, yet there is a general analogy running through and connecting all the parts into one scheme, one design, one whole.

Since the fixed stars are prodigious spheres of fire, like our sun, and at inconceivable distances from each other as well as from us, it is reasonable to conclude they are made for the same purposes that the sun is—each to bestow light, heat, and vegetation, on a certain number of inhabited planets, retained by gravitation within the sphere of its activity.

What a sublime idea does this suggest to the human imagination, limited as are its powers, of the works of the Creator! Thousands and thousands of suns, multiplied without end, and ranged all around us, at immense distances from each other, attended by ten thousand times ten thousand worlds, all in rapid motion, yet calm, regular, and harmonious, invariably keeping the paths prescribed them; and these worlds peopled with myriads of intelligent beings, formed for endless progression in perfection and felicity.

If so much power, wisdom, goodness, and magnificence, be displayed in the material creation, which is the least considerable part of the universe, how great, how wise, how good must HE be, who made and governs the whole!

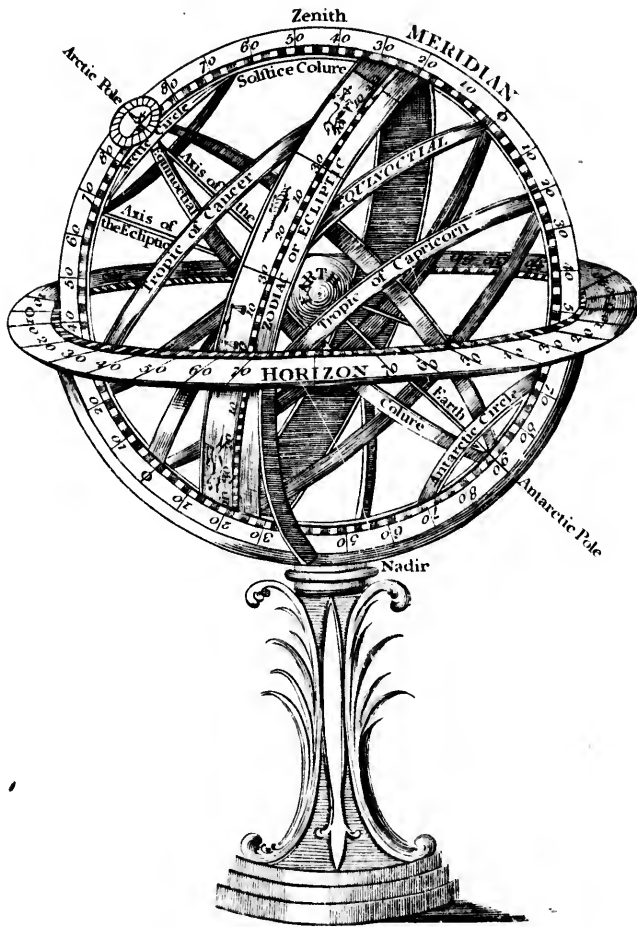
SECT. II.

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. In treating 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

* Especially since there are many stars which are not visible without the assistance of a good telescope; and therefore, instead of giving light to this world, can only be seen by a few astronomers.

The Armillary Sphere.



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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. 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 annexed plate of the Artificial or Armillary Sphere.

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, while the rest diminished in proportion 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* or *Armillary Sphere*, through the centre of which passes an *Axis*, whose extremities are 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 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 21st of June to the 22d of December the sun advanced every day towards a certain point, and, having arrived there, returned towards that from which he had set out, from the 22d of December to the 21st 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 *Tropics*, because the sun no sooner arrived there, than he turned back. Astronomers, observing the motion of the sun, found its quantity, at a mean rate, to be nearly a degree (or the 360th part) of a great circle in the heavens, every twenty-four hours. This great circle is called the *Ecliptic*, and it passes through certain constellations, distinguished by the names of animals, in a *zone* or belt, called the *Zodiac*, within which the moon and all the planets are constantly found. It touches the tropic of Cancer on one side, and that of Capricorn on the other, and cuts the equator obliquely, at an angle of twenty-three degrees twenty-nine minutes, the sun's greatest declination. 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 immovable 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 and that which is below it.

SECT. III.

DESCRIPTION AND USE OF THE TERRESTRIAL GLOBE.

THE Terrestrial GLOBE is a representation of the surface of the earth, on an artificial globe or ball on which the several countries and places are laid down according to their relative situations, and to which the circles of the sphere before described are transferred.

AXIS AND POLES OF THE EARTH.] The axis of the earth is that imaginary line passing through its centre, 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 the north and the other in the south, which are exactly under the two points of the heavens called the North and South Poles.

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

EQUATOR.] The first *great circle* is the *Equator*, or *Equinoctial*; by navigators called the *Line*. The poles of this circle are the same with those of the world. It passes through the east and west points of the earth, and divides it into the northern and southern hemispheres. It is divided into 360 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 distinguish the horizon into the *sensible* and *rational*. The first is that which bounds the utmost prospect of our sight, when we view the heavens around us, *apparently* touching the earth or sea. 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 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 former exactly above our heads, and the latter 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, viz. thirty to each sign. Next to this are the names of these signs, together with the days of the month. Besides these, there is a circle representing the thirty-two rhumbs, or points of the mariner's compass.

MERIDIAN.] This circle is represented by the *brass ring* on which the globe hangs and turns. It is divided into 360 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 *meridies* or mid-day, 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,

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

COLURES.] If we imagine *two great circles* both passing 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 are *all the great circles*.

TROPICS.] If we suppose two circles drawn parallel to the equinoctial, at twenty-three degrees thirty minutes' distance from it, measured on the brazen meridian, the one towards the north, the other towards the south, these are called Tropics, from the Greek word *τρεπνγ*, a *turning*, 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 the first points of these signs.

POLAR CIRCLES.] If two other circles are supposed to be drawn at the like 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*, in Greek *αρκτος*; the *southern*, the *Antarctic*, because opposite to the former. And these are the *four less circles*.

ZONES.] After the four less circles we have mentioned were known, it was observed 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*, from the Greek word *ζωνη*, which signifies a girdle; being broad spaces, like swathes, girding the earth about.

The *torrid zone* is that portion of the earth between the tropics, and called by the ancients *torrid*, 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 deserts. 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 the most perfect metals, precious stones, and pearls. 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 enclosed within the polar circles. They are called the 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 have been fully explored by the Europeans. Our knowledge of the southern temperate zone is very imperfect; we know little of the northern frigid zone, and still less of the southern frigid zone. The northern temperate and torrid zones are those we are best acquainted with.

CLIMATES.] Besides the division of the earth into hemispheres and zones, geographers have also divided it into *climates*, which are narrower zones, each included between two parallels of latitude, at such a distance from each other, that the length of the longest day under that nearest the pole is increased by half an hour. As the length of the day under the equator is always twelve hours, and that of the longest day under the polar circles twenty-four hours, it is evident that there must be twenty-four of these climates between the equator and either pole. Within the polar circles, where the longest day is always more than twenty-four hours long, the climates are reckoned by the increase of the day by months, till we reach the pole, where the whole year consists only of six months day and six months night. Of these climates, therefore, there will be six, making the whole number on each side the equator thirty.

We here insert a table of climates, which will show the length of the longest day in most of the principal places in the world.

TABLE OF CLIMATES.

Cl. D.	I.at.		Breadth.		Lo.Da.		Names of Countries and remarkable Places, situated in every Climate North of the Equator.
	D.	M.	D.	M.	H.	M.	
1	8	25	8	25	12	30	I. Within the first Climate lie the Gold and Silver Coasts in Africa; Malacca in the East-Indies; Cayenne and Surinam in Terra Firma, South America.
2	16	25	8	0	13	0	II. Here lie Abyssinia in Africa; Siam, Madras, and Pondicherry in the East-Indies; Straits of Darien, between N. and S. America; Tobago, the Granades, St. Vincent, and Barbadoes, in the West-Indies.
3	23	50	7	25	13	30	III. Contains Mecca in Arabia; Bombay, part of Bengal, in the East-Indies; Canton, in China; Mexico, Bay of Campeachy, in North America; Jamaica, Hispaniola, St. Christopher's, Antigua, Martinico, and Guadeloupe, in the West-Indies.
4	30	20	6	30	14	0	IV. Egypt, and the Canary Islands, in Africa; Delhi, capital of the Mogul Empire, in Asia; Gulf of Mexico, and East Florida, in North America; the Havannah, in the West-Indies.
5	36	28	6	8	14	30	V. Gibraltar in Spain; part of the Mediterranean Sea; the Barbary coast, in Africa; Jerusalem; Ispahan, capital of Persia; Nankin in China; California, New Mexico, West Florida, Georgia, and the Carolinas, in North America.
6	41	22	4	54	15	0	VI. Lisbon, in Portugal; Madrid, in Spain; Minorea, Sardinia, and part of Greece, in the Mediterranean; Asia Minor; part of the Caspian Sea; Samarcand, in Great Tartary; Peking, in China; Corea, and Japan; Williamsburg, in Virginia; Maryland, and Philadelphia, in North America.
7	45	29	4	7	15	30	VII. Northern provinces of Spain; southern ditto of France; Turin, Genoa, and Rome, in Italy; Constantinople, and the Black Sea, in Turkey; the Caspian Sea, and part of Tartary; New York, Boston in New England, North America.
8	49	1	3	32	16	0	VIII. Paris; Vienna, capital of Germany; Nova Scotia, Newfoundland, and Canada, in North America.

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Circ.	Lat.		Breadth		Lo. Da.	Names of Countries and remarkable Places, situated in every Climate North of the Equator.
	D.	M.	D.	M.		
952	0	2	59	16	30	IX. London, Flanders, Prague, Dresden; Cracow, in Poland; southern provinces of Russia; part of Tartary; north part of Newfoundland.
1054	27	2	27	17	0	X. Dublin, York, Holland, Hanover, and Tartary; Warsaw, in Poland; Labrador, and New South Wales, in North America.
1156	37	2	10	17	30	XI. Edinburgh, Copenhagen; Moscow, capital of Russia.
1258	29	1	52	18	0	XII. South part of Sweden; Tobolski, capital of Siberia.
1359	58	1	29	18	30	XIII. Orkney Isles; Stockholm, capital of Sweden.
1461	18	1	20	19	0	XIV. Bergen, in Norway; Petersburg, in Russia.
1562	25	1	7	19	30	XV. Hudson's Straits, North America.
1663	22		57	20	0	XVI. Siberia, and the south part of West Greenland.
1764	6		44	20	30	XVII. Drontheim, in Norway.
1864	49		43	21	0	XVIII. Part of Finland, in Russia.
1965	21		32	21	30	XIX. Archangel, on the White Sea, Russia.
2065	47		26	22	0	XX. Hecla, in Iceland.
2166	6		19	22	30	XXI. Northern part of Russia and Siberia.
2266	20		14	23	0	XXII. New North Wales, in North America.
2366	28		8	23	30	XXIII. Davis's Straits, in ditto.
2466	31		3	24		XXIV. Samoeda.
2567	21		1	Month.		XXV. South part of Lapland.
2669	48		2	Months.		XXVI. West Greenland.
2773	37		3	Months.		XXVII. Zembla Australis.
2878	30		4	Months.		XXVIII. Zembla Borealis.
2984	5		5	Months.		XXIX. Spitsbergen, or East Greenland.
3090	0		6	Months.		XXX. Unknown.

QUADRANT OF ALTITUDE.] In order to facilitate the performance of several problems, such as finding the altitude of the sun, measuring the distance and bearings of places, &c., globes are provided with a pliant narrow plate of brass, divided into ninety degrees, which screws on the brass meridian, and turns every way. This plate is called the *Quadrant of Altitude*.

HOUR CIRCLE.] This is a small brass circle, fixed under the brazen meridian, divided into twenty-four hours, and having an index movable round the axis of the globe.

LATITUDE.] The *Latitude* of any place is its distance from the equator towards either pole, reckoned in degrees of the general meridian, and is northern or southern according as the place lies to the north or south of the equator. No place can have more than ninety degrees of latitude, because the poles where the reckoning of the latitude terminates are at that distance from the equator.

If circles be supposed drawn parallel to the equator through every degree, or every subdivision of a degree of latitude, these circles are called *Parallels of Latitude*.

LONGITUDE.] The longitude of a place is its distance from the first meridian, in degrees of a circle passing through it parallel to the equator, and is reckoned either east or west. The first meridian is an imaginary semicircle drawn through any particular place from pole to pole. The situation of the first meridian, or the place from which the longitude is taken, is arbitrary, and has been fixed differently at different times, and in different countries. Formerly the meridian of Ferro, the most westerly of the Canary Islands, was made, in general, the first meridian; probably, because the ancient geographers considered it as the most westerly point of

the habitable globe; but at present the English astronomers usually reckon from the meridian of London, or rather that which passes through the observatory at Greenwich; the French from that of Paris, &c. No place can have more than 180 degrees of longitude, because the circumference of the globe being 360 degrees, no place can be remote from another above half that distance; but formerly the French and other foreign geographers, in conformity with an ordonnance of Lewis XIII., reckoned their longitude from Ferro, only to the east, from the 1st to the 360th degree, or 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 as they approach the pole. Thus in sixty degrees of latitude a degree of longitude is but half the length of a degree on the equator. The number of miles contained in a degree of longitude in each parallel of latitude is given in the following table.

A TABLE,								
Showing the Number of English 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.
0°	69	20	30	59	92	60	34	60
1	69	19	31	59	32	61	33	55
2	69	16	32	58	69	62	32	49
3	69	10	33	58	04	63	31	42
4	69	05	34	57	37	64	30	33
5	68	95	35	56	69	65	29	24
6	68	82	36	55	98	66	28	15
7	68	68	37	55	26	67	27	04
8	68	52	38	54	53	68	25	92
9	68	55	39	53	78	69	24	80
10	68	14	40	53	01	70	23	67
11	67	93	41	52	23	71	22	53
12	67	69	42	51	42	72	21	38
13	67	43	43	50	61	73	20	23
14	67	14	44	49	78	74	19	07
15	66	84	45	48	93	75	17	91
16	66	52	46	48	07	76	16	74
17	66	17	47	47	19	77	15	57
18	65	81	48	46	30	78	14	39
19	65	43	49	45	40	79	13	20
20	65	03	50	44	48	80	12	02
21	64	60	51	43	55	81	10	82
22	64	16	52	42	60	82	09	63
23	63	70	53	41	64	83	08	43
24	63	22	54	40	67	84	07	23
25	62	72	55	39	69	85	06	03
26	62	20	56	38	69	86	04	83
27	61	66	57	37	69	87	03	62
28	61	10	58	36	67	88	02	41
29	60	52	59	35	64	89	01	20

PROBLEMS PERFORMED BY THE GLOBE.

PROBLEM 1. *To Rectify the Globe.*

The globe being set upon a true plane, raise the pole according to the given latitude; then fix the quadrant of altitude in the zenith; and if there be any mariner's compass upon the pedestal, let the globe be so situated that the brazen meridian may stand due south and north, according to the two extremities of the needle, allowing for its variation.

PROB. 2. *To find the Longitude and Latitude of any Place.*

Bring the given place to the brazen meridian, and the degree it is under is the latitude; then observe the degree of the equator under the same meridian, and you will have the longitude.

PROB. 3. *The Longitude and Latitude of any Place being given, to find that Place on the Globe.*

Bring the degree of longitude to the brazen meridian; find upon the same meridian the degree of latitude, whether south or north, and the point exactly under that degree is the place desired.

PROB. 4. *The Latitude of any Place being given, to find all those Places that have the same Latitude.*

The globe being rectified (a) according to the latitude of the given place, and that place being brought to the brazen meridian, make a mark exactly above the same, and turning the globe round, all those places passing under the said mark have the same latitude with the given place.

PROB. 5. *Two Places being given on the Globe, to find the Distance between them.*

If the places are under the same meridian, that is, have the same longitude, their difference of latitude, reckoning $69\frac{1}{2}$ miles to a degree, will give the distance.

If they have the same latitude, but differ in longitude, their distance may be found by their difference of longitude, reckoning the number of miles in a degree of longitude in their common parallel of latitude, according to the table given above.

If they differ both in latitude and longitude, lay the graduated edge of the quadrant of altitude over both the places, and the number of degrees intercepted between them will give their distance from each other, reckoning every degree to be $69\frac{1}{2}$ English miles.

PROB. 6. *To find the Sun's Place in the Ecliptic at any Time.*

The month and day being given, look for the same upon the wooden horizon; and over-against the day you will find the sign and degree in which the sun is at that time; which sign and degree being noted in the ecliptic, the same is the sun's place, or nearly, at the time desired.

PROB. 7. *The Month and Day being given, as also the particular Time of that Day, to find those Places of the Globe to which the Sun is in the Meridian at that Time.*

The pole being elevated according to the latitude of the place where you are, bring the said place to the brazen meridian, and setting the

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index of the horary circle at the hour of the day, in the given place, or where you are, turn the globe till the index points at the upper figure of XII.; which done, fix the globe in that situation, and observe what places are exactly under the upper hemisphere of the brazen meridian; for those are the places desired.

PROB. 8. *To know the Length of the Day and Night in any Place of the Earth at any Time.*

Elevate the pole (*a*) according to the latitude of the given place; find the sun's place in the ecliptic (*b*) at that time; which being brought to the east side of the horizon, set the index of the horary circle at noon, or the upper figure of XII.; and turning the globe till the aforesaid place of the ecliptic touch the western side of the horizon, look upon the horary circle; and where the index points, reckon the number of hours to the upper figure of XII., for that is length of the day; the complement of which to 24 hours is the length of the night.

PROB. 9. *To know by the Globe what o'Clock it is in any Part of the World at any Time, provided you know the Hour of the Day where you are at the same Time.*

(*c*) **PROB. 3.** Bring the place in which you are to the brazen meridian, the pole being raised (*c*) according to its latitude, and set the index of the horary circle to the hour of the day at that time. Then bring the desired place to the brazen meridian, and the index will point out the hour at that place.

PROB. 10. *A Place being given in the Torrid Zone, to find the two Days of the Year in which the Sun shall be vertical to the same.*

Bring the given place to the brazen meridian, and mark what degree of latitude is exactly above it. Move the globe round, and observe the two points of the ecliptic that pass through the said degree of latitude. Find upon the wooden horizon (or by proper tables of the sun's annual motion) on what days he passes through the aforesaid points of the ecliptic; for those are the days required, in which the sun is vertical to the given place.

PROB. 11. *The Month and the Day being given, to find by the Globe those Places of the Northern Frigid Zone, where the Sun begins then to shine constantly without setting; as also those Places of the Southern Frigid Zone, where he then begins to be totally absent.*

The day given (which must be always one of those either between the vernal equinox and the summer solstice, or between the autumnal equinox and the winter solstice); find (*d*) the sun's place in the ecliptic, and, marking the same, bring it to the brazen meridian, and reckon the like number of degrees from the north pole towards the equator, as there is between the equator and the sun's place in the ecliptic, making a mark where the reckoning ends. Then turn the globe round, and all the places passing under the said mark are those in which the sun begins to shine constantly without setting, upon the given day. For solution of the latter part of the problem, set off the same distance from the south pole upon the brazen meridian towards the equator, as was in the former case set off from the north; then marking as

before, and turning the globe round, all places passing under the mark are those where the sun begins his total disappearance from the given day.

PROB. 12. *A Place being given in either of the Frigid Zones, to find by the Globe what Number of Days the Sun constantly shines upon the said Place, and what Days he is absent, as also the first and last Day of his Appearance.*

Bring the given place to the brazen meridian, and observing its latitude (*a*), elevate the globe accordingly; count the same number of degrees upon the meridian from each side of (*a*) **PROB. 2.** the equator as the place is distant from the pole; and making marks where the reckonings end, turn the globe, and carefully observe what two degrees of the ecliptic pass exactly under the two points marked on the meridian; first for the northern arch of the circle, namely, that comprehended between the two degrees marked, which, being reduced to time, will give the number of days that the sun constantly shines above the horizon of the given place; and the opposite arch of the said circle will, in like manner, give the number of days in which he is totally absent, and also will point out which days those are. And in the interval he daily will rise and set.

PROB. 13. *The Month and Day being given, to find those Places on the Globe, to which the Sun, when on the Meridian, shall be vertical on that Day.*

The sun's place in the ecliptic being found (*b*), bring (*b*) **PROB. 6.** the same to the brazen meridian, on which make a small (*b*) mark exactly above the sun's place. Then turn the globe; and those places which have the sun vertical in the meridian, will successively pass under the said mark.

PROB. 14. *The Month and Day being given, to find upon what Point of the Compass the Sun then rises and sets in any Place.*

Elevate the pole according to the latitude of the place, and, finding the sun's place in the ecliptic at the given time, bring the same to the eastern side of the horizon, and it will show the point of the compass upon which he then rises. By turning the globe till his place coincides with the western side of the horizon, you may also see upon that circle the exact point of his setting.

PROB. 15. *To know by the Globe the Length of the longest and shortest Days and Nights in any Part of the World.*

Elevate the pole according to the latitude of the given place, and bring the first degree of Cancer, if in the northern, or Capricorn, if in the southern hemisphere, to the eastern side of the horizon. Then, setting the index of the horary circle at noon, turn the globe about till the sign of Cancer touches the western side of the horizon, and observe upon the horary circle the number of hours between the index and the upper figure of XII., reckoning them according to the motion of the index; for that is the length of the longest day, the complement of which to 24 hours is the extent of the shortest night. The shortest day and longest night are only the reverse of the former.

PROB. 16. *The Hour of the Day being given at any Place, to find those Places of the Earth where it is either Noon or Midnight, or any other particular Hour, at the same Time.*

Bring the given place to the brazen meridian, and set the index of the

hourly circle at the hour of the day in that place. Then turn the globe till the index points at the upper figure of XII., and observe what places are exactly under the upper semicircle of the brazen meridian; for in them it is mid-day at the time given. Which done, turn the globe till the index points at the lower figure of XII., and whatever places are then in the lower semicircle of the meridian, in them it is midnight at the given time. After the same manner we may find those places that have any other particular hour at the time given, by moving the globe till the index points at the hour desired, and observing the places that are then under the brazen meridian.

PROB. 17. *The Day and Hour being given, to find by the Globe that particular Place of the Earth to which the Sun is vertical at that Time.*

The sun's place in the ecliptic (*a*) being found, and (*a*) **PROB. 6.** brought to the brazen meridian, make a mark above the (*b*) **PROB. 16.** same; then (*b*) find those places of the earth in whose meridian the sun is at that instant, and bring them to the brazen meridian; which done, observe that part of the earth which falls exactly under the aforesaid mark in the brazen meridian; for that is the particular place to which the sun is vertical at that time.

PROB. 18. *The Day and Hour at any Place being given, to find all those Places where the Sun is then rising, or setting, or in the Meridian; consequently all those Places which are enlightened at that Time, and those which have Twilight, or dark Night.*

This problem cannot be solved by any globe fitted up in the common way, with the hour-circle fixed upon the brass meridian, unless the sun be on or near either of the tropics on the given day. But by a globe fitted up with the hour-circle on its surface below the meridian, it may be solved for any day in the year, according to the following method.

Having found the place to which the sun is vertical at the given hour, if the place be in the northern hemisphere, elevate the north pole as many degrees above the horizon as are equal to the latitude of that place: if the place be in the southern hemisphere, elevate the south pole accordingly, and bring the said place to the brazen meridian. Then, all those places which are in the western semicircle of the horizon, have the sun rising to them at that time, and those in the eastern semicircle have it setting: to those under the upper semicircle of the brass meridian it is noon; and to those under the lower semicircle it is midnight. All those places which are above the horizon are enlightened by the sun, and have the sun just as many degrees above them as they themselves are above the horizon; and this height may be known, by fixing the quadrant of altitude on the brazen meridian over the place to which the sun is vertical; and then laying it over any other place, observing what number of degrees on the quadrant are intercepted between the said place and the horizon. In all those places that are 18 degrees below the western semicircle of the horizon, the morning twilight is just beginning; in all those places that are 18 degrees below the eastern semicircle of the horizon, the evening twilight is ending; and all those places that are lower than 18 degrees, have dark night.

If any place be brought to the upper semicircle of the brazen meridian, and the hour index be set to the upper figure of XII., or noon, and then the globe be turned round eastward on its axis,—when the place comes to the western semicircle of the horizon, the index will show the time of the sun's

rising at that place; and when the same place comes to the eastern semicircle of the horizon, the index will show the time of the sun's setting.

To those places which do not go under the horizon, the sun sets not on that day: and to those which do not come above it, the sun does not rise.

PROB. 19. *The Month and Day being given, with the Place of the Moon in the Zodiac, and her true Latitude, to find the exact Hour when she will rise and set, together with her Southing, or Coming to the Meridian of the Place.*

The moon's place in the Zodiac may be found by an ordinary almanack; and her latitude, which is her distance from the ecliptic, by applying the semicircle of position to her place in the zodiac. For the solution of the problem, elevate the pole (*a*) according to the latitude of the given place; and the sun's place in the ecliptic at the time being (*b*) found, and marked, as also the moon's place at the same time, bring the sun's place to the brazen meridian, and set the index of the horary circle at noon; then turn the globe till the moon's place successively meet with the eastern and western side of the horizon, as also the brazen meridian; and the index will point at those various times the particular hours of her rising, setting, and southing.

GEOGRAPHICAL OBSERVATIONS.

1. The latitude of any place is equal to the elevation of the pole above the horizon of that place, and the elevation of the equator is equal to the complement of the latitude, that is, to what the latitude wants of 90 degrees.

2. Those places which lie on the equator have no latitude, it being there that the latitude begins; and those places which lie on the first meridian have no longitude, it being there that the longitude begins. Consequently, that particular place of the earth where the first meridian intersects the equator has neither longitude nor latitude.

3. All places of the earth equally enjoy the benefit of the sun, in respect of time, and are equally deprived of it.

4. All places upon the equator have their days and nights equally long, that is, 12 hours each at all times of the year. For although the sun declines alternately from the equator towards the north and towards the south, yet as the horizon of the equator cuts all the parallels of latitude and declination in halves, the sun must always continue above the horizon for one half a diurnal revolution about the earth, and for the other half below it.

5. In all places of the earth between the equator and poles, the days and nights are equally long, viz. 12 hours each, when the sun is in the equinoctial: for, in all the elevations of the pole short of 90 degrees (which is the greatest), one half of the equator or equinoctial will be above the horizon, and the other half below it.

6. The days and nights are never of an equal length at any place between the equator and polar circles, but when the sun enters the signs ♈ Aries and ♎ Libra. For in every other part of the ecliptic, the circle of the sun's daily motion is divided into two unequal parts by the horizon.

7. The nearer any place is to the equator, the less is the difference between the length of the days and nights in that place; and the more remote, the contrary;—the circles which the sun describes in the heavens every 24 hours being cut more nearly equal in the former case, and more unequal in the latter.

8. In all places lying upon any given parallel of latitude, however long or short the day and night be at any one of those places at any time of the year, it is then of the same length at all the rest; for, in turning the globe round its axis (when rectified according to the sun's declination), all those places will keep equally long above and below the horizon.

9. The sun is vertical twice a-year to every place between the tropics; to those under the tropics, once a-year, but never anywhere else. For there can be no place between the tropics, but that there will be two points in the ecliptic whose declination from the equator is equal to the latitude of that place; and there is but one point of the ecliptic which has a declination equal to the latitude of places on the tropic which that point of the ecliptic touches; and as the sun never goes without the tropics, he can never be vertical to any place that lies without them.

10. In all places lying exactly under the polar circles, the sun, when he is in the nearer tropic, continues 24 hours above the horizon without setting, because no part of that tropic is below their horizon. And when the sun is in the farther tropic, he is for the same length of time without rising, because no part of that tropic is below their horizon. But at all other times of the year, he rises and sets there as in other places; because all the circles that can be drawn parallel to the equator, between the tropics, are more or less cut by the horizon, as they are farther from, or nearer to, that tropic which is all above the horizon; and when the sun is not in either of the tropics, his diurnal course must be in one or other of those circles.

11. To all places in the northern hemisphere, from the equator to the polar circle, the longest day and shortest night is when the sun is in the northern tropic; and the shortest day and longest night is when the sun is in the southern tropic; because no circle of the sun's daily motion is so much above the horizon, and so little below it, as the northern tropic; and none so little above it, and so much below it, as the southern. In the southern hemisphere, the contrary takes place.

12. In all places between the polar circles and poles, the sun appears for some number of days (or rather diurnal revolutions) without setting, and at the opposite time of the year without rising; because some part of the ecliptic never sets in the former case, and as much of the opposite part never rises in the latter. And the nearer unto, or the more remote from, the pole, these places are, the longer or shorter is the sun's continuing presence or absence.

13. If a ship set out from any port, and sail round the earth eastward to the same port again, let her perform her voyage in what time she will, the people in that ship, in reckoning their time, will gain one complete day at their return, or count one day more than those who reside at the same port; because, by going contrary to the sun's diurnal motion, and being forwarder every evening than they were in the morning, their horizon will get so much the sooner above the setting sun, than if they had remained for a whole day at any particular place. And thus, by cutting off from the length of every day a part proportionable to their own motion, they will gain a complete day at their return, without gaining one moment of absolute time. If they sail westward, they will reckon one day less than the people do who reside at the same port; because, by gradually following the apparent diurnal motion of the sun, they will keep him each particular day so much longer above the horizon as answers to that day's course; and thereby cut off a whole day in reckoning, at their return, without losing one moment of absolute time.

Hence, if two ships should set out at the same time from any port, and sail round the globe, one eastward and the other westward, so as to meet at the same port on any day whatever, they will differ two days in reckoning the time, at their return. If they sail twice round the earth, they will differ four days; if thrice, then six, &c.

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, isthmuses, promontories, capes, coasts, mountains, &c. This land is divided into two great continents (besides the islands), viz. the *eastern* and *western* continent. The eastern is subdivided into three parts, viz. Europe, on the north-west; Asia, on the north-east; and Africa (which is joined to Asia by the isthmus of Suez, 60 miles over), on the south. The western continent consists of North and South America, joined by the isthmus of Darien, nearly 70 miles broad.

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, everywhere surrounded by water, except at one narrow neck, by which it joins the neighbouring continent, as the Morea in Greece; and that neck of land which so joins it is called an *isthmus*; as the isthmus of Suez, which joins Africa to Asia, and the isthmus of Darien, which joins North and South America. A *promontory* is a hill, or point of land, stretching itself into the sea, the end of which is called a *cape*; as the cape of Good Hope. A *coast* or *shore* is that part of a country which borders on the sea-side. Mountains, valleys, woods, deserts, 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, gulfs, bays, or creeks, rivers, &c. The waters are divided into three extensive oceans (besides lesser seas, which are only branches of these), viz. the *Atlantic*, the *Pacific*, and the *Indian* Ocean. The Atlantic or Western Ocean divides the eastern and western continents, and is 3000 miles wide. The Pacific divides America from Asia, and is 10,000 miles over. The Indian Ocean lies between the East Indies and Africa, being 3000 miles wide.

An *ocean* is a vast collection of water, without any entire separation of its parts by land; as the Atlantic Ocean. A *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, confined or lying between two shores, and opening a passage out of one sea into another, as the strait of Gibraltar, or that of Magellan. This is sometimes called a *sound*, or the strait into the Baltic. A *gulf* is a part of the sea running up into the land, and surrounded by it except at the passage by which it communicates with the sea or ocean. If a gulf 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 division

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 the 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 gulf or inland sea. A promontory or cape of land is like a bay or creek of the sea; and an isthmus, whereby two lands are joined, resembles a strait, which unites one sea to another.

OF THE TRUE FIGURE AND DIMENSIONS OF THE EARTH.

Though we have hitherto spoken of the earth as a spherical or globular body, it is necessary to observe that it is not a perfect sphere. Its true figure was the subject of great disputes between the philosophers of the last age, among whom sir Isaac Newton, and Cassini, a celebrated French astronomer, were the leaders of two different parties. Sir Isaac showed, from mathematical principles, that the earth must be an *oblate* spheroid; or that it was flatted at the poles and jitted out towards the equator, so that a line drawn through the centre of the earth, and passing through the poles, would not be so long as a line drawn through the same centre, and passing through the east and west points. The French mathematician asserted precisely the reverse, that is, that its diameter was lengthened towards the poles. In order to decide this question, the king of France, in 1736, sent out some able mathematicians to Lapland, to measure the length of a degree of latitude at the polar circle, and likewise others to Peru, to make the same admeasurement near the equator. Their observations confirmed the opinion of sir Isaac Newton beyond dispute, and proved that the earth is flatter towards the poles than towards the equator. The nature of sir Isaac's reasoning may be in some measure elucidated by the simple experiment of fixing a ball of soft clay on a spindle, and whirling it round, for we shall find that it will jut out or project towards the middle, and flatten towards the poles. Sir Isaac, from his theory, had determined that the polar diameter of the earth must be to the equatorial as 229 to 230, or about 35 miles shorter. Maupertuis, and the other French mathematicians who went to Lapland, deduced, from their mensuration of a degree, that the equatorial diameter is 7942 miles, and the polar 7852 miles; so that the former exceeds the latter by 90 miles.

According to these calculations, the circumference of the earth under the equator will be 24,951 miles, which multiplied by the diameter will give 198,160,842, the number of square miles (sixty-nine and a half to a degree) in the spherical surface of the earth; and this number multiplied by one sixth of the diameter will give 524,541,748,774, the number of cubic miles in its solid contents.

We here subjoin a table exhibiting the superficial contents in square miles, sixty to a degree, of the seas and unknown parts of the world, of the habitable earth, the four quarters or continents; likewise of the great empires, and principal islands, placed as they are subordinate to each other in magnitude.

locity 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, 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.

The winds called the *Tropical Winds*, which blow from some particular point of the compass without much variation, are of three kinds; 1. The *General Trade Winds*, which extend to nearly thirty degrees of latitude on each side of the equator in the Atlantic, Ethiopic, and Pacific seas. 2. The *Monsoons*, or shifting trade winds, which blow six months in one direction, and the other six months in the opposite. These are mostly in the Indian or Eastern Ocean, and do not extend above two hundred leagues from the land. Their change is at the vernal and autumnal equinoxes, and is accompanied with terrible storms of thunder, lightning, and rain. 3. The *Sea and Land Breezes*, which are another kind of periodical winds, that blow from the land from midnight to mid-day, and from the sea from 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 nearly always from the west, south-west, or south. On the coast of Peru in South America, the wind blows 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, though 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 that of 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 immortal sir Isaac Newton was the first who satisfactorily explained the cause and nature of the tides by his great principle of attraction, in consequence of which all bodies mutually draw or attract each other, in proportion to their masses and distance. By the action of this power, 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 cause produces 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 centre, 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 and 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; and to

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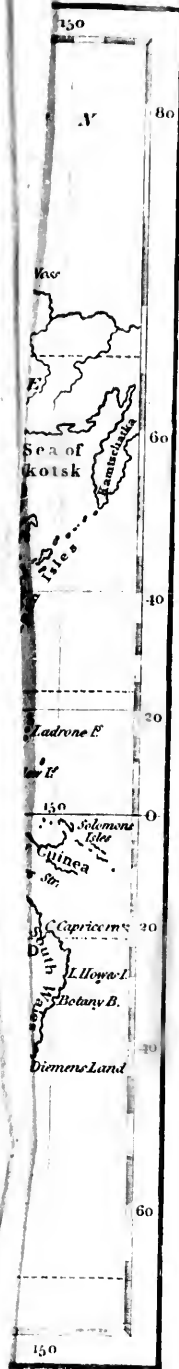
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In maps of particular countries, the top is generally considered as the north, the bottom as the south; and the east is consequently on the right hand, and the west on the left. Where this rule is not followed, a flower-de-luce is usually placed on some part of the map, pointing towards the north, by which the other points may be easily known. From the top to the bottom of the map 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, distance, &c. of places may be found. 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, and to apply this distance to the scale of miles, which shows that London is 210 miles distant from Paris. If the places lie directly north or south, east or west, from each other, 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 denoting fathoms.

[LENGTH OF MILES IN DIFFERENT COUNTRIES.] There is scarcely a greater variety in any thing than in this sort of measure: not only those of separate countries differ, as the French from the English, but those of the same country vary in the different provinces from each other, and from the standard. Thus the common English mile differs from the statute mile: and the French have three sorts of leagues. We shall here give the miles of several countries, compared with the English by Dr. Halley.

The English statute mile consists of 5280 feet, 1760 yards, or 8 furlongs.

The Russian verst is little more than $\frac{3}{4}$ of a mile English.

The Scotch and Irish mile is about $1\frac{1}{4}$ English.

The Dutch, Spanish, and Polish, is about $3\frac{1}{2}$ English.

The German is more than 4 English.

The Swedish, Danish, and Hungarian, is from 5 to 6 English.

The French common league is near 3 English; and

The English marine league is 3 English miles.

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 those countries carried our 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 present him with a general view of the history of mankind, from the first ages of the world to the reformation in religion during the 16th century. An account of the most interesting and important events which have happened among mankind, with the causes that have produced, and the effects which have followed from them, is certainly of great importance in itself, and indispensably requisite to the understanding of the present state of commerce, govern-

ment, arts, and manners, in any particular country: it may be called commercial and political geography, and, undoubtedly, constitutes the most useful branch of that science.

The great event of the creation of the world, before which there was neither matter nor form of any thing, is placed, according to the best chronologers, in the year before Christ 4004, and in the 710th year of what is called the Julian period, which has been adopted by some chronologers and historians, but is of little real service. The sacred records have fully determined the question, that the world was not eternal, and also ascertained the time of its creation with great precision*.

It appears in general, from the first chapters in Genesis, that the world, before the flood, was extremely populous; that mankind had made considerable improvement in the arts, and were become extremely vicious, both in their sentiments and manners. Their wickedness gave occasion to a memorable catastrophe, by which the whole human race, except Noah and his family, were swept from the face of the earth. The deluge took place in the 1656th year of the

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world, and produced a very considerable change in the soil and atmosphere of this globe, rendering them less friendly to the frame and texture of the human body. Hence the abridgement of the life of man, and that formidable train of diseases which has ever since made such havock in the world. 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 Iapeus; 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 obtained immortal renown; and, by the admiration which his courage and

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dexterity universally excited, was enabled 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 surprise 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, 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 that 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 Abraham to be the father of a chosen people. From this period the history of ancient nations begins to dawn.

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* The Samaritan copy of the Pentateuch (or five books) of Moses, makes the antediluvian period only 1307 years, 349 short of the Hebrew Bible computation; and the Septuagint copy stretches it to 2262 years, which is 606 years exceeding it; but the Hebrew chronology is generally acknowledged to be of superior authority.

Mankind had not long been united into societies before they began to oppress and destroy each other. Chedorlaomer, king of the Elamites, or Persians, was already become a robber and a conqueror. His force, however, could not have been very great, since, in one of his 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 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 respecting the Egyptians, which evidently discover the characteristics of an improved and powerful nation. The court of the Egyptian monarch is described in the most brilliant colours. He was surrounded by a crowd of courtiers, solely occupied in gratifying his passions. The particular governments into which that country was divided were now united under one powerful prince; and Ham, who led the colony into Egypt, became 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 that early age. Diodorus Siculus, a Greek writer, mentions many successive princes who laboured for their establishment and perfection. But in the time of Jacob, two centuries after, the first principles of civil order and regular government 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 that age enjoyed a commerce far from inconsiderable. 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 civilisation and refinement. The kingdoms of Babylon and Nineveh remained separate for several centuries: but we scarcely know even the names of the kings who governed them, except that of Ninus, the successor of Assur, who, fired with the spirit of conquest, extended the bounds of his kingdom, added Babylon to his dominions, and laid the foundation of that monarchy, which, raised to its meridian splendor by his enterprising successor Semiramis, and distinguished by the name of the Assyrian empire, ruled Asia for many ages.

Javan, son of Japhet, and grandson of Noah, was the stock from whom all the people known by the name of Greeks are descended. Javan established himself in the islands on the western coast of Asia Minor, from whence it was impossible that some wanderers should not pass over into Europe. The kingdom of Sicyon, near Corinth, founded by the Pelasgi, is generally supposed to have commenced in the year before Christ 2090. To these first inhabitants succeeded a colony from Egypt, who, about 2000 years before the Christian æra, penetrated into Greece, and, under the name of Titans, endeavoured to establish monarchy in that country, and to introduce into it the laws and civil polity of the Egyptians. But the empire of the Titans was soon dissolved; and the Greeks, who seem to have been at this time as rude and barbarous as any 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 consider-

table alteration in the manner of its inhabitants. The most ancient of these were the colonies of Inachus and Ogyges; of whom the former settled in Argos, and the latter in Attica. We know very little of Ogyges or his successors. Those who were dispersed and wandering Greeks; and their endeavours for this purpose were not altogether unsuccessful.

But the history of the Israelites is the only one with which we are much acquainted during those ages. The train of extraordinary 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 Hebrew chronology, only 1089 years before Christ, and in the year of the world 2315. This is a remarkable æra 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 greatly disfigured by their fabulous narrations. Let us examine, then, 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 then alike in these respects. They find some nations extremely rude and barbarous, and hence they conclude that all were in the same 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, with regard to arts and refinement, as between the civilised kingdoms of modern Europe and the Indians of America, or the Negroes on the coast of Africa. Noah was undoubtedly acquainted with all the science and 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 scarcely 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 ancient 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 ancient date; it had no mark to ascertain its weight or fineness; and in a contract for a burying-place, in exchange for which Abraham gave silver, the metal was weighed in the presence of all the people.

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As commerce improved, and bargains of this sort became more common, this practice was laid aside, 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, grandson of Abraham. The *reflah*, 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. The history of Joseph shows that commerce between different nations was then regularly carried on. The Ishmaëlites and Midianites, 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. Job, who, according to the best writers, was a native of Arabia Felix, and also a contemporary with Jacob, speaks of the roads of Thema and Saba, *i. e.* of the caravans which set out from those cities of Arabia. If we reflect that the commodities of that country were rather the luxuries than the necessities 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.

That branch of the posterity of Noah 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 Phœnicians. Inhabiting a barren and ungrateful soil, they applied themselves to improve their situation by cultivating the arts. Commerce was their principal pursuit: and with all the writers of pagan antiquity, they pass for the inventors of whatever tended to its advancement. 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, according to Herodotus, the Phœnicians had by this time navigated the coasts of Greece, and carried off the daughter of Inachus.

The arts of agriculture, commerce, and navigation, suppose the knowledge of several others: astronomy, for instance, or a knowledge of the situation and revolutions of the heavenly bodies, is necessary both to agriculture 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 a custom among all the nations of antiquity, as well as the Jews, to divide time into portions 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 completed nearly in four weeks: hence the division of a month. Those people, again, who lived by agriculture, and were become acquainted with the division 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 everywhere 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 ancient, naturally prepared the way for the discovery of the *solar year*, which at that time would be thought an immense improvement in astronomy. But, with regard to those branches of knowledge which we have mentioned, it is to be remembered that they were peculiar to the Egyptians, and a few nations of Asia. Europe offers a

gloomy spectacle during this period. Even the inhabitants of Greece, who in later ages became the patterns of politeness and of every elegant art, were then a savage race of men, traversing the woods and wilds, inhabiting the rocks and caverns, a wretched prey to wild animals, and sometimes to each other. Those descendants of Noah who had removed to a great distance from the plains of Shinar, lost all connexion with the civilised part of mankind. 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 obtain a glimpse of them, and they disappear entirely for many ages. After the reign of Ninias, who succeeded Semiramis and Ninus on the Assyrian throne, we find an astonishing blank in the history of that empire for no less than eight hundred years. The silence of ancient history on this subject is commonly attributed to the softness and effeminacy of the successors of Ninus, whose lives afforded no events worthy of narration. Wars and commotions are the great themes of the historian, while the gentle and happy reigns of wise princes, pass unobserved and unrecorded. Sesostris, a prince of wonderful abilities, is supposed to have succeeded Amenophis, who was swallowed up in the Red Sea about the year before Christ 1892. 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 successors, was, in all probability, the most powerful kingdom upon earth, and is estimated to have contained 27 millions of inhabitants. But ancient history often excites, without gratifying, our curiosity; for, from the reign of Sesostris to that of Bocchoris, in the year before Christ 1781, we have little knowledge of even the names of the intermediate princes. Egypt, however, continued to pour forth her colonies into distant nations. Athens, that seat of learning and politeness, that school for all who aspired to wisdom, owed its foundation to Cecrops, who landed in Greece 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 a condition 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 connexions, and with little knowledge of those to whom they owed their birth. Cranæus, who succeeded 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, was divided, and which had been already peopled by colonies from Egypt and the East, began to assume some appearance of form and regularity. Amphictyon conceived the idea of uniting in one confederacy the several independent kingdoms of Greece, and thereby delivering them from those intestine divisions which must render them a prey to each other, or to the first enemy who might think proper to invade them. This plan he communicated to the kings or leaders in the different territories, and by his eloquence and address engaged twelve cities to unite together for their

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common preservation. Two deputies from each of those cities assembled twice a-year at Thermopylæ, and formed what, after the name of its founder, was called the Amphictyonic Council. In this assembly, whatever related to the general interest of the confederacy was discussed and finally determined. Amphictyon likewise, sensible that those political connexions are the most lasting which are strengthened by religion, committed to the Amphictyons 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 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 Amphictyonic council is, perhaps, the most remarkable political establishment which ever took place among mankind.

In the year before Christ 1322, the Isthmian games were instituted at Corinth; and in 1303 the famous Olympic games by Pelops; which games, together with the Pythian and Nemæan, have been rendered immortal by the genius of Pindar.

The Greek states, formerly unconnected with each other, except by mutual inroads and hostilities, soon began to act with concert, and to undertake distant expeditions for the general interest of the confederacy.

The first of these was the famous expedition of the Argonauts, in which all Greece appears to have taken part.

B. C. 1263. 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 fleet, is the only one particularly named; though we learn from Homer, and other ancient writers, that several vessels were employed in that expedition. The fleet was long tossed about on different coasts; but at length arrived at *Æa*, the capital of Colchis, after performing a voyage, which, considering the mean condition of the naval art during that age, was not less important than the circumnavigation of the earth by our modern discoverers.

B. C. 1184. During the interval between this voyage and the war against Troy, which was undertaken to recover the fair *Helena*, a queen of Sparta, who had been carried off by *Paris*, son of the Trojan king, the Greeks must have made a wonderful progress in arts, in power, and opulence. No less than 1200 vessels were employed in this expedition, each of which, at a medium, contained upwards of one 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. There appears originally to have been a remarkable resemblance, as to their political situation, between the different kingdoms of Greece. They were governed each by a king, or rather by 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 imme-

mediate followers. These captains were often at war with each other, and sometimes with their sovereign; and each particular state was, in miniature, what the whole country had been before the time of Amphictyon. Theseus, king of Attica, about the year B. C. 1234, had, by his exploits, acquired great reputation for valour and ability. He saw the inconveniences 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 artisans; he detached, as much as possible, the different tribes 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 that city from an inconsiderable village to a powerful metropolis. The splendor of Athens and of 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, being now 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 artisans, and the husbandmen. In order to abridge the exorbitant power of the nobles, he had bestowed many privileges on the two other ranks of citizens. 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 great merit, in the year before Christ 1070, the Athenians, become weary of the regal authority, under pretence that they could find 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.

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 Phœnicia, 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

B. C. rival states, which, by means of the superiority they acquired, gave the tone to the manners, genius, and politics of the Greeks, deserve our particular attention. The Athenians, by abolishing the name of king, on the death of Codrus, did not entirely subvert the regal authority: they established a perpetual magistrate, who, under the name of Archon, was invested with almost the same powers which their kings had enjoyed; but after that office had continued 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 person, was three years. Afterwards, still more to reduce the power of their archons, it was determined that nine annual magistrates should be appointed under this title. 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 licentiousness. No written laws had been as yet enacted in Athens; and it was hardly possible that the ancient customs of the country, which were naturally supposed to be in part abolished by the successive changes in the government, should sufficiently restrain the tumultuous spirits of the Athenians in the first paroxysm of their independence. The wiser part of the state, therefore, who began to prefer any system of government to their present anarchy and confusion, were induced 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 multitude. Draco undertook the office about the year 628, 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 code of Draco proved to be a remedy worse than the disease. Affairs again fell into confusion, which continued till those laws were reformed in the time of Solon, about the year before Christ 594. The wisdom, virtue, and amiable manners of Solon recommended him to the most important of all offices, the giving laws to a free people. This employment was assigned him by the unanimous voice of his country; but he long deliberated whether he should undertake it. At length, however, motives of public utility overcame all considerations of private ease, safety, and reputation. The first step of his legislation was to abolish all the laws of Draco, excepting those relative to murder. The punishment of this crime could not be too great; but to consider other offences as equally criminal, was confounding all notions of right and wrong, and rendering the law ineffectual by its severity. Solon next proceeded to new-model the political law. He seems to have thought, 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 to practice. He divided the citizens then fore into four classes, according to the wealth which they possessed; and the poorest class he rendered altogether incapable of any public office. 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 gusts 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 from 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 ascendancy in the republic, by the wisdom and gravity of its members, who were not chosen but after the strictest scrutiny and the most serious deliberation.

Such was the system of government established by Solon, which, the nearer we examine it, will the more excite our admiration. Upon the same plan most of the other ancient 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 outlines of it at least ought not to be here omitted. The country, of which Sparta afterwards became the capital, was, like the other states of Greece, originally divided into several petty principalities, of which each was under the jurisdiction of its own immediate chieftain. Lelex is said to have been the first king, about the year before Christ 1516. At length, the two brothers, Eurysthenes and Procles, obtaining possession of this country, became conjoint in the royalty; and, what is extremely singular, their posterity, in a direct line, continued to rule conjunctly for nine hundred years, ending with Cleomenes, anno 220 before the Christian æra. 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, 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 fine, which had the smallest tendency to soften the minds of the Spartans, was absolutely proscribed. They were forbidden the use of money; they lived at public tables on the coarsest fare; the younger were taught to pay the utmost reverence to the more advanced in years; and all ranks capable of bearing 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 scarcely any 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 now cast our eyes 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 Bocchoris. From this period to the dissolution of their government by Cambyses of Persia, in the year before Christ 524, 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 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. Sardanapalus, 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 seize this opportunity of raising their own fortune on the ruins of their master's power. Arbaces, governor of Media, and Belesis, governor of Babylon, conspired against their sovereign, and having set fire to his capital (in which Sardanapalus perished), divided 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 for many years. Phul revived the kingdom of Assyria; and Shalmaneser, one of his successors, put an end to the kingdom of Israel, and carried the ten tribes captive into Assyria and Media. Nebuchadnezzar, king of Babylon, also, in the year before Christ 587, overturned the kingdom of Judah, which had continued in the family of David from the year 1055, and conquered all the countries

round him. But in the year 538, Cyrus the Great took Babylon, and reduced this quarter of the world under the Persian yoke. 538. The manners of this people, 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. The æra of Cyrus is in one respect extremely remarkable, besides that in it the Jews were delivered from their captivity, because with it the history of the great nations of antiquity, which has hitherto engaged our attention, may be said to terminate. 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 those 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 that adorned Babylon and Nineveh: neither is it clearly determined in what year they were begun or finished. There are three pyramids, stupendous fabrics, still remaining in Egypt, at some leagues distance from Cairo, and about nine miles from the Nile, which are supposed to have been the burying-places of the ancient Egyptian kings. The largest is five hundred feet in height, and each side of the base six hundred and ninety-three feet in length. The apex is thirteen feet square. The second covers as much ground as the first, but is forty feet lower. It was a superstition among the Egyptians, 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. The pyramids were erected with the same view. In them the bodies of the Egyptian kings, it has been supposed, were deposited. 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 they were really superb and magnificent structures, but totally void of elegance. The arts in which those nations, next to architecture, chiefly excelled, were sculpture and embroidery. As to the sciences, they principally bestowed their attention on astronomy. It does not appear, however, that they had made great progress in explaining the causes of the phenomena of the universe, or indeed in any species of rational and sound philosophy; as a proof of which it may be 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 period of their government. The countries which they occupied were extremely fruitful, and without much labour afforded all the necessaries, and even luxuries, of life. They had long inhabited 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 barbarism, and, of consequence, brave and warlike.

The history of Persia, after the reign of Cyrus, who died in the year before Christ 529, offers little, 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 those virtues which the freedom of their government had created and confirmed. Sparta remained under the influence of the institutions of Lycurgus: Athens had just recovered from the tyranny of the Pisistratidæ, a family who had trampled on the laws of Solon, and usurped the supreme power. Such was their situation, when Darius (at the instigation of Hippias, who had been expelled from Athens, and on account of the Athenians' burning the city of Sardis) sent forth his numerous armies against 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, animated by the late recovery of their freedom. Miltiades, in the plains of Marathon, with ten thousand Athenians, overcame the Persian 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 fall within our plan to mention the events of this war, which, as the noblest monuments of the triumph 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 an immense army, which, according to Herodotus, amounted to two millions and one hundred thousand men. This account has been justly considered, by some ingenious modern writers, as incredible. The truth cannot now be ascertained; but that the army of Xerxes was extremely numerous, is the more probable, from the great extent of his empire; and from the absurd practice of the eastern nations, of encumbering their camp with a superfluous multitude. Whatever the numbers of his army were, he was everywhere defeated, by sea and land, and escaped to Asia in a fishing-boat. Such was the spirit of the Greeks, and 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." But though 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 the spoils of Persia,—it was not their enduring so many hardships in the course of the war, but their connexions 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 among themselves; and their quarrels were increased by Persian gold, of which they had acquired

B. C. enough to make them desirous of more. Hence proceeded the famous Peloponnesian war, in which the Athenians and Lacedæmonians acted as principals, and drew after them the other states of Greece. They continued to weaken themselves by these intestine divisions, till Philip, king of Macedon (a country till this time little known, but which, by the active and crafty genius of that prince, became important and powerful), rendered himself the absolute master of Greece, by the battle of Chæronea. But this conquest is one of the first we

B. C. meet with in history, which did not depend on the event of a battle. Philip had laid his scheme so deeply, 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 Chæronea 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 in 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 gaining 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 Chæronea. Upon his decease, his son Alexander was chosen general against the Persians, by all the Grecian states, except the Athenians and Thebans.

B. C. These made a feeble effort for expiring liberty; but they were obliged to yield to superior force. Secure on the side of Greece, 334.

Alexander set out on his Persian expedition, at the head of thirty thousand foot, and five thousand horse. The success of this army in conquering the whole force of Darius in three great battles, in overrunning and subduing, not only the countries then known to the Greeks, but many parts of India, whose very names had never before reached an European ear, has been described by many authors, both ancient and

B. C. modern, and constitutes a singular part of the history of the world. 323. Soon after this rapid career of victory and success, Alexander died at Babylon. His captains, after sacrificing all his family to their ambition, divided among them his dominions.

During the period which elapsed between the reign of Cyrus and that of Alexander, the arts were carried to the highest perfection. 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 Olympius and of the Ephesian Diana were 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, who died in the year B. C. 432, is the first sculptor whose works have been immortal. Zeuxis, Parrhasius, and Timanthes, 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 scarcely form an idea. After Hesiod and Homer, who flourished 1000 years before the Christian æra, 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, the virtues of whose life, and the excellence of whose philosophy, justly entitled him to a very high degree of veneration,—his three disciples, Plato, Aristotle, and Zenophon, may, for strength of reasoning, justness of sentiment, and propriety of expression, be considered as the equals of the best writers of any age or country. Experience, indeed, in a long course of years, has taught us many secrets in nature, with which those 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. 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 to a science by the Greeks. Their soldiers fought from an affection to their country and an ardour for glory, and not from a dread of their superiors. We have seen the effects of this military virtue in their wars against the Persians; the cause of it was the wise laws which Amphictyon, 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 of the Roman state, when we view him as a 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 but be interested in his conduct. He possessed great military abilities, and a wide field for the display of these was afforded by the political state of Italy, divided into a number of small but independent districts. 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 aggrandise themselves, but even to subsist. In the conduct of his wars with the neighbouring people, we may observe an adherence to the same maxims by which the Romans afterwards became 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 whom 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. Of both these maxims we have an example 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

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other states. Romulus, though principally attached to war, did not altogether neglect the civil polity 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 and military interests of his country, was, according to the most probable conjecture, privately assassinated by some of the members of that senate which he himself had instituted.

The successors of Romulus were all very extraordinary personages. Numa, who came next after 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, and Servius Tullius, laboured, each during his reign, for the greatness 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 powers of their former sovereigns. This revolution was very favourable to the Roman power and grandeur. The consuls, who enjoyed but a temporary power, were desirous of signalising 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 shall not be surprised that they should, in the course of some centuries, extend their power over all Italy.

The Romans, now secure at home, and finding no enemy to contend with in Italy, turned their eyes abroad, and met with a powerful rival in the Carthaginians. This state had been founded or enlarged on the coast of the Mediterranean in Africa, some time before Rome, by a colony of Phœnicians, anno B. C. 869; 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 Straits. 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 hostilities 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 an inconsiderable state; but she was now become cor-

rupt 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 lasted twenty-three years, and taught the Romans the art of fighting on the sea, with which they had hitherto been unacquainted. A Carthaginian vessel was wrecked on their coast; they used it for a model; in three months fitted out a fleet; and the consul Duilius, who fought their first naval battle, was victorious. The behaviour of Regulus, the Roman general, may give us an idea of the spirit which then animated this people. Being taken prisoner in Africa, he was sent back on his parole to negotiate a change of prisoners. He maintained in the senate the propriety of that law which cut off from those who suffered themselves to be taken, all hopes of being saved; and returned to 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 altar 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 on his mind, as nothing afterwards could ever efface. Being appointed general at twenty-five years of age, he crosses the Ebro, the Pyrenées, and the Alps, and unexpectedly rushes down upon Italy. The loss of four battles threatens the fall of Rome. Sicily sides with the conqueror. Hieronymus, king of Syracuse, declares against the Romans, and almost all Italy abandons them. In this extremity, Rome owed its preservation to three great men. Fabius Maximus, despising popular clamour, and the military 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 young Scipio, at the age of four and twenty, 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 on a war, but with the consent of the Roman people.

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; and of which the scene of action was Greece, Egypt, and the East. The states of Greece had once more disengaged themselves from a foreign yoke. They were divided into three confederacies, the Ætolians, Achæans, and Bœotians. Each of these was an association of free cities, which had assemblies and magistrates in common. The Ætolians

were the most considerable of them all. 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 monarch who then reigned in Macedon, had rendered himself odious to the Greeks by some unpopular and tyrannical measures; the Ætoliens 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 dependents. The Ætoliens, 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 king 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, 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 Ætoliens; for, instead of renewing the war in Italy, where Hannibal, from experience, knew 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 Ætoliens for conquering Philip. They now pursued Antiochus, the last object of their resentment, into Asia, and, having vanquished him by sea and land, compelled him to submit to a disgraceful 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 denomination, however, under a specious name, concealed a condition very servile, and inferred that they should submit to whatever was required of them. When we reflect on those easy conquests, we have reason to be astonished at the resistance which the Romans met with from Mithridates, king of Pontus, for the space of twenty-six years. But this monarch had great resources. His kingdom, bordering on the inaccessible mountains of Caucasus, abounded in a race of men whose minds were not enervated with pleasure, and whose bodies were firm and vigorous; and he gave the Romans more trouble than even Hannibal.

The different states of Greece and Asia, who now began to feel the weight of their yoke, but had not the spirit to shake it off, were transported at finding a prince, who dared to show himself an enemy to the Romans, and cheerfully submitted to his protection. Mithridates, however, was at last compelled to yield to the superior fortune of the Romans. Vanquished successively by Sylla and Lucullus, he was at length subdued by Pompey, and stripped of his dominions and his life, in the year before Christ 63. In Africa, the Roman arms met with equal success. Marius, in conquering Jugurtha, gave security to the republic 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, Teutones, and the other northern nations of Europe, broke into this part of the empire. The same Marius, whose name was so terrible in Africa, then made the north of Europe to tremble. The barbarians retired to their wilds and deserts, less formidable than the Roman legions. But while Rome con-

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quered the world, there subsisted an incessant war within her walls. This war had continued from the first period of the government. Rome, after the expulsion of her kings, enjoyed but a partial 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 dependence, and became determined to shake it off. A thousand disputes on the subject arose between them and the patricians, which always terminated in favour of liberty.

These disputes, while the Romans preserved their virtue, were not attended with any sanguinary consequences. The patricians, who loved their country, cheerfully resigned 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 sanguinary 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 had little respect for any 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 embrace their hands in the blood of their country. 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 is victorious almost at the same time 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 attempt to give Rome her liberty by stabbing him in the senate-house. But though they thereby deliver the Romans from the tyranny of Julius, the republic does not obtain its freedom. It falls under the dominion of Mark Antony; young Cæsar Octavianus, nephew to Julius Cæsar, wrests it from him by the sea-fight at Actium; and there is no Brutus or Cassius to put an end to his life. Those friends of liberty had 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 amongst distant nations; and while it was unknown who should be master of Rome, the Romans were, without dispute, the masters of the world. Their military discipline and valour abolished all the remains of the Carthagi-

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nian, the Persian, the Greek, the Assyrian, and Macedonian glory; they were now only a name. No sooner, therefore, was Octavius established on the throne, than ambassadors from all quarters of the known world crowd to make their submissions. Æthiopia sues for peace; the Parthians, who had been a most formidable enemy, court his friendship; India seeks 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 four years before the common æra.

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, politics, 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 inferior only to those of Demosthenes. In poetry, Virgil yields only to Homer, whose verse, like the prose of Demosthenes, may be considered as inimitable. Horace, however, in his Satires and Epistles, had no model among the Greeks, and stands to this day unrivalled 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 *vis comica*, or lively vein of humour, that distinguishes the writings of the comic poets of Greece, and those of our immortal Shakspeare.

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 acts, 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 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; and the court of its emperors exhibited the most odious scenes of that caprice, 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 civilised part of it, chiefly Greece, Carthage, and Asia. A more diffi-

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cult task still remained for the emperors:—to subdue the barbarous nations of Europe—the Germans, the Gauls, the Britons, and even the remote people 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 bloody; the countries of Europe were successively laid waste; numbers of 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 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 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 irruptions of the Goths, Vandals, Huns, and other barbarians, hastened its destruction. These fierce tribes, who came to take vengeance on the empire, either inhabited the various parts of Germany which had never been subdued by the Romans, or were scattered over the vast countries of the north of Europe, and the 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 returned to their companions, acquainted them with the unknown conveniences and luxuries that abounded in countries better cultivated, or blessed with a milder climate, than their own; they acquainted them with the battles they had fought, or the friends they had lost; and warmed 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 route 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 were called to fix upon the period in the history of the world, during which the condition of the human race was the 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 horrors 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 at the beginning of the fourth century, A. D. 328. and who had embraced Christianity, transferred the seat of empire from Rome to Constantinople. The western and eastern provinces were in consequence 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, became a prey to the barbarous nations. Its ancient glory, vainly deemed immortal, was A. D. 476. effaced; and Odoacer, a barbarian chieftain, was seated 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 military discipline of the Romans was so efficacious, that the remains of it, which descended to their successors, must have rendered them superior to 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 of which the empire at length became the prey.

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. Scarcely 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 everywhere introduced.

From this period, till the 15th century, Europe exhibited a picture of most melancholy Gothic barbarity. Literature, science, taste, were words scarcely 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 scarcely read it. The human mind, neglected, uncultivated, and depressed, sunk into the most profound ignorance. The superior genius of Charlemagne, who, in the beginning of the ninth century, governed France and Germany, with part of Italy,—and Alfred the Great in England, during the latter part of the same century,—endeavoured to dispel this darkness, and give 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 even increased; so that a still greater degree of ignorance and barbarism prevailed throughout Europe.

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 dependents, annexed the same condition to the grant; a system admirably calculated for defence against a foreign enemy, but which degenerated into an engine 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, and deprived them 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 adversaries met him in like hostile array. The kindred and dependents of the aggressor, as well as the defender, were involved in the quarrel. They had not even the liberty of remaining neuter.

The monarchs of Europe perceived the incroachments of their nobles with impatience. In order to create some power that might counterbalance those potent vassals, who, while they enslaved the people, controlled or gave laws to the crown, a plan was adopted of conferring new privileges on towns. These privileges abolished all marks of servitude; and the inhabitants of towns were formed into corporations, or bodies politic, to be governed by a council and magistrates of their own nomination.

The acquisition of liberty soon produced a happy change in the condition of mankind. 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 remains of literature and science were preserved: this, too, for many ages, was the great emporium of trade; and the crusades, which were begun by the Christian powers of Europe with a view to drive the Saracens from Jerusalem, having 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 mariner's compass was invented, which facilitated the communication between remote nations. 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 for elegance, unknown to their predecessors, or despised by them. During the 12th and 13th centuries the commerce of Europe was almost entirely in the

hands of the Italians, more commonly known in those 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; and thence the name of Lombard-street was derived.

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 13th century. As the Danes, Swedes, and other nations around the Baltic, were at that time extremely barbarous, and infested that sea with their piracies, the cities of Lubec and Hamburg, soon after they had begun to open some trade with the Italians, entered 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, scattered through those large 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 friendship was courted and its enmity 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 selected 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 centre of communication between the Lombards and Hanseatic merchants, the Flemings traded with both in that city to such extent as well as advantage, as diffused 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 manufacture 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, alarmed at the progress of their inveterate enemies the Turks, endeavoured to gain the friendship and assistance of the khans of Tartary. The Christian embassies were managed chiefly by monks, an active and enterprising set of men, who, impelled by zeal, and undaunted by difficulties and danger, penetrated to the remote courts of those infidels. The English philosopher, Roger Bacon, was so industrious as to collect from their relations and traditions many particulars of the Tartars, which are to be found in Purchas's Pilgrim, 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

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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 task to prove that many Europeans, about the end of the fourteenth century, served in the armies of Timur, or Tamerlane, one of the greatest princes of Tartary, whose conquests reached to the remotest corners of India; and that they introduced into Europe the use of gunpowder and artillery; the discovery made by a German chemist being only partial and accidental.

After the death of Timur, 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 A. D. the first who suggested the practicability of a passage thither by 1405. sea. 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.

The first adventurers 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, at length discovered and doubled the extreme cape of that continent, 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 expense, and he had nothing to defray it. Spain was now his only resource; and there, after eight years' attendance, he at length succeeded, through the interest of queen Isabella. This princess was prevailed upon to patronise him by the representation of Juan Perez, guardian of the monastery of Rabida. He was a man of considerable learning, and of some credit with queen Isabella; and being warmly attached to Columbus, from his personal acquaintance with him, and knowledge of his merit, he had entered into an accurate examination of that great man's project, in conjunction with a physician settled in his neighbourhood, who was eminent for his skill in mathematical knowledge. This investigation completely satisfied them of the solidity of the principles on which Columbus founded his opinion, and of the probability of success in executing the plan which he proposed. Perez, therefore, so strongly recommended it to queen Isabella, that she warmly entered into the scheme, and even generously offered, to the honour of her sex, to pledge her own jewels, in order to raise as much money as might be required in making preparations for the voyage. But Santangel, another friend and patron of Columbus, immediately engaged to advance the sum that was requisite, that the queen might not be reduced to the necessity of having recourse to that expedient.

Columbus now set sail, anno 1492, with a fleet of three ships, upon one of the most adventurous attempts 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, who were often discontented, at length 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 33 days, put an end to the commotion. From the appearance of the natives, he found to his surprise that this could not be the Indies he was in quest of, and that he had accidentally discovered 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 in 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 accompanied and 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 centuries 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 shall give some account, in the history of each particular state, in the following work.

PART III.

OF THE ORIGIN AND PROGRESS OF RELIGION.

DEITY is an awful object, and has ever roused the attention of mankind; but they, being incapable of elevating their ideas to all the sublimity of his *perfections*, have too often brought down his *perfections* to the level of their own ideas. This is more particularly true with regard to those nations whose religion had no other foundation but the natural feelings, and more often the irregular passions of the human heart, and who had received no light from heaven respecting this important object. In deducing the history of religion, therefore, we must make the same distinction which we have hitherto observed in tracing the progress of arts, sciences, and civilisation among mankind. We must separate what is human from what is divine—what had its origin from particular revelations from what is the effect of general laws, and of the unassisted operations of the human mind.

Agreeably to this distinction, we find, that, in the first ages of the world, the religion of the eastern nations was pure and luminous. It arose from a divine source, and was not then disfigured by human fancies or caprice. In time, however, these began to have their influence;

the ray of tradition was obscured: and among those tribes which separated at the greatest distance, and in the smallest numbers, from the more improved societies of men, it was altogether obliterated.

In this situation a particular people were selected by God himself to be the depositaries of his law and worship; but the rest of mankind were left to form hypotheses upon these subjects, which were more or less perfect, according to an infinity of circumstances which cannot properly be reduced under any general heads.

The most common religion of antiquity—that which prevailed the longest and extended the widest—was POLYTHEISM, or the doctrine of a plurality of gods. The rage of system, the ambition of reducing all the phenomena of the moral world to a few general principles, has occasioned many imperfect accounts, both of the origin and nature of this species of worship. For, without entering into a minute detail, it is impossible to give an adequate idea of the subject: and what is said upon it in general must always be liable to many exceptions.

One thing, however, may be observed, that the polytheism of the ancients seems neither to have been the fruit of philosophical speculations, nor of disfigured traditions concerning the nature of the Divinity. It seems to have arisen during the rudest ages of society, while the rational powers were feeble, and while mankind were under the tyranny of imagination and passion. It was built, therefore, solely upon sentiment. As each tribe of men had their heroes, so likewise they had their gods. Those heroes who led them forth to combat, who presided in their councils, whose image was engraven on their fancy, whose exploits were imprinted on their memory, even after death enjoyed an existence in the imagination of their followers. The force of blood, of friendship, of affection, among rude nations, is what we cannot easily conceive: but the power of imagination over the senses is what all men have in some degree experienced. Combine these two causes, and it will not appear strange that the image of departed heroes should have been seen by their companions animating the battle, taking vengeance on their enemies, and executing, in a word, the same functions which they performed when alive. An appearance so unnatural would not excite terror among men unacquainted with evil spirits, and who had not learned to fear any thing but their enemies. On the contrary, it confirmed their courage, flattered their vanity; and the testimony of those who had seen it, supported by the extreme credulity and romantic cast of those who had not, gained an universal assent among all the members of their society. A small degree of reflexion, however, would be sufficient to convince them, that, as their own heroes existed after death, the same might also be the case with those of their enemies. Two orders of gods, therefore, would be established—the propitious and the hostile; the gods who were to be loved, and those who were to be feared. But time, which effaces the impressions of traditions, and the frequent invasions by which the nations of antiquity were ravaged, desolated, or transplanted, made them lose the names and confound the characters of those two orders of divinities, and form various systems of religion, which, though warped by a thousand particular circumstances, gave no small indications of their first texture and original materials. For, in general, the gods of the ancients gave abundant proof of human infirmity. They were subject to all the passions of men; they partook even of their partial affections; and, in many instances, discovered their preference of one race or nation to all others. They did not eat and drink the same sub-

stances with men; but they lived on nectar and ambrosia: they had a particular pleasure in smelling the steam of the sacrifices; and they made love with an ardour unknown in northern climates. The rites by which they were worshipped naturally resulted from their character. The most enlightened among the Greeks entertained nearly the same notions of gods and religion as those that are to be met with in the poems of Hesiod and Homer; and Anaxagoras, who flourished 430 years before Christ, was the first, even in Greece, that publicly announced the existence of one Creator and Governor of the universe.

It must be observed, however, that the religion of the ancients was not much connected either with their private behaviour, or with their political arrangements. If we except a few fanatical societies, whose principles do not fall within our plan, the greater part of mankind were extremely tolerant in their principles. They had their own gods, who watched over them; their neighbours, they imagined, also had theirs: and there was room enough in the universe for both to live together in good fellowship, without interfering or jostling with each other.

The introduction of Christianity, by inculcating the unity of God, by announcing the purity of his character, and by explaining the service he requires of men, produced a total alteration in the religious sentiments and belief of the civilised part of mankind, among whom it rapidly made its way by the sublimity of its doctrine and precepts. It required not the aid of human power; it sustained itself by the truth and wisdom by which it was characterised: but in time it became corrupted by the introduction of worldly maxims, of maxims very inconsistent with the precepts of its divine author, and by the ambition of the clergy.

The management of whatever related to the church being naturally conferred on those who had established it, first occasioned the elevation and then the domination of the clergy, and the exorbitant claims of the bishop of Rome over all the members of the Christian world. It is impossible to describe within our narrow limits all the concomitant causes, some of which were extremely delicate, by which this species of universal monarchy was established. The bishops of Rome, by being removed from the controul of the Roman emperors, then residing in Constantinople; by borrowing, with little variation, the religious ceremonies and rites established among the heathen world, and otherwise working on the credulous minds of the barbarians by whom that empire began to be dismembered; and by availing themselves of every circumstance which fortune threw in their way, slowly erected the fabric of their antichristian power, at first an object of veneration, and afterwards of terror, to all temporal princes. The causes of its happy dissolution are more palpable, and operated with greater activity. The most efficacious were the invention of printing; the rapid improvement of arts, government, and commerce, which, after many ages of barbarity, made their way into Europe. The scandalous lives of those who called themselves the "*ministers of Jesus Christ*," their ignorance and tyranny, the desire natural to sovereigns of delivering themselves from a foreign yoke, the opportunity of applying to national objects the immense wealth which had been diverted to the service of the church in every kingdom of Europe, conspired with the ardour of the first reformers, and hastened the progress of the reformation. The unreasonableness of the claims of the church of Rome was demonstrated; many of her doctrines were proved to be

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equally unscriptural and irrational; and some of her absurd mummeries and superstitions were exposed both by argument and ridicule. The services of the reformers in this respect give them a just claim to our veneration; but, involved as they had themselves been in the darkness of superstition, it was not to be expected that they should be able wholly to free themselves from errors: they still retained an attachment to some absurd doctrines, and preserved too much of the intolerant spirit of the church from which they had separated themselves. With all their defects, they are entitled to our admiration and esteem; and the reformation, begun by Luther in Germany, in the year 1517, and which took place in England, A. D. 1534, was an event highly favourable to the civil as well as to the religious rights of mankind.

We shall now proceed to the principal part of our work, beginning with EUROPE.

EUROPE.

EUROPE, though the least extensive quarter of the globe (containing, according to Zimmermann*, 2,627,574 square miles, whereas the habitable parts of the world, in the other quarters, are estimated at 27,987,457 square miles), is, in many respects, that which most deserves our attention. Here the human mind has made the greatest progress towards improvement; and here the arts, whether of utility or ornament, the sciences, both military and civil, have been carried to the greatest perfection. If we except the earliest ages of the world, it is in Europe that we find the greatest variety of character, government, and manners; and from its history we derive the greatest number of facts and memoirs, either for our entertainment or instruction.

Geography discovers to us two circumstances with regard to Europe, which perhaps have had a considerable tendency in giving it the superiority over the rest of the world; first, the happy temperature of its climate, no part of it lying within the torrid zone; and secondly, the great variety of its surface. The effect of a moderate climate, both on plants and animals, is well known from experience. The immense number of mountains, rivers, seas, &c. which divide the different countries of Europe from each other, is likewise extremely commodious for its inhabitants. These natural boundaries check the progress of conquest or despotism, which has always been so rapid in the extensive plains of Africa and the East. The seas and rivers facilitate the intercourse and commerce between different nations; and even the barren rocks and mountains are more favourable for exciting human industry and invention, than the natural unsolicited luxuriance of more fertile soils. There is no part of Europe so diversified in its surface, so interrupted by natural boundaries or divisions, as Greece; and we have seen that it was there

* See Zimmermann's Political Survey of Europe, p. 5.

the human mind began to know and to avail itself of its strength; and that many of the arts, subservient to utility or pleasure, were invented, or at least greatly improved.

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

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

GRAND DIVISIONS OF EUROPE.

EUROPE is situated between the 10th degree west and 65th degree east longitude from London, and between the 36th and 72d degree of north latitude. It is bounded on the north by the Frozen Ocean; on the east, by Asia; on the south, by the Mediterranean Sea, which divides it from Africa; and on the west, by the Atlantic Ocean, which separates it from America; being 3000 miles long, from Cape St. Vincent in the west, to the mouth of the river Oby in the north-east; and 2500 broad from north to south, from the North Cape in Lapland, to Cape Caglia, or Matapan, in the Morea, the most southern promontory in Europe. It contains the following kingdoms and states:

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Kingdoms and States.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief Citics.	Distance & Bearing fr. London.	Difference of Time fr. London.	Religions.	
British Emp.	England . . .	380	300	London . . .	Miles.	H. M.	Calvinists, Luth. &c. Calvinists, &c. Calvinists & R. Cath.
	Scotland . . .	270	160	Edinburgh . .	400 N.	0 12 aft.	
	Ireland . . .	285	160	Dublin . . .	270 N. W. . . .	0 26 aft.	
	Norway . . .	1100	150	Bergen . . .	540 N.	0 24 bef.	Lutherans.
	Denmark . . .	240	180	Copenhagen .	500 N. E. . . .	0 50 bef.	Lutherans.
	Sweden . . .	800	500	Stockholm . .	750 N. E. . . .	1 10 bef.	Lutherans.
	Russia	1500	1100	Petersburg .	1140 N. E. . . .	2 4 bef.	Greek Church.
	K. of Pr. Dom.	606	350	Berlin	540 E.	0 49 bef.	Lutherans & Calvin.
	Germany . . .	609	500	Vienna	600 E.	1 5 bef.	R. Cath. Luth. & Cal.
	Bohemia . . .	200	150	Prague	600 E.	1 4 bef.	Rom. Catholics.
Holland or Batavian Rep. }	150	100	Amsterdam .	180 E.	0 18 bef.	Calvinists.	
France	650	560	Paris	260 S. E. . . .	0 9 bef.	Rom. Catholics.	
Spain	700	500	Madrid	800 S.	0 17 aft.	Rom. Catholics.	
Portugal . . .	300	100	Lisbon	850 S. W. . . .	0 38 aft.	Rom. Catholics.	
Switzerland . .	220	130	Bern, Coire &c	420 S. E. . . .	0 28 bef.	Calvinists & R. Cath.	
Italy*.	Italian Rep. . .	180	90	Milan	550 S. E. . . .	0 37 bef.	Rom. Catholics.
	Tuscany or Kingdom of Etruria . . }	120	90	Florence . . .	690 S. E. . . .	0 44 bef.	Rom. Catholics.
	State of the Church . . }	240	120	Rome	820 S. E. . . .	0 50 bef.	Rom. Catholics.
	Naples	280	120	Naples	910 S. E. . . .	0 57 bef.	Rom. Catholics.
	Turkey in Europe }	890	680	Constantinople. }	1320 S. E. . . .	1 56 bef.	Mahometans and Greek Church.

* Italy likewise contains several smaller states ; as the Republics of Genoa, Lucca, and San Marino.

Exclusive of the BRITISH ISLES before mentioned, EUROPE contains the following principal ISLANDS.

	ISLANDS.	Chief Towns.	Subject to
In the Northern Ocean	Iceland	Skalholt . .	Denmark.
	Zeland, Funen, Alsen, Falster, Laaland, Langeland, Femeren, Moen, Bornholm	Copenhagen . .	Ditto.
Baltic Sea	Gothland, Oeland, Aland, Rugen	Sweden.
	Osel, Dagho	Russia.
Mediterranean Sea	Usedom, Wollin	Prussia.
	Ivica	Ivica	Spain.
	Majorca	Majorca	Ditto.
	Minorca	Port Mahon	Ditto.
	Corsica	Bastia	France.
	Sardinia	Cagliari	K. of Sard.
Adriatic, or Gulf of Venice	Sicily	Palermo	K. of Sic.
	Cerigo, Corfu, Cephalonia, Zante, St. Maura, Paxo, Theaki	Rep. of Seven Islands.
Archipelago and Levant Seas	Candia, Rhodes, Negropont, Lemnos, Tenedos, Scyros, Mitylene, Scio, Samos, Patmos, Paros, Santorin, &c. being part of ancient and modern Greece	Turkey.

DENMARK.

THE dominions of his Danish majesty, in Europe, consist of Denmark Proper, or the peninsula of Jutland and the islands in the Baltic; the duchy of Holstein in Germany; Norway; the island of Iceland; and Danish Lapland or Finmark. The dimensions and chief towns of these countries are given in the following table.

	Square Miles.	Length	Bread.	Chief Towns.
Jutland	6,866	155	98	Viborg.
Sleswick	2,640	70	63	Sleswick.
Holstein	2,768	90	50	Gluckstadt
Zeland	2,112	60	60	COPENHAGEN.
Funen	1,376	40	30	Odensee.
Falster	150	23	12	Nyekiobing.
Laaland	240	32	12	Naskow.
Langeland	70	30	3	Rudkioping.
Femeren	50	14	5	Burg.
Alsen	54	15	6	Sunderborge.
Moen	40	14	5	Stegc.
Bornholm	160	20	12	Ronne.
Iceland	43,264	350	240	Skalholt.
Norway	112,000	910	170	Bergen.
Danish Lapland	28,000	280	170	Wardhuys.

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**DENMARK PROPER, OR THE PENINSULA OF JUTLAND,
INCLUDING THE ISLANDS IN THE BALTIC.**

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

Miles.

Length 240* } between { 54° 10' and 57° 45' north latitude.
Breadth 114 } { 8° 10' and 12° 40' east longitude.

Containing 12,896 square miles, with 84 inhabitants to each.

NAME.] THE name of Denmark is derived by Saxo Grammaticus from Dan, the first founder, according to him, of the Danish monarchy; and Mark, a boundary or country. But this etymology is probably fabulous; all we know with certainty is, that the inhabitants of this part of Scandinavia were known by the name of Danes in the sixth century.

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

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

The Danish peninsula was formerly denominated Jutland, and divided into two parts—North Jutland and South Jutland. The former of these is now called simply Jutland, and the latter Sleswick. Jutland is divided into nine *sysseles* or districts, and Sleswick into fifteen counties.

Denmark Proper is likewise divided into six dioceses, or jurisdictions, of the following dimensions:

	Sq. Miles.		Sq. Miles.
The diocese of Zealand - 2,112		The diocese of Ripen -	2,416
Funen - 1,376		Aalborg -	1,456
Aarhuys - 1,696		Viborg -	1,200

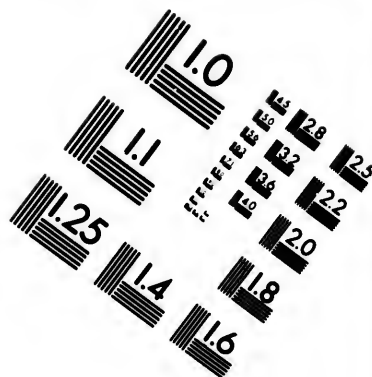
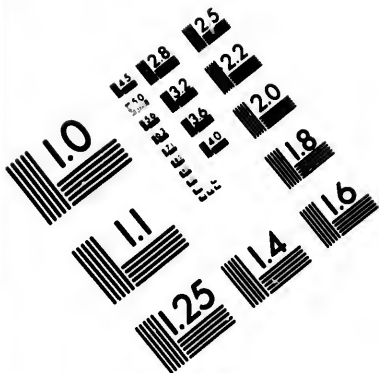
MOUNTAINS, LAKES, RIVERS, CANALS.] The interior of the broad northern part of Denmark Proper contains some hills of a bleak and wild aspect, but none entitled to the name of mountains. There are many small but no large lakes. The small streams which intersect the country are numerous, but only two seem to deserve notice as rivers; the Guden, which receives the waters of forty rivulets, and runs a winding course of an hundred miles before it falls into the Categat; and the Eydar, the ancient boundary between Denmark and the German duchy of Holstein.

In the northern part of Jutland, an extensive creek of the sea, called *Lymfiord*, penetrates from the Categat through an extent of above seventy miles, to within two or three miles of the German Ocean: it is navigable, and contains numerous small islands.

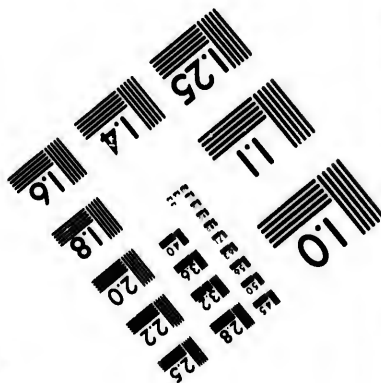
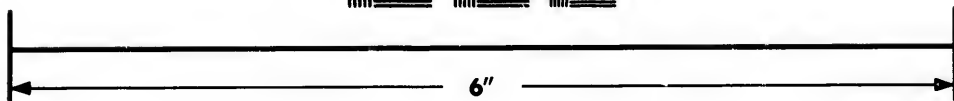
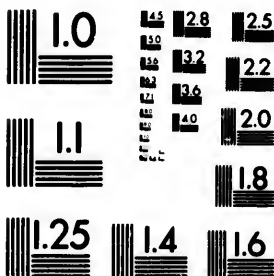
A canal, called *the Canal of Kiel*, a considerable town in the north of Holstein, has been made, at the expense of nearly eight hundred thousand pounds, to open a communication between the Baltic and the river

* These dimensions are those of the peninsula of Jutland only, where longest and broadest, in which sense they are always to be understood in this work. Jutland, for instance, is 114 miles in breadth where broadest; though in some parts it is not more than 30.





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Eydar, which flows into the German Sea. It is above twenty miles in length, and is navigable by vessels of 120 tons. It was finished in 1785.

MINERALS.] Some fuller's-earth, alum, and vitriol, found in Jutland, and porcelain clay obtained in the island of Bornholm, seem to constitute the whole of the mineral productions of Denmark Proper.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND STATE OF AGRICULTURE.] The climate of Zealand and the south of Jutland is more temperate, on account of the vapours from the surrounding sea, than it is in many more southerly parts of Europe. In the northern parts of Denmark, the winters are very severe, and spring and autumn are seasons scarcely known, on account of the sudden transitions from cold to heat, and from heat to cold. The entrance of the Baltic in winter is generally so obstructed with ice, as to be innavigable, and sometimes so frozen, as to be crossed by sledges and loaded carriages.

The soil of Zealand, Funen, and the south of Jutland, is fertile; and the agriculture of the two latter is compared by Mr. Marshal to that of England; but in the northern parts, the country is less cultivated. Zealand is for the most part a sandy soil, but fertile in grain and pasturage, and agreeably variegated with woods and lakes.

The greatest part of the lands in Denmark and Holstein are fiefs. The ancient nobility, by grants which they extorted at different times from the crown, gained such power over the farmers, and those who resided upon their estates, that at length they reduced them to a state of extreme slavery, so that they were bought and sold with their lands, and were esteemed the property of their lords. Many of the noble landholders of Sleswick and Holstein have the power of life and death. The situation of the farmers has, indeed, been made somewhat more agreeable by some modern edicts; but they are still, if such an expression may be allowed, chained to their farms, and are disposed of at the will of their lords. The late count Bernstorff, however, set a truly noble example by the emancipation of his tenants; and the prince-royal, in whom the administration of the government is now vested, has also had the magnanimity and true policy to give liberty to all the peasants of the crown.

VEGETABLE PRODUCTIONS, ANIMALS.] Jutland contains woods of oak, fir, beech, birch, and other trees. Denmark and Holstein produce corn in such abundance, as often to be able to export in one year to the value of above 100,000*l.*; they also produce rape-seed, hops, and flax. The horses of Denmark and Holstein are an excellent breed, both for the saddle and the carriage. Besides great numbers of black-cattle, of which about 80,000 head are generally exported annually, they have hogs, sheep, and game. The sea-coasts abound with various kinds of fish.

CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] Denmark Proper affords fewer of these than the other parts of his Danish majesty's dominions, if we except the contents of the Royal Museum at Copenhagen, which consists of a numerous collection of both. Here are preserved two famous antique drinking vessels, the one of gold, the other of silver, and both of the form of hunting horns. That of gold 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 1639. The other, of silver, weighs about four pounds, and is called the *Oldenburg horn*, because, as tradition affirms, it was presented to Otho, the first duke of Oldenburg, by a ghost. This museum contains a fine collection of paintings, and another

of coins, as also a great number of astronomical, optical, and mathematical instruments.

POPULATION.] By an actual enumeration 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 were said to amount to 2,444,000 souls, exclusive of the Icelanders and Greenlanders. The most accurate account of the population is that made under the direction of the famous Struensee, in 1769; by which

Jutland numbered 358,136	Iceland 46,201
Zealand 283,466	Duchy of Sleswick 243,605
Funen 143,988	Duchy of Holstein 134,665
Norway 723,141	Oldenburg 62,854
Islands of Ferro 4,754	Delmenhorst 16,217
		Sum Total	<u>2,017,027</u>

Since this estimate was taken, the counties of Oldenburg and Delmenhorst have been exchanged for the remainder of Holstein; and the population of the Danish dominions in Europe is thus given in Bötticher's tables:

The diocese of Zealand 345,740	
———— Funen 151,512	
Jutland {	—— Aarhuys 125,282
	—— Ripen 83,186
	—— Aalborg 71,242
	—— Viborg 53,488
The duchy of Sleswick 251,230	
———— Holstein 311,758	
The kingdom of Norway 700,000	
The Ferro islands 5,000	
Iceland 50,000	
		<u>2,148,438</u>

The population of Denmark Proper, or Jutland, Sleswick, and the islands of the Baltic, exclusive of Holstein, will therefore amount to 1,081,680.

NATIONAL CHARACTER AND MANNERS.] The ancient inhabitants of Denmark possessed a degree of courage which approached even to ferocity: their national character in this respect, however, is much changed; but, with their former ferocious habits, they have also laid aside in a great measure their ancient simplicity and innocence. Though not a very enterprising, they are a brave and humane people. They value themselves extremely upon those titles and privileges, which they derive from the crown; and are extremely fond of pomp and show. They endeavour to imitate the French in their manners, dress, and even in their gallantry; though they are naturally the very contrast of that nation. The Danes, like other northern nations, are given to intemperance in drinking, and convivial entertainments; but their nobility, who begin now to visit the other courts of Europe, are refining from their ancient national habits and vices.

CITIES, CHIEF TOWNS, EDIFICES.] Copenhagen, which is situate on the island of Zealand, was originally a settlement of sailors, and first founded by some wandering fishermen in the twelfth century, but is now the metropolis, and makes a magnificent appearance at a distance. It is very strong, and defended by four castles or forts. It contains ten parish churches, besides nine others belonging to the Calvinists and other religious sects, and some hospitals. Copenhagen is adorned by several public and private palaces, as they are called. Its streets are 186 in number, the houses about 4,000, and its inhabitants amount to 100,000. The houses in the principal streets are built of brick, and those in the lanes chiefly of timber. The harbour is spacious, and is formed by a large canal flowing through the city, which admits only one ship to enter at a time; but the harbour is capable of containing 500. Several of the streets have canals and quays for ships to lie close to the houses; and the naval arsenal is said to exceed that of Venice. The road for shipping begins about two miles from the town, and is defended by 90 pieces of cannon, as well as the difficulty of the navigation. Yet, notwithstanding all these advantages, there is little appearance of industry or trade in this city; and Copenhagen, though one of the finest ports in the world, cannot boast of its commerce. The police of Copenhagen is extremely regular, and people may walk through the whole city at midnight with great safety. Indeed, it is usually almost as quiet here at eleven o'clock at night as in a country village.

About twenty English miles from Copenhagen, is a noble palace belonging to his Danish majesty, called Fredericksburg. It is a very large building, moated round with a triple ditch, and calculated, like most of the ancient residences of princes, for defence against an enemy. It was built by Christian IV., and, according to the architecture of the times, partakes of the Greek and Gothic styles. In the front of the grand quadrangle appear Tuscan and Doric pillars; and on the summit of the building are spires and turrets. Some of the rooms are very splendid, though furnished in the antique taste. The knights' hall is of great length. The tapestry represents the wars of Denmark, and the ceiling is a most minute and laboured performance in sculpture. The chimney-piece was once entirely covered with plates of silver, richly ornamented; but the Swedes, who have often landed here, and even besieged the capital, tore them all away, and rifled the palace, notwithstanding its triple moat and formidable appearance. The royal palace of Christiansburg, one of the most commodious and most sumptuously furnished in Europe, was destroyed by fire on the 26th of February 1794. About two miles from Elsinour is a small royal palace, flat roofed, with twelve windows in front, said to be built on the place formerly occupied by the palace of Hamlet's father. In an adjoining garden is shown the very spot where, according to tradition, that prince was poisoned.

Odensee is the capital of the island of Funen. It is situated on a river which runs into a large bay about a mile below the town. It contains a cathedral and three churches: here is also a royal palace. The number of inhabitants is about 5,000. It has been said that the Danish language is spoken here in its greatest purity.

Sleswick, the capital of the duchy of that name, is the largest town in the Danish peninsula. It is a long, irregular, but handsome town, containing between five and six thousand inhabitants.

Elsinour, or Helsingoer, is well built, contains 5,000 inhabitants, and with respect to commerce is only exceeded by Copenhagen itself. It is

situate on the eastern coast of the island of Zealand, is strongly fortified on the land side, and towards the sea defended by a strong fort. Here all vessels pay a toll, and, in passing, lower their top-sails.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.] The manufactures of Denmark are not very numerous or important. In the royal manufactures, as they are called, at Copenhagen, a late intelligent traveller tells us 400 looms are employed in fabricating all sorts of woollen cloth, from the finest to that for the use of the soldiery. Other manufactures have also been encouraged by the crown, and by the patriotism of count Roncellen.

Denmark is extremely well situate for commerce; her harbours are well calculated for the reception of ships of all burdens, and her mariners are very expert in the navigation of the different parts of the ocean. The dominions of his Danish majesty also supply a great variety of timber and other materials for ship-building; and some of his provinces afford many natural productions for exportation. Among these, beside fir and other timber, are black-cattle, horses, butter, stock-fish, tallow, hides, train-oil, tar, pitch, and iron. To these we may add furs; but the exportation of oats is forbidden. The imports are, salt, wine, brandy, and silk, from France, Portugal, and Italy. The Danes have great intercourse with England, and thence import broad-cloths, and all other articles manufactured in the great trading towns of England.

Commercial companies are established in Denmark, which trade to the East and West Indies, and to Africa. In the East-Indies, they possess the settlement of Tranquebar, on the coast of Coromandel, and the small islands called the Nicobar islands, to the north of Sumatra; in the West-Indies, the islands of St. Thomas and St. Croix, and the small island of St. John. On the coast of Guinea they have the fort of Christianburg. The Danes likewise carry on a considerable commerce in the Mediterranean.

CIVIL CONSTITUTION, GOVERN-

MENT.

The ancient constitution of Denmark was originally much the same with that of other Gothic governments. The king came to the throne by election; and, in conjunction with the senate, where he presided, was invested with the executive power. He likewise commanded the army, and decided finally all the disputes which arose between his subjects. The legislative power, together with the right of election of the king, was vested in the states, who were composed, first, of the order of nobility, and secondly, of that of the citizens and farmers. After the introduction of the Christian religion, the clergy were also admitted, not only to be an order of the states, but to have seats likewise in the senate. These orders had their respective rights and privileges, and were independent of each other. The crown had also its prerogatives, and a certain fixed revenue arising out of lauds which were appropriated to its support. This constitution had many evident advantages: but, unfortunately, the balance of this government was never properly adjusted; so that the nobles very soon assumed a dictatorial power, and greatly oppressed the people, as the national assemblies were not regularly held to redress their grievances; and when the Roman-catholic clergy came to have a share in the civil government, they far surpassed the nobility in pride and ambition. The representatives of the people had neither power, credit, nor talents, to counteract the efforts of the other two orders, who forced the crown to give up its prerogatives, and to oppress and tyrannise over the people. Christian the Second, by en-

deavouring in an imprudent manner to stem the torrent of their oppression, lost his crown and his liberty; but Christian the Third, by uniting with the nobles and the senate, destroyed the power of the clergy, though the oppression of the common people by the nobility still remained. At length, in the reign of Frederic the Third, when the nation had been exhausted by a war with Sweden, the people, exasperated by the arrogance and oppressions of the nobility, who claimed as their privilege an exemption from all taxes, determined to render the king despotic to free themselves from their tyranny. In consequence of this resolution in a meeting of the states, deputies from the clergy and the commons were appointed to make the king a solemn tender of their liberties and services. The monarch accepted their offer, promising them relief and protection: the nobility, taken by surprise, were obliged to submit; and, on the 10th of January, 1601, the three orders of nobility, clergy, and people, signed each a separate act, by which they consented that the crown should be hereditary in the royal family, as well in the female as in the male line, and invested the king with absolute power, giving him the right to regulate the succession, and the regency, in case of a minority. This renunciation of their right, subscribed by the first nobility, is still preserved as a precious relic among the archives of the royal family.

After this extraordinary revolution in the government, the king of Denmark deprived the nobility of many of the privileges which they had before enjoyed; but he took no method to relieve those poor people who had been the instruments of investing him with the sovereign power, but left them in the same state of slavery in which they were before, and in which they have remained to the present age.

Laws.] The king unites in his person all the rights of sovereign power; but in affairs of importance he for the most part decides in his council, the members of which are named and displaced at his will. In this council, the laws are proposed, discussed, and receive the sanction of the royal authority, and all great changes or establishments are proposed, and approved or rejected, by the king. Here likewise, or in the cabinet, he grants privileges, and decides upon the explication of laws, their extension, or restriction, and upon all the most important affairs of state.

The supreme court of judicature for the kingdoms of Denmark and Norway, is holden in the royal palace of Copenhagen, of which the king is the nominal president. What are called the German provinces have likewise their supreme tribunal; which, for the duchy of Holstein, is holden at Gluckstadt; and for the duchy of Sleswick, in the town of that name.

In this kingdom, as in many others, the king is supposed to be present to administer justice in his supreme court; and therefore, the kings of Denmark not only preside nominally in the sovereign court of justice, but they have a throne erected in it, towards which the lawyers always address their discourses in pleading, as do the judges in delivering their opinion. Every year the king is present at the opening of this court, and often gives the judges such instructions as he thinks proper. The decision of these judges is final in all civil actions; but no criminal sentence of a capital nature can be carried into execution till it is signed by the king.

There are many excellent regulations for the administration of justice in Denmark: but, notwithstanding this, it is so far from being distri-

puted in an equal and impartial manner, that a poor man can scarcely ever obtain justice in that country against one of the nobility, or against one who is favoured by the court. If the laws are so clearly in favour of the former, that the judges are ashamed to decide against them, the latter, through the favour of the minister, obtains an order from the king to stop all proceedings, or a dispensation from observing particular laws; and there the matter ends. The code of laws at present established in Denmark was published by Christian V.: it is founded upon the code of Valdemar, and is nearly the same with that in use in Norway. These laws are very just and clear; and, if they were impartially carried into execution, would be productive of many beneficial consequences to the people. But as the king can alter and dispense with the laws as he pleases, and support his ministers and favourites in any acts of violence and injustice, the people of Denmark are subject to great tyranny and oppression, and have abundant reason to regret the tameness and servility with which their liberties were, in 1600, surrendered into the hands of their monarchs.

From that period, the peasants, till 1787, had been in a situation little better than the brute creation; they scarcely could be said to possess any loco-motive power, since they had no liberty to leave one estate, and to settle on another, without purchasing permission from their masters; and if they chanced to move without that permission, they were claimed as strayed cattle. Such was the state of those wretched beings, who, at best, only might be said to vegetate. These chains of feudal slavery were then broken, through the interest of his royal highness the prince and heir-apparent to the crown; and the prisoners, for such they certainly might be called, were declared free. Notwithstanding the remonstrances, which were made against this by the landed gentry, were very numerous, yet, after a minute examination of the whole, an edict was issued which restored the peasants to their long-lost liberty. A number of grievances, under which the peasantry laboured, were likewise abolished at the same time.

REVENUES.] His Danish majesty's revenues have three sources: the taxes he levies upon his own subjects; the duties paid by foreigners; and his own demesne lands, including confiscations. The taxes consist of those on land and houses, the poll-tax, stamp-duties, taxes on salt and tobacco, and various other imposts. The tolls paid by strangers arise chiefly from foreign ships that pass through the Sound into the Baltic, through the narrow strait of half a mile 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 the bills of lading. This tax, which forms a considerable part of his Danish majesty's revenue, has more than once thrown the northern parts of Europe into a flame. It has been often disputed by the English and Dutch, being nothing more originally than a voluntary contribution of the merchants towards the expenses of the light-houses on the coast; and the Swedes, who command the opposite side of the pass, 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 first treaty relative to it was by the emperor Charles V. on behalf of his subjects in the Low Countries. The toll is paid at Elsinour, a town situated on the Sound, at the entrance of the Baltic Sea, and about 18 miles distant from Copenhagen. The whole revenue of Denmark, in-

cluding what is received at Elsineur, amounts at present to about 1,520,000*l.* sterling yearly; of which

	£.
Denmark contributes - - - -	543,554
Norway - - - - -	290,000
Sleswick and Holstein - - - -	300,000
The West-India islands - - - -	262,300
The toll levied on ships } passing the Sound	122,554
Altona - - - - -	3,150

By a list of the revenue taken in 1730, it then only amounted to English money 454,700*l.* The expenses of the state amount annually to above 1,050,000*l.*; and it is burdened with a debt of 2,600,000*l.*

ARMY AND NAVY.] The present military force of Denmark consists of 75,000 men, of which Denmark furnishes 40,000, and Norway 35,000: of this force about 11,000 is cavalry, and 64,000 infantry. The fleet of Denmark, according to the official gazette of the 15th of October, 1803, consisted of 19 ships of the line; of which were 1 of 90; 2 of 80; 12 of 74; and 4 of 64 guns; 15 frigates, 8 brigs, and 13 gun-boats. An order was issued some time since to increase the number of frigates to 30, and constantly to keep up that number. This fleet is generally stationed at Copenhagen, where are the dock-yards, storehouses, and all the materials necessary for the use of the marine. There are 26,000 registered seamen, who cannot quit the kingdom without leave, nor serve on board a merchantman without permission from the admiralty: 4000 of these are kept in constant pay, and employed in the dock-yards: their pay, however, scarcely amounts to nine shillings per month; but they have a sort of uniform, with some provisions and lodging allowed for themselves and families.

ROYAL TITLES, ORDERS OF KNIGHTHOOD.] The kings of Denmark in their public acts take the title of "king of Denmark and Norway, and of the Goths and Vandals, duke of Sleswick and Holstein, Stormar and Ditmarsch, count of Oldenburg and Delmenhorst." The orders of knighthood are two; that of the *Elephant*, and that of *Danebrog*. The former was instituted by Christian I. in the year 1478, and is deemed the most honourable; its badge is an elephant surmounted with a castle, set in diamonds, and suspended to a sky-blue watered ribbon, worn, like the George in England, over the right shoulder: the number of its members, besides the sovereign, are thirty; and the knights of it are addressed by the title of Excellency. The badges of the *Danebrog* order, which is said to have been instituted in the year 1219, and after being long obsolete was revived in 1671 by Christian V., consist of a white ribbon with red edges, worn scarf-wise over the right shoulder; from which depends a small cross of diamonds, and an embroidered star on the breast of the coat, surrounded with the motto, *Pietate et Justitia*. The badge is a cross pattee enamelled white, on the centre the letter C and 5 crowned with a regal crown, and this motto: *Restitutor*. The number of knights is not limited; and they are very numerous.

RELIGION.] The religion of Denmark is the Lutheran. The kingdom is divided into six dioceses: Zealand, Funen, Viborg, Aarhuys, Aalborg, and Ripen; besides four in Norway, and two in Iceland. There is no archbishop; but the bishop of Zealand is metropolitan in Denmark, as the bishop of Aggerhuys is in Norway. The annual revenue of the bishopric of Zealand is about 1000*l.* a year,

that of Funen 750*l.*, the others are from 400*l.* to 600*l.* The bishops have no temporal power, nor more authority over the inferior clergy than is necessary for the maintenance of good order in the church.

LITERATURE.] The Danes in general have made no great figure in literature; though astronomy and medicine are highly indebted to their Tycho Brahe, Borrichius, and the Bartholines: and the Round Tower and Christian's Haven display the mechanical genius of a Longomontanus. They begin now, however, to make some promising attempts in history, poetry, and the drama. But it appears that literature has received very little encouragement in Denmark; which may be considered as the principal cause of its being so little cultivated by the Danes. Yet the names of Langebek, Suhm, and Holberg, have acquired some degree of deserved celebrity; and the travels of Niebuhr are distinguished for intelligent research and accurate information.

UNIVERSITIES.] There are two universities in Denmark; one at Copenhagen, and the other at Kiel in Holstein. The former has funds to the amount, it is said, of 300,000 rix-dollars, for the gratuitous support of 329 students.

LANGUAGE.] The language of Denmark is a dialect of the Teutonic; but German and French are spoken at court; and the nobility have lately made great advances in the English, which is now publicly taught at Copenhagen as a necessary part of education. A company of English comedians occasionally visit that capital, where they find tolerable encouragement. The Lord's Prayer, in Danish, is as follows:

Vor fador som er i himmelin; heiligt vorde dit naffu; tilkomme dit ryke; vorde din villie paa jorden som i himmelin; gif os i dag vort daglige brod; og forlad os vor skyld som vi forlade vore skyldener; og leed os ick i fristrelse, men frels os fra ont; thi reget er dit, og kraft og hergled i evighed. Amen.

ANTIQUITIES.] The antiquities of Denmark consist only of some rude remains of the temples and cemeteries of the ancient Celtic and Gothic inhabitants of the country. In several parts of the Danish dominions are found circles of upright stones, disposed in a manner similar to those of Stonehenge. There are also, on some rocks, Runic inscriptions, which are so ancient they can no longer be explained with certainty; but they are supposed to record some remarkable events.

HISTORY.] The most ancient inhabitants of Denmark, of whom we have any account, were the Cimbric, the Danish peninsula being called by the ancients *Chersonesus Cimbrica*, or the peninsula of the Cimbric. After the conquest of the country by the Goths, we find the possessors of it formidable to their neighbours, by their piracies and sanguinary depredations, in the fifth century, under the name of Jutes or Vitæ, and Angles; and in the sixth, under that of Danes. But the history of Denmark is fabulous and uncertain, till the tenth century. Harold Blaataud, who succeeded his father Gormo in 945, was the first Christian king of Denmark. He was followed by his son Swein, who invaded and laid waste England; and dying in 1014, was succeeded by his son Canute the Great.

Under Canute the Great, Denmark may be said to have been in its zenith of glory, as far as extent of dominion can give sanction to the expression. Few very interesting events in Denmark preceded the year 1387, when Margaret, daughter of Waldemar III., who had married Hakon king of Norway, but was then a widow, mounted the throne; and, partly by her address, and partly by hereditary right, formed the union of Calmar, anno 1397, by which she was acknowledged sovereign of

Sweden, Denmark, and Norway. She held her dignity with such firmness and courage, that she was justly styled the Semiramis of the North. Her successors being destitute of her great qualifications, the union of Calmar, by which the three kingdoms were in future to be under one sovereign, lost its effect; but Norway still continued annexed to Denmark. In the year 1448, the crown of Denmark fell to Christian, count of Oldenburg, from whom the present royal family of Denmark is descended.

In 1513, Christian II., a tyrannical and sanguinary prince, ascended the throne of Denmark, and married the sister of the emperor Charles V. Being driven out of Sweden for his atrocious cruelties, the Danes rebelled against him likewise; and he fled, with his wife and children, into the Netherlands. Frederic, duke of Holstein, was unanimously called to the throne, on the deposition of his cruel nephew. He embraced the opinions of Luther; and about the year 1536, the protestant religion was established in Denmark by that wise and politic prince, Christian III.

Christian 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 king of Sweden. The Dutch having obliged Christian, 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 Fredericstadt; and in the succeeding winter marched his army over the ice to the island of Funen, where he surprised the Danish troops, took Odensee and Nyburg, and marched over the Great Belt to besiege Copenhagen itself. Cromwell, who then governed England under the title of Protector, interposed; and Frederic defended his capital with great magnanimity till the peace of Roschild, by which Frederic ceded the provinces of Halland, Blekingen, and Schonen, the island of Bornholm, and Bahus and Drontheim in Norway, to the Swedes. Frederic sought to elude these severe terms: but Charles took Cronenburg, and once more besieged Copenhagen by sea and land. The steady intrepid conduct of Frederic, under these 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 showed 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 was restored to the Danes; but the island of Rugen, and the provinces of Blekingen, 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, greatly endeared him in their eyes; and he at length became absolute, in the manner already related. Frederic was succeeded, in 1670, by his son Christian 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 Lunden, by Charles XI. of Sweden. This defeat did not put an end to the war, which Christian obstinately continued, till he was defeated entirely at the battle of Landscreon: and having almost exhausted his dominions in military operations, and being in a manner abandoned by all his allies, he was forced to sign a treaty, on the terms prescribed by France, in 1679. Christian afterwards became the ally and subsidiary of Lewis XIV., and died in 1690. He was succeeded by Frederic IV., who, like his predecessors, maintained his pretensions upon Holstein, and probably must have become master of that duchy, had not the English and Dutch fleets raised the siege of Tonnin-gen, while the young king of Sweden, Charles XII., who was then 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 afterwards took a very active part against the French in the wars of queen Anne.

Notwithstanding this peace, Frederic was perpetually engaged in wars with the Swedes; and while Charles XII. was an exile at Bender, he made a descent upon 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 Gadesbuch, and his favourite city of Altona was laid in ashes. Frederic revenged himself by seizing great part of Ducal Holstein, and forcing the Swedish general, count Steinbock, to surrender himself prisoner, with all his troops. In the year 1716, the successes of Frederic were so great, by taking Tonnin-gen 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 the most implacable violence; but, on the death of that prince, who was killed at the siege of Fredericshall, 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 duchy of Sleswick. 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, Christian Frederic, or Christian VI., made the best use of his power, and the advantages with which he mounted the throne, by cultivating peace with all his neighbours, and promoting the happiness of his subjects, whom he eased of many oppressive taxes.

In 1734, Christian sent 6000 men to the assistance of the emperor, during the dispute of the succession to the crown of Poland. Though he was pacific, yet he was jealous of his rights, especially over Hamburg. He obliged the Hamburgers to call in the mediation of Prussia, to abolish their bank, to admit the coin of Denmark as current, and to pay him a million of silver marks. In 1738, he had a dispute with his Britannic majesty about the little lordship of Steinhorst, which had been mortgaged to the latter by a duke of Holstein-Lauenburg, and which Christian said belonged to him. Some blood was spilt during the contest, which, however, ended in a treaty, by which his Britannic majesty agreed to pay

Christian a subsidy of 70,000*l.* sterling a year, on condition of keeping in readiness 7000 troops for the protection of Hanover. This was a gainful bargain for Denmark. Two years after, he seized some Dutch ships, for trading without his leave to Iceland; but the difference was made up by the mediation of Sweden. Christian died in 1746, with the character of being the father of his people.

His son and successor, Frederic V., had, in 1743, married the princess Louisa, daughter to his Britannic majesty George II. He improved upon his father's plan for the happiness of his people, and took no concern, except that of a mediator, in the German war. 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 Richelieu. Upon the death of his first queen, who was mother to his present Danish majesty, he married a daughter of the duke of Brunswick-Wolfenbuttle; and died in 1766.

His son, Christian VII., married his present Britannic majesty's youngest sister, the princess Carolina-Matilda. This alliance, though it wore at first a very promising appearance, had a very unfortunate termination. In the month of January, 1772, by the intrigues, or at least the active agency, of the queen-dowager, mother-in-law to the present king, Matilda was charged with an illicit commerce with count Struensee, the minister and favourite of the king; and with being engaged with him, his brother, and count Brandt, in a conspiracy to deprive her husband and sovereign of his crown. She was in consequence arrested, and confined in the castle of Cronenburg. Her son, the prince-royal, who had entered into the fifth year of his age, was put under the care of a lady of quality, who was appointed governess, under the superintendency of the queen-dowager. Struensee and Brandt were seized, put in irons, and very rigorously treated in prison: they both underwent long and frequent examinations, and at length received sentence of death. They were beheaded on the 28th of April, having their right hands previously cut off: but many of their friends and adherents were afterwards set at liberty. Struensee at first absolutely denied having any criminal intercourse with the queen: but this he afterwards confessed: and though he is said by some to have been induced to do this only by the fear of torture, the proofs of his guilt in this respect were esteemed notorious, and his confessions full and explicit. In May, his Britannic majesty sent a small squadron of ships to convey the queen Matilda to Germany, and appointed the city of Zell, in his electoral dominions, for the place of her future residence. She died there of a malignant fever, on the 10th of May, 1775, aged 23 years and 10 months.

In 1780, his Danish majesty acceded to the armed neutrality proposed by the empress of Russia. He appears at present to have such a debility of understanding as to disqualify him for the proper management of public affairs. On the 16th of April, 1784, another court revolution took place. The queen-dowager's friends were removed, a new council formed under the auspices of the prince-royal, some of the former old members restored to the cabinet, and every instrument must now be signed by the king, and countersigned by the prince-royal.

The conduct of this prince exhibits that consistency of behaviour which enables him to pursue, with unremitting zeal, the prudent and benevolent measures which he has planned for the benefit of his grateful country. The restoration of the peasantry to their long-lost liberty, and the abolition of many grievances under which they laboured, have already been mentioned. To these may be added the exertions he makes for the

general diffusion of knowledge; the patronage he affords to societies of learning, arts, and science; the excellent measures he has adopted for the suppression of beggars, with whom the country was over-run, and the encouragement of industry, by the most extensive inquiries into the state of the poor throughout the kingdom; the wise regulations he has introduced into the corn trade, equally beneficial to the landed interest and to the poor; and the judicious laws, which under his influence have been made to encourage foreigners to settle in Iceland. The princess of Hesse-Cassel, his consort, is said to possess the most amiable dispositions and goodness of heart.

Count Schimmelmann, minister of state, finances, and commerce, has the merit of projecting the abolition of the slave-trade among the subjects of Denmark. By his plan, which was approved by the king on the 22d of February, 1792, and is to be gradual, all trade in negroes was to cease on the part of the Danish subjects in 1803. The disinterestedness of this minister, who possesses large estates in the Danish West-India islands, recommends his exertions to greater praise. The above ordinance does not seem to have caused any discontent in Denmark among the West-India merchants, and it is not thought it will cause any in the islands.

A scheme for defraying the national debt has been suggested and followed, by which a considerable reduction of it has been effected.

Denmark, from the beginning of the French revolution, formally rejected every solicitation to join the coalition of potentates against France.

In 1801, the Danish government acceded to the confederacy formed by the northern powers against the naval superiority of Great Britain, under the title of a Convention of Neutrality. But this league was quickly dissolved by the appearance of an English fleet in the Baltic under the command of the gallant admiral Nelson, who, in the battle of the 2d of April of the same year, forced the line of defence formed by the Danish fleet before Copenhagen, and compelled the Danes to agree to a cessation of arms to preserve their capital. In this short war the Danes lost their islands in the West Indies, and their settlement of Tranquebar on the coast of Coromandel, which were conquered by the British arms. But the dispute between England and the northern powers being soon after amicably adjusted by a treaty, their foreign possessions have since been all restored to them.

Christian VII., reigning king of Denmark and Norway, LL. D. and F. R. S., was born January 29, 1749; in 1766 he was married to the princess Carolina-Matilda of England; and has issue—1. Frederic, prince-royal of Denmark, born January 28, 1768, and married July 31, 1790, to the princess Mary-Sophia-Friderica of Hesse-Cassel. 2. Louisa-Augusta princess-royal, born July 7, 1771, and married May 27, 1786, to Frederic, prince of Sleswick-Holstein, by whom she has issue.

Brothers and sisters to the king,—1. Sophia Magdalene, born July 3, 1746; married to the late king of Sweden, Gustavus III.—2. Wilhelmina, born July 10, 1747; married Sept. 1. 1764, William, the present prince of Hesse-Cassel.—3. Louisa, born Jan. 30, 1750; married Aug. 30, 1766, Charles, brother to the prince of Hesse-Cassel.—4. Frederic, born Oct. 28, 1753.

NORWAY.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

Miles.

Length 1100 }
 Breadth 150 } between { 58° 5' and 71° 0' north latitude.
 } { 5° 10' and 25° 0' east longitude.

Containing 112,000 square miles, with six inhabitants to each.

NAME.] NORWAY signifies the *Northern way*, or country: It was anciently called *Norrike*, or the *Northern kingdom*.

BOUNDARIES AND DIVISIONS.] Norway is bounded on the south by the entrance into the Baltic; on the west and north by the Northern Ocean; and on the east it is divided from Sweden by a long chain of mountains called at different parts by different names, as, Dofrefeld, Fillefeld, Runfeld, and Dourfeld.

This extensive country is divided into the four governments, or dioceses, of Aggerhuus, or Christiania, Christiansand, Bergen, and Drontheim; the latter is again subdivided into the two provinces of Nordland, and Finmark, or Danish Lapland.

MOUNTAINS, LAKES, RIVERS.] Norway is one of the most mountainous countries in the world; a chain of unequal mountains runs through it from south to north; to pass one of which, called the Ardanger, a man must travel about seventy English miles; and to pass others, upwards of fifty. Dofrefeld is the highest of these mountains. The rivers and cataracts which intersect those dreadful precipices, and that are passable only by slight tottering wooden bridges, render travelling in this country very terrible and dangerous; though the government is at the expense of providing, at different stages, houses accommodated with fire, light, and kitchen furniture. Detached from this vast chain, other immense mountains present themselves all over Norway; some of them with reservoirs of water on the top, and the whole forming a most stupendous landscape. The caverns that are to be met with in these mountains are more wonderful than those, perhaps, in any other part of the world, though less liable to observation. One of them, called Dolsteen, was in 1750 visited by two clergymen, who reported, that they proceeded in it till they heard the sea dashing over their heads; that the passage was as wide and as 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. In a mountain in Nordland, called Torg Hallen, whose summit has been fancifully imagined to resemble the figure of a giant with a hat on his head, there is a vast pervious aperture a hundred yards high and above two thousand in length, along which a road runs.

The lakes of Norway are extremely numerous; the largest of them is the Mioss, about sixty miles in length, but of no great breadth except towards the centre, where it is from twelve to fifteen miles. It has in it an island nearly ten miles in circumference. The lake of Rands Sion, near the Mioss, is almost fifty miles long, but scarcely more than two broad. The lake of Fæmund is thirty-five miles long and eight broad; and that of Ojeren, formed by the river Glom, twenty-three miles long. Some of these lakes contain floating islands sixty or eighty feet in diameter, formed by the cohesion of roots of trees and shrubs; and which, though torn from the main land, bear herbage and trees.

The principal rivers of Norway are the Glom, or Glomen, called like-

wise the Stor Elve, or Great River, which, from its source among the mountains on the borders of Sweden, to the bay of Swinesund, where it falls into the sea, runs above three hundred English miles; and the Dramme, which flows into the bay of Christiana after having received the Beina and other streams. There are many other smaller rivers.

METALS, MINERALS.] Gold has been found in Norway, and some ducats were coined of it in 1645. The silver-mines of Konigsberg, about forty miles from Christiana, are reputed the richest in Europe. There are other silver-mines in different parts of the country; and a mass of native silver, the produce of some of these, which is deposited in the royal cabinet at Copenhagen, weighs 409 marks, being worth 3000 rix-dollars, or 600*l.* The copper-mines of Roraas are extremely productive, and afford a considerable revenue. But the iron-mines near Arendahl are, perhaps, the most profitable.

Norway produces abundance of marble, quicksilver, sulphur, salt, coal, vitriol, and alum: mines of cobalt have likewise been discovered within these few years at Fossum.

CLIMATE, SOIL, VEGETABLE PRODUCTIONS.] The climate of Norway varies according to the latitude, and the position with respect to the sea. At Bergen the winter is moderate, and the sea not frozen. The eastern parts of Norway are commonly covered with snow; and the cold generally sets in about the middle of October, and continues, with intense severity, to the middle of April; the waters being all that time frozen to a considerable thickness. But even frost and snow have their conveniences, as they facilitate the conveyance of goods by land. In the more northern parts of this country, the cold is extremely intense. In summer, the inhabitants can read and write at midnight by the light of the sky; and in the most northerly parts, about midsummer, the sun is continually in view. In those parts, however, in the middle of winter, there is only a faint glimmering of light at noon for about an hour and a half, owing to the reflection of the sun's rays on the mountains. Nature, notwithstanding, has been so kind to the Norwegians, that, in the midst of their darkness, the sky is so serene, and the moon and the aurora borealis so bright, that they carry on their fishery, and work at their several trades in the open air.

The air of Norway, in general, is extremely pure, and many of the natives live to a very great age.

The soil and climate of Norway are not very favourable to agriculture, and no parts of that country yield sufficient corn for interior consumption; but though it is deficient in arable land, it is rich in pasture, and produces much cattle; and a patriotic society has so much encouraged agriculture, that within these fifty years estates have risen nearly one-third in value.

The principal vegetable production of Norway is wood. The extensive forests of this country consist of fir, pine, oak, elm, ash, yew, birch, beech, and alder trees. The fir of Norway is in high estimation, being firmer, more compact, and less liable to rot, than that of most other countries. The sums received from foreign nations for timber are very great; one-tenth of which is paid to the king of Denmark, and forms no inconsiderable part of his revenue.

ANIMALS.] The horses, and in general the other cattle of Norway, are small, but strong, hardy, and active. The wild animals are the elk, the rein-deer, the hare, the rabbit, the bear, the wolf, the lynx, the fox, the glutton, the leming, the ermine, the marten, and the beaver. The elk is a tall ash-coloured animal, its shape partaking at once of the horse and

the stag; it is harmless, and in the winter social; and the flesh of it tastes like venison. The rein-deer is a species of stag; but we shall have occasion to mention it more particularly hereafter. The hares are small, and are said to live upon mice in the winter time, and to change their colour from brown to white. The Norwegian bears are strong and sagacious. The Norwegian wolves, though fierce, are shy even of a cow or goat, unless impelled by hunger: the natives are dexterous in digging traps for them, in which they are taken or killed. The lynx, by some called the goupes, is smaller than a wolf, but as dangerous; they are of the cat kind, and have claws like tigers; they dig under ground, and often undermine sheep-folds, where they make dreadful 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 into the water, which the crab lays hold of.

The glutton, otherwise called the ervedan, or vielfras, resembles a turnspit dog, with a long body, thick legs, sharp claws and teeth; his fur, which is variegated, is so valuable that he is shot with blunt arrows, to preserve the skin unharmed: he is bold, and extremely ravenous.

The ermine is a little creature, remarkable for its shyness and cleanliness; and its fur forms a principal part even of royal magnificence.

The lemming, or Norwegian mouse, is a singular creature, of a reddish colour, and about five inches in length. Vast multitudes of these animals sometimes proceed from the mountains towards the sea, devouring every production of the soil, and spreading desolation like the locust. When they have consumed every eatable, it is said they at last prey on each other.

No country produces a greater variety of birds than Norway, especially water-fowl. The auks, which breed on the rocks, frequently appear in such numerous flocks that they darken the air, and the noise they make with their wings resembles a storm. Various kinds of wild ducks and pigeons are also found here. The Norwegian cock of the wood is a noble bird: he is of a black or dark-grey colour, with an eye resembling a pheasant; and is said to be the largest of all eatable birds. Eagles of different species breed among the mountains and rocks of Norway, some of which are of a prodigious size and strength, and will seize lambs and kids; and, it is said, have been known to carry off a child of two years old. The sea eagles sometimes dart on large fishes with such force, that, being unable to extricate their talons, they are dragged into the water and drowned. The bird-men of Norway display remarkable agility and address in mounting the steepest rocks, and bringing away the young birds and their eggs; the latter of which are nutritive food, and are parboiled in vinegar.

The seas and lakes of Norway are extremely productive of most kinds of fish which are found on the sea-coasts of Europe. Stock-fish innumerable are dried upon the rocks without salting. The haac-moren is a species of shark, ten fathoms in length, and its liver yields three casks of train-oil. The tuella flynder is an excessively large turbot, which has been known to cover a man who has 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 while following the herring shoals. The coast of Norway may be said to be the native country of herrings. Innumerable shoals come from under the ice, near the north pole, and, about the latitude of Iceland, divide themselves into three

bodies. One of these supplies the Western Isles and coasts of Scotland; another directs its course round the eastern part of Great Britain, down the Channel, and the third enters the Baltic through the Sound. They form great part of the food of the common people; and the cod, ling, kabeliau, and torsk fishes follow them, to feed upon their spawn, and are taken in prodigious numbers, in 50 or 60 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*.

NATURAL CURIOSITIES.] The dreadful vortex or whirlpool of Maelstrom, or Moskoestrom, is the most remarkable of the natural curiosities of Norway. It is caused by a furious current, which runs among the Loffoden isles, particularly between the island of Moskoe and the point of Moskoenas, where its violence is greatest, flowing, contrary to the motion of the tide, in a kind of circular stream. Twice in twenty-four hours, at the turn of ebb and tide, the current ceases, and the water is calm during almost an hour, after which it gradually increases, till it becomes tremendous, and roars with a noise unequalled by the loudest cataracts. It is heard at the distance of many leagues, and forms a vortex of great extent and depth, 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 when the water be-

* It may be proper to give here some account of those tremendous monsters of the Norwegian seas, the sea-serpent and the kraken, since they have been described by Pontoppidan, and other writers of some repute, though it is not probable that either of them ever had existence. A sea-snake, or serpent of the ocean, it is said, was shot in 1756, by the master of a ship: its head resembled that of a horse; the mouth was large and black, as were the eyes; a white mane hung 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 are said to 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 overset; the serpent's olfactory nerves being remarkably exquisite. The particulars related of this animal, however incredible, have been attested upon oath. Egede (a very reputable author) says, that on the 6th day of July, 1734, a large and frightful sea-monster raised itself so high out of the water, that its head reached above the maintop-mast of the ship; that it had a long sharp snout, broad paws, and spouted water like a whale; and 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 variegated like a tortoise-shell; and his excrement, which floats on the surface of the water, to be corrosive, and blister the hands of the seamen if they handle it.

The kraken is said to be a mile and a half in circumference; and that when part of it appears above the water, it resembles a number of small islands and sand-banks, on which fishes sport, and sea-weeds grow. Upon his farther emerging, a number of pellucid antennæ, each about the height, form, and size of a moderate mast, appear; by the action and re-action of which 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, we are told, a young kraken perished among the rocks and cliffs of the parish of Alstahong; and his death was attended with such a stench, that the channel where he died was impassable.

comes again still, rises in scattered fragments, scarcely to be known for the parts of a ship. In the time of its greatest violence, the danger of its influence is said to extend to the distance of eight, or even twelve, English miles from its centre. Whales, and other animals which happen to be caught by this dreadful whirlpool, are said to show themselves sensible of their approaching destruction by their hideous bellowings, and desperate but ineffectual struggles to escape.

POPULATION.] The number of inhabitants in Norway, notwithstanding the great extent of the country, does not exceed 750,000, almost the whole of which is contained in the southern part, or Norway Proper.

NATIONAL CHARACTER, MANNERS.] The Norwegians in general are strong, robust, and brave; but quick in resenting real or supposed injuries. The women are handsome and courteous; and the Norwegian modes of living greatly resemble those of the Saxon ancestors of the present English. Every inhabitant is an artisan, and supplies his family in all its necessaries with his own manufactures; so that in Norway there are few who are by profession hatters, shoe-makers, tailors, tanners, weavers, carpenters, smiths, or joiners. They often mix with oat-meal the bark of the fir, made into a kind of flour; and they are reduced to very extraordinary shifts for supplying the place of bread or farinaceous food. The middling Norwegians lead that kind of life which we may say is furnished with plenty; but they are neither fond of luxury, nor do they dread penury: and this middle state prolongs their lives surprisingly. Though their dress is in many respects accommodated to their climate, yet, by custom, instead of guarding against the inclemency of the weather, they outbrave it; for they expose themselves to cold, without any covering 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 danced before his Danish majesty, at Fredericshall, whose ages, when joined, exceeded 800 years.

CITIES, CHIEF TOWNS.] Christiana is accounted the capital of Norway, because it is the seat of the supreme court of justice. It is situate about thirty English miles from the sea, in a large and pleasant valley, and is the handsomest town in the country. It contains about 9000 inhabitants. Bergen is much the largest and most commercial town in Norway, containing nearly 20,000 inhabitants. It is principally built of wood, and has suffered by repeated fires; during one of which, in 1771, the flames, it is said, were visible, or at least their reflexion in the clouds, in the isles of Shetland. Drontheim, the capital of the diocese or province of the same name, contains about 8000 inhabitants.

COMMERCE.] The exports of Norway are timber, hemp, flax, tar, turpentine, fish, tallow, copper, iron, hides, and the skins of bears, lynxes, and foxes. The annual export of deal alone, is reckoned at 175,000*l.* and that of iron at 70,000*l.* They export annually 80,000 raw hides, and 1000 manufactured. The whole exports of Norway, in 1768, were stated at above 1,700,000*l.* sterling; and the imports at less than 1,240,000*l.*; which seems to indicate a considerable balance in favour of the country.

GOVERNMENT, LAWS.] Norway is subject to Denmark; but it is governed by its own laws, contained in a particular code called the Norway Law, compiled by Griffelfield, by order of Christian V. the great legislator of his country. By this law, the palladium of Norway, the peasants are free, a few only excepted, on certain noble estates near Fredericstadt. The laws are administered by provincial courts and officers. The go-

ful in 1693, when they occasioned terrible devastations, the ashes being thrown all round the island to the distance of 180 English miles. An eruption of Mount Heckla happened in 1766. It began on the 5th of April, and continued to the 7th of September following. Flames proceeded from the mountain in December 1771, and 1772; but no streams of lava.

But the greatest of the eruptions of Iceland, and, in fact, the most tremendous of any recorded in history, was that in 1783, which, we are assured by the abbé Spallanzani *, who cites the authority of Mr. Pennant, extended ninety-four miles in length, and fifty in breadth, dried up twelve rivers, and overwhelmed not only all the villages it found in its way, but likewise many hills. The perpendicular height of the sides of this current was from eighty to a hundred feet, so that the entire surface of the country was in a state of fluidity, and formed a lake of fire, resembling a mass of melted metal.

"In June 1783," says the abbé Ordinaire, in his Natural History of Volcanoes, "it was feared that this island (Iceland) would fall to pieces; and it was even reported for some days that it had been swallowed up, so dreadful and multiplied were the convulsions produced by its volcanoes and internal fires. A thick sulphureous smoke rendered the island absolutely invisible to mariners at sea, while the people on shore were all in danger of being suffocated by it. The fog, which about that time spread over all Europe, was considered as an effect of these exhalations. Frightful hollow roarings proceeded from the bottom of the sea. From Mount Shapton Gluver, a seventh volcano in the island, there poured a terrific torrent of fire, which flowed for six weeks. It ran a distance of sixty miles to the sea; its breadth was nearly twelve miles; and in its course it dried up the river Shaptaga, which in some places is thirty, and in others six-and-thirty, feet deep."

In the month of April of the same year, a volcanic island arose out of the sea, to the south of Iceland, which threw out fire from two of its eminences, and continued to increase in size for some time, but at length disappeared.

Of the lakes of Iceland, that called Thingvalla Vatu, in the south-west, said to be about forty miles in circuit, and My Vatu, in the opposite part of the island, appear to be the principal. The chief rivers are the Skalfanda, the Oxarfird, and the Brua, which flow from south to north.

MINERALS, FOSSILS.] No mines are worked in Iceland, though large pieces of silver, copper, and iron ore, have been found on the surface of the ground. The principal minerals are sulphur, pumice, zeolite, calcedony, and malachite, or copper stalactites. The substance called *surturbrand* is a remarkable fossil: it is evidently wood, not quite petrified, but indurated, which drops asunder as soon as exposed to the air. It is found at a great depth, and indicates trees to have been once much more plentiful in the island than they are at present.

CLIMATE, SOIL.] The temperature of the air in Iceland, in its ordinary state, is moderate: the cold of winter is not rigorous; but the weather in summer is subject to great inequalities; and violent tempests, accompanied sometimes with piercing cold, frequently destroy the fruits of the earth. The soil is tolerably fruitful in grass, but differs according to different situations, being in some places sandy, and in others a stiff clay.

VEGETABLES, ANIMALS.] In so rude a climate as that of this country,

* See Spallanzani's Travels in the Two Sicilies, vol. iv.

no species of corn can be cultivated with advantage; and agriculture is hardly known, except in the manuring of some pasture grounds, and the planting of a few potatoes, turnips, and cabbages, that may be found in five or six small gardens.

Though there are indubitable proofs that Iceland formerly produced great quantities of timber, there are now very few trees to be found on the whole island, and those of a very stunted growth.

Iceland has no wild quadrupeds, except rats, wild cats, and white and brown foxes. The horses are small, but stout and serviceable. Birds are extremely numerous; there are several kinds of falcons, swans, and eider-ducks, which furnish the inhabitants with eggs, and a very valuable down.

NATURAL CURIOSITIES.] Among the curiosities of Iceland none are more worthy of attention than the hot spouting-water springs with which this island abounds. Some of these throw up columns of water, of several feet in thickness, to the height, as many affirm, of several hundred feet. They are of an unequal degree of heat. From some the water flows gently, as from other springs, and it is then called a bath: from others boiling water spouts with great noise, and it is then called a kettle. Though the degree of heat is unequal, yet Dr. Van Troil says that he does not remember ever to have observed it under 188 of Fahrenheit's thermometer. At Geysir, Rœynum, and Laugarvatn, he found it at 212 (the boiling heat); and in the last place, in the ground, in a small hot current of water, at 213 degrees. It is very common for some of the spouting-springs to cease, and other to rise up in their stead. Frequent earthquakes, and subterranean noises, heard at the time, cause great terror to the people who live in the neighbourhood. In several of these hot springs the inhabitants who live near them boil their victuals, only by hanging a pot, into which the flesh is put in cold water, in the water of the spring.

The largest of all the spouting-springs in Iceland is called Geysir. It is about two days' journey from Heckla, and not far from Skalholt. In approaching towards it, a loud roaring noise is heard, like the rushing of a torrent precipitating itself from stupendous rocks. The water here spouts several times a-day, but always by starts, and after certain intervals. Some travellers have affirmed that it spouts to the height of sixty fathoms. The water is thrown up much higher at some times than at others: when Dr. Van Troil was there, the utmost height to which it mounted was computed to be 92 feet.

Basaltine pillars are likewise very common in Iceland, which are supposed to have been produced by subterraneous fires. They have generally from three to seven sides, and are from four to seven feet in thickness, and from twelve to sixteen yards in length, without any horizontal divisions. In some places they are only seen here and there among the lava in the mountains; but in others they extend two or three miles in length, without interruption.

Iceland contains great numbers of yawning fissures of the earth, and prodigious caverns, formed by volcanic explosions. The largest of these, as yet described, is that of Surtheller, which is above 5000 feet, or about an English mile, in length; above 50 feet high, and 35 feet broad. At Almengaia, near the water of Tingalla, is a fissure of a great but unmeasured length, from north to south, and 105 feet wide. Its western side, or wall, is above 107 feet high, but its eastern only 45 feet.

Innumerable masses of ice are, every year, the cause of great damage to this country, and affect the climate of it. They arrive com-

monly with a N. W. or N. N. W. wind from Greenland. The field ice is of two or three fathoms' thickness, is separated by the winds, and less dreaded than the rock or mountain ice, which is often seen fifty and more feet above water, and is, at least, nine times the depth below water. These prodigious masses of ice are frequently left in shoal water, fixed, as it were, to the ground; and in that state remain many months, nay, it is said even years, undissolved, chilling all the ambient part of the atmosphere for many miles round. When many such lofty and bulky masses of ice are floating together, the wood that is often drifted along between them is so much chafed, and pressed with so much violence together, that it is said it sometimes takes fire; which circumstance has occasioned fabulous accounts of the ice being in flames. A number of bears arrive yearly with the ice, which commit great ravages, particularly among the sheep; they are, however, commonly soon destroyed, for the government allows a premium of ten dollars each, for killing them, besides the price of the skins, which are purchased for the king, and not allowed to be sold to any other person.

POPULATION.] The number of inhabitants in Iceland is computed to be about 50,000. The country was formerly much more populous, but it has frequently been ravaged by contagious diseases. The plague, in the beginning of the fifteenth century, destroyed many thousands of the inhabitants, and almost depopulated the island; and in the years 1707 and 1708, the small pox carried off 16,000 persons. Iceland has, also, repeatedly suffered extremely by famines, the consequence of severe winters in that inclement climate.

INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS.] The Icelanders in general are middle-sized, and well-made, though not very strong. They are an honest, well-intentioned people, moderately industrious, and are very faithful and obliging. Theft is seldom heard of among them. They are much inclined to hospitality, and exercise it as far as their poverty will permit. Their chief employment is attending to fishing and the care of their cattle. On the coasts, the men employ their time in fishing both winter and summer; and the women prepare the fish, and sew and spin. The men also prepare leather, work at several mechanic trades, and some few work in gold and silver. They likewise manufacture a coarse kind of cloth, which they call *wadmal*. They have an uncommonly strong attachment to their native country, and think themselves no where else so happy. An Icelander, therefore, seldom settles in Copenhagen, though the most advantageous conditions should be offered him. Their dispositions are serious, and they are much inclined to religion. They never pass a river, or any other dangerous place, without previously taking off their hats, and imploring the divine protection; and they are always thankful for their preservation when they have passed the danger. The dress of the Icelanders is not elegant or ornamental, but is neat, cleanly, and suited to the climate. On their fingers the women wear several gold, silver, or brass rings. The poorer women dress in the coarse cloth called *wadmal*, and always wear black; those who are in better circumstances wear broad-cloth, with silver ornaments, gilt. The houses of the Icelanders are generally bad: in some places they are built of drift wood, and in others they are raised of lava, with moss stuffed between the lava. Their roofs are covered with seds laid over rafters, or sometimes over ribs of whales, which are both more durable and less expensive than wood. They have not even a chimney in their kitchens, but only lay their fuel on the hearth, between three stones, and the smoke issues from a square hole in the roof. Their food principally con-

sists of dried fish, sour butter, which they consider as a great dainty, milk mixed with water and whey, and a little meat. Bread is so scarce among them, that there is hardly any peasant who eats it above three or four months in the year.

TOWNS, TRADE, REVENUE.] There are no towns, or even villages properly so called, in any part of this island, the inhabitants only dwelling in separate farms, which sometimes contain several distinct habitations. The three or four houses of the Icelandic company at each of the twenty-two ports or harbours are, however, dignified with the name of towns, though they are only trading places. The only manufacture of Iceland is the coarse cloth called *wadmal*. The commerce of the island is monopolised by a Danish company, which pays the king of Denmark 6,000 dollars yearly for that privilege. This company sends annually between 24 and 30 vessels with corn, bread, wine, brandy, salt, linen, and other articles; and exports dried fish, salted meat, butter, tallow, train-oil, the coarse cloth called *wadmal*, raw-wool, skins, and eider-down; of which latter nearly 2,000 lbs. weight is annually exported.

As Iceland affords no incitement for avarice or ambition, the inhabitants depend entirely on the protection of Denmark, which derives from the country a revenue of about 30,000 crowns a year.

GOVERNMENT, LAWS.] The government of Iceland, after it became subject to Norway and Denmark, was at first regulated by a marine officer who was sent there every year to inspect the state of the island: but the court of Denmark now appoints a governor, styled the *stiftsamtmand*, who constantly resides there, at a place called *Bessastader*, in the south-west part of the island, and who appoints his own *amtmand*, or deputy. Each of the 18 *sysseis*, or districts, into which Iceland is divided, has a magistrate called a *sysseisman*, who acts as a justice of the peace, and before whom actions are usually commenced; but they may be carried by appeal to the courts of two superior judges, and thence to the supreme court of judicature at Copenhagen. Justice is, in general, administered according to the Danish laws; but sometimes, likewise, according to the old Icelandic ordinances. Men convicted of capital crimes are put to death by beheading or hanging: but if a woman is condemned to die, she is sewed up in a sack and thrown into the sea.

RELIGION.] The inhabitants of Iceland were converted to Christianity about the year 1000; and in 1551, Lutheranism, which is still the religion of the country, was established. The island is divided into two dioceses, Skalholt and Hoolum; of which the former contains 127 parishes, and the latter 62. The yearly revenue of these bishoprics is about 200*l.* each. All the ministers are native Icelanders, and are paid by Van Troil to receive a yearly salary of four or five hundred rix-dollars from the king of Denmark, exclusive of what they obtain from their congregations. According to Mr. Coxe, however, some have not more than three or four pounds annually.

LITERATURE.] From the introduction of the Christian religion into Iceland, till the year 1264, when this island became subject to Norway, it was one of the few countries in Europe, and the only one in the North, in which the sciences were cultivated and held in esteem. But this period of time seems to have produced more learned men in Iceland than any other period since. It appears from their ancient chronicles, that they had considerable knowledge in morality, philosophy, natural history, and astronomy. Most of their works were written in the 11th, 12th, 13th, and 14th centuries; and some of them have been printed. Mr. Banks, now Sir Joseph Banks, presented one

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

LANGUAGE.] The Icelandic is a very ancient dialect of the Gothic, and has been preserved so pure that any Icclander can understand the most ancient chronicles of his country. The Lord's Prayer in Icelandic is as follows:

Fader vor som est i Himlum; I Hulgad warde thitt nama. Tilkomme thitt Rikie. Skie thitt vilie so som i Himmalum so ogh po Jordanne. Wort dachliche Brodh gif os i dagh Ogh forlat os nova Skuldur, so som ogh vi forlate them os Skildighe arc Ogh inled os ikkie i Frestalsan. Utan frels os ifra ondo. Amen.

ANTIQUITIES.] In Iceland are found circles of upright stones, and stones laid on each other, in a manner similar, though on a smaller scale, to Stonehenge in England. They are there called *domrings*, or circles of judgement. There likewise still exists a bath built by Snorro, the celebrated Icelandic historian, in the thirteenth century.

HISTORY.] A Norwegian colony under the conduct of two chiefs, named Ingulfr and Leifr, settled in Iceland in the ninth century. Other colonies soon followed, consisting principally of emigrants who fled from the tyranny of Harold Harfagre, king of Norway. These formed separate independent communities which, in time, united into one commonwealth under a supreme elective magistrate. In consequence, however, of internal dissensions, and the arbitrary conduct of some ambitious citizens, the Icelandic republic in the year 1264 submitted, under certain conditions, to Hakan king of Norway; and afterwards became, with that country, a part of the dominions of the crown of Denmark, to which it still remains subject.

THE FARO OR FERRO ISLANDS,

SO called from their lying in a cluster, and the inhabitants ferrying from one island to another. They are about 25 in number, though only 17 are said to be inhabited, and lie between 61 and 63 deg. N. lat. and 6 and 7 deg. W. long. from London. The space of this cluster extends about 70 miles in length and 40 in breadth, 300 miles to the westward of Norway; having Shetland and the Orkneys on the south-east, and Greenland and Iceland upon the north and north-west. Stromoe, the largest island of this group, is twenty-four miles long and eight broad. The trade and income of the inhabitants, who may be about 4000 or 5000, add little or nothing to the revenues of Denmark.

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EAST
WEST
SOUTH

SWEDEN.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

Miles.	Degrees.
Length 970 } Breadth 600 }	between { 56° and 70° North latitude. { 12° and 30° East longitude.

Containing 210,000 square miles, with 14 inhabitants to each.

NAME.] SWEDEN is called, in the present language of the country, *Swea-riike*, or the kingdom of Swea; an appellation of great antiquity, and probably derived from the ancient Suiones, who appear to have inhabited this part of Scandinavia.

BOUNDARIES AND DIVISIONS.] Sweden is bounded on the south by the entrance of the Baltic Sea; on the west by the mountains of Norway; on the north by Danish Lapland, or Finmark; and on the east by Russia. The whole kingdom is divided into five general parts:

1. Sweden Proper.—2. Gothland.—3. Nordland.—4. Swedish Lapland.
5. Finland. These are again subdivided into the following provinces:

	SWEDEN PROPER.	CHIEF TOWNS.
	Upland, - - -	{ STOCKHOLM. { N. lat. 59° 20'. { E. lon. 18° 3'.
	Sudermanland, - - -	{ Upsal.
	Nerike, - - -	{ Nikioping.
	Westermanland, - - -	{ Oerebro.
	Dalecarlia, - - -	{ Westeroes.
		{ Fahlun.
		{ Hedemora.
	GOTHLAND.	
EAST.	{ East-Gothland, - - -	{ Norkieping.
	{ Smalland, or Smoland, - - -	{ Calmar.
	{ Island of Oeland, - - -	{ Borgholm.
	{ Island of Gothland, - - -	{ Wesby.
WEST.	{ West-Gothland, - - -	{ Gothenburg. { N. lat. 57° 42'. { E. lon. 11° 38'.
	{ Wermeland, - - -	{ Carlstadt.
	{ Dalsland, - - -	{ Amal.
	{ Bohinslehn, - - -	{ Kongshall.
SOUTH.	{ Hochland, - - -	{ Halmstadt.
	{ Schonen, - - -	{ Lund.
	{ Blekingen, - - -	{ Carlsrona.
	NORDLAND.	
	Gestrikeland, - - -	{ Gefle.
	Helsingland, - - -	{ Hadwikshall.
	Medelpad, - - -	{ Sundswall.
	Jemtland, - - -	{ Karlstrom.
	Herjedalen, - - -	{ Linonedall.
	Angermanland, - - -	{ Hoernosand.
	West-Bothnia, - - -	{ Umea. { N. lat. 65° 50'. { Torneo. { E. lon. 24° 12'. { Pitea.

SWEDISH LAPLAND.

Asele Lapmark,	-	-
Umea Lapmark,	-	-
Fitea Lapmark,	-	-
Lulea Lapmark,	-	-
Tornea Lapmark,	-	-
Kimi Lapmark,	-	-

CHIEF TOWNS.

} There are no towns in these districts, and the inhabitants often change their places of abode.

FINLAND.

East-Bothnia,	-	-
Finland Proper,	-	-
Tavastland,	-	-

{ Uicaborg.
Wasa.

(Nystadt) Abo.

Tavastchus.

{ N. lat. 60° 27'.
E. lon. 22° 17'.

SWEDISH PART OF SAVOLAX.

Island of Aeland,	-	-
Nyland,	-	-

Castelholm.

Helsingfors.

Swedish part of Kuopio Karelen, or Carelia, as far as the river Kymene,

} Louisa.

Sweden likewise possesses, in the north of Germany, Anterior or Hither Pomerania, as far as the river Peene, with the island of Rugen, the town of Wismar, and the bailiwick of Neucloster, situated in the duchy of Mecklenburg. Swedish Pomerania, together with the island of Rugen, forms a territory of 1440 square miles, with a population of from 100,000 to 110,000 inhabitants.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, MOUNTAINS, FORESTS.] The face of the country in Sweden presents a pleasing diversity of the romantic and the beautiful: a profusion of mountains, hills, and eminences, intermingled with extensive lakes, numerous rivers and winding streams, rocks, cataracts, and cultivated lands. The principal mountains are found in the chain which separates Sweden from Norway. The mountain Swucku is esteemed the highest of this chain. The mountain Kinekulle, on the banks of the lake Wenner, consists of a number of terraces rising one above another, the highest of which presents a scene equally rich and variegated. Rætvik, another mountain, is estimated to be 6000 feet high above the level of the sea. These, as well as all the other mountains of Sweden, are composed of granite, calcareous stone, and slate. The basis of the greater part of them is granite, which is frequently found in large separate masses, rising to a considerable height. Jetteberg in West-Gothland, forms a mass of this kind. Taberg in Smaland, is composed entirely of iron ore.

Vast forests, principally of pine, overspread a great part of the country, and the province of Dalecarlia in particular. Besides pine, birch, poplar, mountain-ash, and fir, abound in them. In these forests conflagrations are remarkably frequent, which consume or scorch all the trees, sometimes for an extent of several miles. These are to be attributed, in part, to the carelessness of the peasants, who kindle fires in the woods without extinguishing them; and in part to the privilege allowed the peasants to make use of the timber thus damaged in the crown forests, without paying the usual tax on it.

LAKES, RIVERS, CANALS.] The lakes of Sweden are very numerous. The largest of them is the Wenner, which is about 100 English miles long, and between 50 and 60 broad. It contains several islands, and re-

receives 24 rivers. The Wetter is about the same length, but of unequal breadth, being from only 6 to 26 miles broad. It is reported to be 200 fathoms deep, contains two islands, and receives about 40 small streams. The Mælar is about 70 miles in length, and 30 in breadth. It contains a prodigious number of small islands; there are reckoned to be 1290; several of which are three or four miles in extent, and extremely fertile. At Stockholm this lake communicates with the Baltic, by two rapid currents, one of which is called the northern and the other the southern stream. The Hielmar washes Sudermanland and Nerike: it is about 40 miles in length, and 20 in breadth, and communicates with the Mælar. In Finland, the lake Pejend is about 80 miles long and 15 broad. There are also a great number of smaller lakes in this country.

The principal river of Sweden is the Dahl, which rises in the mountains that separate Sweden from Norway, and, after a course of about 260 miles, falls into the Gulf of Bothnia, about 10 miles to the east of Gefle. Near its mouth is a celebrated cataract, scarcely inferior to that of the Rhine at Shaffhausen. The breadth of the river there is about a quarter of a mile, and the perpendicular height of the fall between 30 and 40 feet. The rivers Gotha and Motala are the outlets of the lakes Wenner and Weter. The principal rivers of Finland are the Ulea, the Kano, and the Kymene, which flows into the Gulf of Finland, and constitutes the boundary of the Swedish part of Carelia.

Inland navigation has not been entirely unattended to in Sweden. The canal of Trolhætta, lately completed, has been wrought with great labour, assisted by the powerful force of gunpowder, through the midst of rocks. Its object was to open a communication between the North Sea and the Lake Wenner, by forming a new channel where the Gotha is rendered innavigable by cataracts. The length of this canal, in which there are nine locks, is nearly three miles, the width 36 feet, and the depth in some places above 50. "It is not easy," says a late judicious traveller, "for any one to form an idea of the difficulties that were to be surmounted in the formation of this wonderful canal, unless he were an eye-witness. It was undertaken and begun by Charles XII.; formed part of a grand plan meditated by Gustavus Vasa, and attempted by some of his successors, for joining the Baltic with the North Sea, by means of a communication cut through the kingdom. If a canal should be extended by the Lake of Wenner, by Oerebro, to the Lake of Hielmar, the Swedes may then, by a conjunction of this lake with that of Mælar through the sluices of Arboga, transport all kinds of merchandise in the same vessel from Gothenburg to Stockholm. Thus a passage would be opened between the North Sea and the Baltic; and, among other advantages, the duties of the Sound would be avoided. The canal of Trolhætta may justly be considered as, in some respects, characteristic of the Swedish nation, for it represents them as they are, prone to the conception of grand enterprises, and distinguished by mechanical invention. As a work of art, and of bold and persevering design, it is not too much to say that it is the first in the world; even the duke of Bridgewater's canal in England, and that of Languedoc in France, not excepted*."

[METALS, MINERALS.] The mines of silver, copper, lead, and iron, in Sweden, constitute the principal wealth of the country. In the year 1738 a gold-mine was likewise discovered near Adelfors, in the province of Smoland; but from the year 1741 to 1747 it produced only 2,389 gold ducats, each valued at 9s. 4d. sterling; and at present will not defray the

* Acerbi's Travels in Sweden, Finland, and Lapland, vol. i. pp. 20.

expense of working. The silver mines, though greatly reduced in value, are more profitable; but by far the most valuable are the mines of copper and iron, though these are much less productive than they were formerly. The copper mines near Falun, in Dalecarlia, have been worked for nearly 1000 years: they are sunk to the depth of 1080 feet, and employ 1200 workmen. The copper is found, not in veins, but in great masses. The iron mines near Danemora, in Smoland, are accounted to produce the best iron in the world. The metal is sometimes found in vast masses, of which the most remarkable is the hill of Taberg, in Smoland, which is one immense lump of iron ore, above 400 feet high, and three English miles in circuit. The iron mines in Sweden, together with the smelting houses and furnaces, are said to employ nearly 26,000 workmen.

Sweden likewise produces porphyry, rock-crystal, cobalt, antimony, zinc, and molybdena. Coal mines have been discovered within these few years in the province of Smoland.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AGRICULTURE.] The winter in every part of Sweden is extremely severe. The largest lakes, and the whole Gulf of Bothnia, is frozen over, and a kind of high road is made over the latter for sledges to pass into Finland. The southern parts have a somewhat milder temperature than the northern. The spring continues only for a week or two, when the heat of summer becomes extreme, from the great length of the days, and the reflexion of the sun's rays from the rocks and mountains; so that in some of the northern provinces the harvest is sown and reaped in the space of seven or eight weeks. Frequent winds purify the atmosphere, the salubrity of which is evinced by numerous instances of longevity. The soil is in general very indifferent, but in some valleys surprisingly fertile. The Swedes, till of late years, had not industry sufficient to remedy the one or improve the other. The peasants now follow the agriculture of France and England, and raise almost as much grain as is requisite for the consumption of the country. Even Finland produces rich pasturage, and considerable crops of different kinds of grain.

The cultivation of tobacco has succeeded very well throughout the whole country. It grows in the greatest quantities near Stockholm and Abo; and perhaps Sweden at present does not require any importation of this commodity from foreign countries, except to have it somewhat superior in quality to that of its own growth.

VEGETABLES, ANIMALS.] The pine and the fir are the principal forest-trees of Sweden; the birch grows in all the provinces; but it has been remarked that no beeches grow to the north of East-Gothland, and no oaks beyond Upland.

Wheat, rye, barley, oats, peas, and beans, are cultivated with success in Sweden; and though beyond Gefle and Biorneburg fruit-trees are rarely to be met with, common cherries, gooseberries, strawberries, raspberries, currants, and several sorts of pears and apples, ripen in the open air in several of the provinces; and melons, by artificial culture, are brought to great perfection in dry seasons. Among the pears which ripen in Sweden, the principal is the bergamot; and among the apples, that of Astracan, which has a most agreeable taste.

The wild animals of Sweden are wolves, bears, beavers, elks, reindeer, wild-cats, foxes, hares, and squirrels. In winter the foxes and squirrels become gray, and the hares as white as snow. The horses and oxen, and the cattle in general, are small, but hardy. Various kinds of birds are found here, particularly two singular species of falcons. The rivers and lakes abound in fish; and several species of them, pikes and

salmon in particular, are pickled and exported. The train-oil of the seals taken in the Gulf of Finland, is likewise a considerable article of exportation.

NATURAL CURIOSITIES.] The natural curiosities of Sweden consist in its cataracts, and the scenery of its forests and lakes. About 50 miles from Gothenburg are the famous cataracts of Trollhætta, formed by the river Gotha, which issues from the lake of Wenner, and being united after several breaks, falls with its whole and undivided stream into so deep a bed of water that large masts, and other pieces of timber, precipitated down it, disappear for a very considerable time before they rise again to the surface. There is another cataract, on the river Dahl, about 10 miles to the east of Gefle, esteemed little inferior to that of the Rhine at Schaffhausen, the breadth of the river being nearly a quarter of a mile, and the fall being between 30 and 40 feet. The effect is likewise greatly heightened by the surrounding scenery.

POPULATION.] The number of inhabitants in Sweden is probably more correctly ascertained than in most other countries of Europe, the states in 1741 having erected an institution called the *Commission of Registers*, the office of which was to collect and compare all the registers of marriages, births, and deaths, in Sweden. According to the tables constructed from these registers, the number of inhabitants amounted in 1751 to 2,229,661; in 1772, to 2,584,261; and as from the same authority it appears that the population, in the space of 30 years ending in 1781, had increased by more than 500,000 souls, it may now be estimated to exceed 3,000,000. In Bötticher's tables the population of Sweden is given at 2,977,345, of which number Finland contains 624,000.

NATIONAL CHARACTER, MANNERS, CUSTOMS.] The Swedes are in general tall, well-formed, and capable of enduring the greatest fatigues. They are grave in their deportment, industrious, sincere, brave, and hospitable. The upper classes imitate closely the manners of the French, the fashions of which nation have long been followed by the ladies, few of whom adopted the national dress which the late king endeavoured to introduce in 1777. This was worn, however, by many of the men, and consisted, for them, of a close coat, very wide breeches, a girdle, a round hat, and a cloak. The women were to wear a black robe, with puffed gauze sleeves, a coloured sash, and ribbons. The Swedes, in general, wear short dresses, and of a blue or black colour. Veils are much used by the women of all classes; even the female peasants, while at work in the fields, cover their heads with black crape. There is no country in the world where the women do so much work as in Sweden; they manage the plough, thrash out the grain, row on the water, serve the bricklayers, carry burdens, and do all the common drudgeries of husbandry.

CITIES, CHIEF TOWNS, EDIFICES.] An unusually small proportion of the population of Sweden, or not more than a tenth part, is collected in towns, the number of which is estimated at 104. Of these, 24 are staple-towns, where the merchants are allowed to import and export commodities in their own ships. Those towns which have no foreign commerce are called land-towns; and a third class are termed mine-towns, as belonging to the mine districts.

Stockholm is a staple-town, and the capital of the kingdom. It stands upon seven small rocky islands, besides two peninsulas, and is built upon piles. It strongly impresses a stranger with its singular and romantic scenery. A variety of contrasted and enchanting views are formed by numberless rocks of granite, rising boldly from the surface of the water, partly bare and craggy, partly dotted with houses, or feathered with wood.

The harbour, which is spacious and convenient, though difficult of access, is an inlet of the Baltic: the water is clear as crystal, and of such a depth that ships of the largest burden can approach the quay, which is of considerable breadth, and lined with spacious buildings and warehouses. At the extremity of the harbour several streets rise one above another, in the form of an amphitheatre; and the palace, a magnificent building, crowns the summit. Towards the sea, about two or three miles from the town, the harbour is contracted into a narrow strait, and, winding among high rocks, disappears from the sight; the prospect is terminated by distant hills, overspread with forests. It is far beyond the power of words, or of the pencil, to delineate these singular views. The central island, from which the city derives its name, and the Ritterholm, are the handsomest parts of the town.

Excepting in the suburbs, where the houses are of wood, painted red, the generality of the buildings are of stone, or brick stuccoed white. The royal palace, which stands in the centre of Stockholm, and upon the highest spot of ground, was begun by Charles XI. It is a large quadrangular stone edifice, and the style of architecture is both elegant and magnificent*.

The number of housekeepers who pay taxes are 60,000. This city is furnished with all the exterior marks of magnificence, and erections for manufactures and commerce that are common to other great European cities, particularly a national bank, the capital of which is 450,000*l.* sterling.

Upsal, or Upsala, formerly the metropolis of Sweden, and the royal residence, is the chief town of the province of Upland, and is famous for its university and its cathedral, the finest church in Sweden, built in imitation of the church of Notre Dame at Paris. It is a small but very neat town, divided into two almost equal parts by a small river named Sala; and the streets are drawn at right angles from a central kind of square. A few of the houses are built with brick, and stuccoed, but the generality, as in most of the towns of Sweden, are of wood painted red. It contains, exclusively of the students, only about 3000 inhabitants.

Gothenburg, the second city of Sweden in magnitude, stands partly on the ridges of rocks, and partly in a plain, and is divided from these situations into the upper and lower town. The latter is entirely level, intersected by several canals, in the manner of the Dutch towns, and its houses are all constructed upon piles. The upper part hangs on the declivities; and rows of buildings rise one above another like the seats of an amphitheatre. The whole is regularly fortified; and its circumference is nearly three miles, exclusive of the suburbs, called Haga, which lie towards the harbour. The number of inhabitants is about 25,000.

Carlsrona, the station of the royal navy in Sweden, has a harbour capable of containing 100 ships of the line. Its inhabitants are about 12,000.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.] The manufactures of Sweden are neither numerous nor flourishing. Even the manufacturing of iron was introduced into Sweden so late as the 16th 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 17th century, by the assistance of the Dutch and Flemings, they began some manufactures of glass, starch, tin, woollens, silk, soap, and leather. They have now some of sail-cloth, cotten, linen, fustian, and other stuffs; as also of

* Coxe, vol. ii. pp. 327, 328.

alum and brimstone. In 1785, it was computed that those of sail-cloth, wool, silk, and cotton, employed above 14,000 hands. Vast quantities of copper are now wrought in Sweden. They have also founderies for cannon, forges for anchors and fire-arms, armouries, wire and flattening mills, mills also for fulling, and for boring and stamping: they likewise build many ships for sale.

The exports of Sweden principally consist of the native productions of the country; as iron, the staple commodity, of which 400,000 ship-pounds are annually exported; copper; timber, the export of which produces a revenue of 315,000*l.* annually; pitch, tar, herrings, and fish-oil. The imports are, rye and other kinds of grain, flax, hemp, tobacco, sugar, coffee, silk, and wines. In the year 1782, the exports of Sweden amounted to 1,368,830*l.* and the imports to 1,008,392*l.* leaving a balance in favour of the country of about 360,000*l.*

GOVERNMENT.] The government of Sweden has undergone many changes. The Swedes, like the Danes, were originally free, and during the course of many centuries the crown was elective; but after various revolutions, 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 of Sweden could scarcely be called by that name, being limited in every exercise of government. The senate had even a power of imposing upon the king a sub-committee of their number, who were to attend upon his person, and to be a check upon all his proceedings, down to the very management of his family.

But in August, 1772, the whole system of the Swedish government was totally changed by the late king, in the most unexpected manner. The circumstances which attended this extraordinary revolution will be found in our history of Sweden. By that event the Swedes, instead of having the particular defects of their constitution rectified, found their king invested with a degree of authority little inferior to that of the most despotic princes of Europe. By the form of government then introduced, the king may assemble and dissolve the states whenever he pleases: he has the sole disposal of the army, the navy, finances, and all employments civil and military; and though he cannot openly claim a power of imposing taxes on all occasions, yet such as then subsisted were rendered perpetual; and, in case of invasion or pressing necessity, he may impose some taxes till the states can be assembled; but of this necessity he is to be the judge, and the meeting of the states depends wholly upon his will and pleasure; and when they are assembled, they are to deliberate upon nothing but what the king thinks proper to lay before them. It is easy to perceive, that a government thus constituted can be little removed from one of the most despotic kind. Yet, in order to amuse the nation with some slight appearances of a legal and limited government in the new system, which consists of fifty-seven articles, a senate is appointed, consisting of seventeen members, comprehending the great officers of the crown and the governor of Pomerania; and they are required to give their advice in all the affairs of the state, whenever the king shall demand it. In that case, if the questions agitated are of great importance, and the advice of the senators should be contrary to the opinion of the king, and they unanimous therein, the king, it is said, shall follow their advice. But this, it may be observed, is a circumstance that can hardly

ever happen, since it is scarcely possible that all the members of a senate, consisting chiefly of officers of the crown, should give their opinions against the king; and in every other case the king is to hear their opinions, and then to act as he thinks proper. There are some other apparent restraints of the regal power in this system of government; but they are in reality very inconsiderable. It is said, indeed, that the king cannot establish any new law, nor abolish any old one, without the knowledge and consent of the states: but the king of Sweden, according to the present constitution, is invested with so much authority, power, and influence, that it is hardly to be expected that any person will venture to make an opposition to whatever he shall propose.

LAWs.] Sweden is not governed by the Roman or civil law, but by its own code, founded on the ancient Swedish laws, and published with the sanction of the states in 1736. It was again revised, and such alterations adopted as were suggested by the late king, and published in a new edition in 1781. There are four superior courts, as also inferior tribunals in the principal towns. A kind of assizes is likewise held twice in the year by county-judges. Trials are had by a sort of jury of twelve persons, who, when they all agree, may decide against the opinion of the judge; but in general they are implicitly guided by his dictates.

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

REVENUE.] The revenue of Sweden, arising from the rents of crown-lands, capitation taxes, customs, and various other articles, amounts to about 1,450,000*l.* The annual expenditure generally rather exceeds the revenue, and the debt of the crown amounted some years ago to 7,000,000*l.* Sweden, until lately, laboured under a very great scarcity of specie, the country being overwhelmed with paper-money; but this inconvenience has been in some degree remedied by a coinage of silver.

ARMY AND NAVY.] 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 principally 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 60 or 70*l.* per annum is charged with a foot soldier, furnishing him with diet, lodging, and ordinary clothes, and about 20*s.* 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. In 1791 the standing regiments amounted to 13,500 infantry and 1,000 cavalry; and the national troops to 22,500 infantry, 7,000 cavalry, and 3,500 dragoons*. Sweden formerly could have fitted out 40 ships of the line: at present she has not more than 25, and 10 or 15 frigates.

ROYAL TITLE, ORDERS OF KNIGHTHOOD.] The king takes the title of King of Sweden and of the Goths and Vandals; Grand-duke of Finland, Hereditary Lord of Norway; Duke of Sleswick, Stormarn, and Ditmarsen; Count of Oldenburg and Delmenhorst.

The orders of knighthood are that of the Seraphim, or blue ribbon; of the Sword, or yellow ribbon; of the Polar Star, or black ribbon; and of Vasa, or the green ribbon. The order of the Sword is bestowed for military merit; and that of the Polar Star for civil services.

RELIGION.] Christianity was introduced into Sweden in the ninth century, and Lutheranism established by Gustavus Vasa. The national church is governed by the archbishop of Upsal and thirteen bishops. The bishoprics are those of Linkœping, Skara, Strengnæs, Westeros, Vexjæ, Abo, Lund, Borgo, Gotheburg, Calmar, Carlstadt, Hernæsand, and Gothland. The Swedes were, till of late years, very intolerant to those of other religious professions, and extremely severe laws were in force against the catholic priests. But they have now greatly relaxed from this bigotry: various sects are tolerated in Sweden, and Jews were permitted to settle there, and open synagogues at Stockholm, Gotheburg, Carlscrona, and Norkiœping, in 1778. In 1781 the catholics were likewise permitted to profess their religion publicly. Swedes who abandon their religion are, however, punishable by banishment and the loss of all their civil privileges.

LITERATURE.] In natural history, chemistry, and metallurgy, several natives of Sweden have attained to particular eminence; and in these departments of science the names of the great Linnæus, professor Bergman, Wallerius, Quist, Klingenstierna, and Thunberg, are especially conspicuous. The Swedes have also not neglected the culture of the politer arts, and literature of almost every kind.

UNIVERSITIES.] There are three universities in Sweden; those of Upsal, Lund, and Abo. Of these, the principal is that of Upsal. This university contains about 500 students; that of Lund has about 300; and that of Abo nearly as many. There are, likewise, twelve seminaries for the education of youth, called *gymnasia*. In every large town there is also a school, maintained at the expense of the crown, in which boys generally continue till the age of eleven, when they are sent to the *gymnasia*, and thence, at sixteen, to one of the universities. The university of Upsal has a library containing about 40,000 volumes. There are in Sweden twelve literary academies, most of which publish memoirs of their transactions.

LANGUAGE.] The language of Sweden has a considerable resemblance to the Danish and Icelandic, and, like them, is derived from the ancient Gothic. The Lord's Prayer in Swedish is as follows.

Fader war som ast i himlom; helgat warde tit namn; tilkomme tit

* Boisselin's Travels through Sweden.

rike; ske tin wilje, sasom i himmelen su ock på jördene; gif oss i dag wart dagelige brod; och forlat oss ware skulder, sasom ock wi forlatom them oss skyldige aro; och inled oss icke i frestelse, utan frels oss ifran ondo; ty riket ar tit, och machten, och herligheten i ewighet. Amen.

ANTIQUITIES.] Sweden contains numerous ranges of stones, similar in some degree, though not comparable in dimensions, to those of Stonehenge. There are also great numbers of small mounts or tumuli, like the barrows of Britain, and ancient monuments inscribed with Runic characters. Near Upsal is the *morasten*, or stone, on which the king used to be enthroned, as the Scottish monarchs anciently were at Scone.

HISTORY.] The history of this kingdom, and indeed of all the northern nations, even during the first 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 about the middle of the fourteenth century, when it assumes a more regular appearance. At this time, however, the government of the Swedes was far from being clearly ascertained or uniformly administered. The crown was elective; though in this election the rights of blood were not altogether disregarded. The great lords possessed the most considerable part of the wealth of the kingdom, which consisted chiefly in land; commerce being unknown or neglected, and even agriculture itself in a very rude and imperfect state. The clergy, particularly those of a dignified rank, from the great respect paid to their character among the inhabitants of the North, had acquired an immense influence in all public affairs, and obtained possession of the lands that had been left unoccupied by the nobility. These two ranks of men, enjoying all the property of the state, formed a council, called the Senate, which deliberated on all public affairs. This system of government was extremely unfavourable to the national prosperity. The Swedes perished in the dissensions between their prelates and lay-barons, or between those and their sovereign; they were drained of the little riches they possessed, to support the indolent pomp of a few magnificent bishops; and, what was still more fatal, the unlucky situation of their internal affairs exposed them to the inroads and oppression of a foreign enemy. These were the Danes, who, by their neighbourhood and power, were always able to avail themselves of the dissensions of Sweden, and to subject under a foreign yoke a country weakened and exhausted by its domestic broils. In this deplorable situation Sweden remained for more than two centuries; sometimes under a nominal subjection to its own princes, sometimes united to the kingdom of Denmark, and in either case equally oppressed and insulted.

Magnus Ladislaus, crowned in 1276, seems to have been the first king of Sweden who pursued a regular system to increase his authority. He was one of the ablest princes who ever sat on the Swedish throne. By his art and address he prevailed upon the convention of estates to make very extraordinary grants to him for the support of his royal dignity. The augmentation of the revenues of the crown was naturally followed by a proportionable increase of the regal power: and whilst, by the steady and vigorous exertion of this power, Magnus humbled the haughty spirit of the nobles, and created in the rest of the nation a respect for the royal dignity, with which they appear before to have been but little acquainted, he, at the same time, by employing his authority in many respects for the public good, reconciled his subjects to acts of power which in former monarchs they would have opposed with the utmost violence. The suc-

cessors of Magnus did not maintain their authority with equal ability; and several commotions and revolutions followed, which threw the nation into great confusion.

In the year 1387, Margaret, daughter of Valdemar king of Denmark, and widow of Huguin, king of Norway, reigned in both these kingdoms. That princess, to the ordinary ambition of her sex, added a penetration and enlargement of mind, which rendered her capable of conducting the greatest and most complicated designs. She has been called the Semiramis of the North, because, like Semiramis, she found means to reduce by arms, or by intrigue, an immense extent of territory; and became queen of Denmark, Norway, and Sweden, being elected to the throne of the latter in 1364. She projected the union of Calmar, so famous in the North; by which these kingdoms were for the future to remain under one sovereign, elected by each kingdom in its turn, and who should divide his residence between them all. Several revolutions ensued after the death of Margaret; and at length Christian II., the last king of Denmark who by virtue of the treaty of Calmar was also king of Sweden, engaged in a scheme to render himself entirely absolute. The barbarous policy by which he attempted to effect this design proved the destruction of himself, and afforded an opportunity for changing the face of affairs in Sweden. In order to establish his authority in that kingdom, he laid a plot for massacring the principal nobility; and this horrid design was actually carried into execution, Nov. 8, 1520. Of all those who could oppose the despotic purposes of Christian, no one remained in Sweden but Gustavus Vasa, a young prince descended from the ancient kings of that country, and who had already signalised his arms against the king of Denmark. An immense price was set upon his head. The Danish soldiers were sent in pursuit of him; but by his dexterity and address he eluded all their attempts, and escaped under the disguise of a peasant to the mountains of Dalecarlia. After undergoing innumerable dangers and fatigues, and working in the brass-mines to prevent being discovered, he was betrayed by those in whom he reposed his confidence; but at length, surmounting a thousand obstacles, he engaged the savage but warlike inhabitants of Dalecarlia to undertake his cause, and assist him to oppose and conquer his tyrannical oppressor. Sweden by his means again acquired independence. The ancient nobility were mostly destroyed; Gustavus was at the head of a victorious army, who admired his valour, and were attached to his person: he was created therefore, first, administrator, and afterwards king of Sweden, by universal consent, and with the shouts of the whole nation. His circumstances were much more favourable than those of any former prince who had possessed this dignity. The massacre of the nobles had freed him from those proud and haughty enemies, who had so long been the bane of all regular government in Sweden. The clergy, indeed, were no less powerful than dangerous; but the opinions of Luther, which began at this time to prevail in the North, and the credit which they had acquired among the Swedes, gave him an opportunity of changing the religious system of that country; and the exercise of the Roman-catholic religion was prohibited in the year 1544, under the severest penalties. Instead of a Gothic aristocracy, the most turbulent of all governments, and, when empoisoned by religious tyranny, of all governments the most wretched, Sweden, in this manner, became a regular monarchy. Some favourable effects of this change were soon visible: arts and manufactures were established and improved; navigation and commerce began to flourish; letters and civil improvements were introduced; and a kingdom, known only by

name to the rest of Europe, began to be formidable by its arms, and to have a certain weight in all public treaties and deliberations.

Gustavus 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. His son Sigismund was 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 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 in 1599. The reign of Charles, through the practices of Sigismund, who was 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, heir-apparent to the crown of Sweden, though then a minor. Upon the death of his father, which happened in 1611, he was declared of age by the states, though then only in his eighteenth year. Gustavus, soon after his accession, found himself, through the power and intrigues of the Poles, Russians, and Danes, engaged in a war with all his neighbours, under infinite disadvantages, all which he surmounted. He had nearly rendered himself sovereign of Russia. 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 which he likewise received a sum of money.

The ideas of Gustavus began now to extend. He had seen much 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 had become the best disciplined and most warlike in Europe. 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 he defeated. In 1627, he formed the siege of Dantzick, in which he was unsuccessful; but the attempt, which was defeated only by the sudden rise of the Vistula, added so much to his military character, that the protestant princes 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. 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 Meeklenburg, 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 the command against Gustavus, who was killed upon the plain of Lutzen in 1632, after gaining a victory, which, had he survived, would probably have put a period to the Austrian greatness.

The amazing abilities of Gustavus Adolphus, both in the cabinet and the field, never appeared so fully as after his death. He left behind him a set of generals trained by himself, who maintained the glory of the Swedish army with most astonishing valour and success. The names of duke Bernard, Bannier, Torstenson, Wrangel, and others, and their great actions in war, will long live 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 view 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, 1648, which gave a new system to the affairs of Europe.

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. 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. He afterwards joined with France against the house of Austria; but being defeated in Germany, at Felem Bellin, a powerful confederacy was formed against him. The elector of Brandenburg made himself master of Swedish Pomerania; the bishop of Munster over-ran 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 Nimeguen in 1678, recovered all he had lost, except some places in Germany. He then married Ulrica-Leonora, the king of Denmark's sister; but made a base use of the tranquillity he had regained, by employing his army to enslave his people. The states lost all their power; and Sweden was now 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

powerful, that the conferences for a general peace at Ryswick, 1697, 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 in consequence 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 entered into a war with them all; and besieging Copenhagen, 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 that time ravaging Ingria, at the head of 80,000 men, and had besieged Narva. The army of Charles did not exceed 20,000 men; but such was his impatience, that he advanced at the head of 8000, entirely routed the main body of the Russians, and raised the siege. Such were his successes, and so numerous his prisoners, that the Russians attributed his actions to necromancy. Charles, from thence marched into Saxony, where his warlike achievements equalled if they did not excel those of Gustavus Adolphus. He dethroned Augustus king of Poland; but stained all his laurels by putting the brave count Patkul to a death equally cruel and ignominious. He raised Stanislaus to the crown of Poland in 1705; and his name carried with it such terror, that he was courted by all the powers of Europe, and among others by the duke of Marlborough in the name of queen Anne, amidst the full career of her successes against France. His stubbornness and implacable disposition, however, were such, that he cannot be considered in a better light than that of an illustrious madman; for he lost, in the battle of Pultowa, 1709, which he fought in his march to dethrone the czar, more than all he had gained by his victories. His brave army was ruined, and he was forced to take refuge among the Turks at Bender. His actions there, in attempting to defend himself with 300 Swedes against 30,000 Turks, prove him to have been worse than frantic. The Turks found it, however, convenient for their affairs to set him at liberty. But his misfortunes did not cure his military madness; and after his return to his dominions, he prosecuted his revenge against Denmark, till he was killed by a cannon-shot, as it is generally said, at the siege of Fredericshall, in Norway, belonging to the Danes, in 1718, when he was not more than thirty-six years of age. It has been supposed that Charles was not in reality killed by a shot from the walls of Fredericshall, but that a pistol from one of those about him gave the decisive blow which put an end to the life of this celebrated monarch. This opinion is said to be very prevalent among the best-informed persons in Sweden. And it appears that the Swedes were tired of a prince under whom they had lost their richest provinces, their bravest troops, and their national riches; and who yet, untamed by adversity, pursued an unsuccessful and pernicious war, nor would ever have consented to restore tranquillity to his country.

Charles XII. was succeeded by his sister, the princess Ulrica-Eleanora, wife to the hereditary prince of Hesse. We have seen in what manner the Swedes recovered their liberties; and given some account of the capitulation signed by the queen and her husband. Their first care was to make peace with Great Britain, which the late king intend-

ed to have invaded. The Swedes then, to prevent farther losses by the progress of the Russian, the Danish, the Saxon, and other arms, made many and great sacrifices to obtain peace from those powers. The French, however, about the year 1738, formed a dangerous party in Sweden, under the name of the *Hats*, which not only disturbed 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 Lubeck, 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 his resentment, and forget the indignity done to his son. The successor of this prince, Adolphus Frederic, married the princess Ulrica, sister to the king of Prussia, and entered into the possession of his new dignity in 1751. He was a prince of a mild and gentle temper, but much harassed by the contending Swedish factions, and found his situation extremely troublesome, in consequence of the restraints and opposition which he met with from the senate. He passed the greatest part of his reign very disagreeably, and was at length, through the intrigues of the queen, brought over to the French party. He died in February 1771, and was succeeded by his son, Gustavus the Third, the late king, who possessed abilities greatly superior to those of his father.

Gustavus was about five-and-twenty years of age when he was proclaimed king of Sweden: his understanding had been much cultivated; he had an insinuating address, and a graceful and commanding elocution. He was at Paris at the time of his father's death, whence he wrote in the most gracious terms to the senate, repeatedly assuring them that he designed to govern according to the laws. In consequence of the death of his predecessor, an extraordinary diet was called to regulate the affairs of the government, and to settle the form of the coronation-oath. Some time after his arrival in Sweden, on the 28th of March, 1772, his majesty solemnly signed and swore to support the government of the kingdom as then established; to maintain the rights and liberties of the states, the liberty and security of all his subjects, and to reign with gentleness and equity according to the laws of the kingdom. But scarcely had he taken these solemn oaths, to rule according to the then-established form of government, and accepted the crown upon these conditions, before he formed a plan to govern as he thought proper; regarding these oaths only as matters of ceremony. He made use of every art, the most profound dissimulation, and the utmost dexterity and address, in order to render this hazardous enterprise successful. On his first arrival at Stockholm, he adopted every method which could increase his popularity. Three times a week he regularly gave audience to all who presented themselves. Neither rank, fortune, nor interest, were necessary to obtain access to him; it was sufficient to have been injured, and to have

a legal cause of complaint to lay before him. He listened to the meanest of his subjects with affability, and entered into the minutest details that concerned them: he informed himself of their private affairs, and seemed to interest himself in their happiness. This conduct caused him to be considered as truly the father of his people, and the Swedes began to idolise him. At length, when he found his scheme ripe for execution, having taken the proper measures for bringing a considerable number of the officers and soldiers into his interest, on the 19th of August 1772 he totally overturned the Swedish constitution of government. In less than an hour he made himself master of the whole military force of Stockholm; made all the members of the senate prisoners; and suffering no person to leave the city, that intelligence of these violent proceedings might not be carried to any other part of the kingdom, issued a proclamation for an assembly of the states to meet on the 21st, which having accordingly met, he surrounded with troops, and planted cannon, over which soldiers stood with lighted matches in their hands, facing the hall in which they were assembled. The king then, being seated on his throne, surrounded by his guards, and a numerous band of officers, after having addressed a speech to the states, ordered a secretary to read a new form of government, which he offered to the states for their acceptance. As they were surrounded by an armed force, they thought proper to comply with what was required of them. The marshal of the diet, and the speakers of the other orders, signed the form of government; and the states took the oath to the king, which he dictated to them himself. He afterwards gave them to understand, that he intended in six years' time again to convene an assembly of the states. Thus was this great revolution completed without any bloodshed, in which the Swedes surrendered that constitution which their forefathers had bequeathed to them after the death of Charles the Twelfth, as a bulwark against any despotic attempt of their future monarchs.

The exorbitant power which Gustavus the Third had thus assumed, he exercised with some degree of moderation; and at an assembly of the states in 1786, after many points were referred to them by the king, and debated with great freedom, he dismissed them with condescension and gentleness, at the same time remitting a tenth part of the subsidy which they had granted him.

On the 12th of July, 1788, hostilities commenced on the frontiers of Finland, between a body of Russian light troops and a detachment of the Swedes posted on the bridge of Pomalasund. After various engagements both by land and sea, in which Gustavus displayed the greatest abilities, a peace, fixing the frontiers of Russia as they were before the war broke out, was signed at Werela, on the river Kymene, between the plenipotentiaries of the empress of Russia and the king of Sweden.

The reign of this king was terminated by a premature and tragic end. On the night of the 16th of March 1792, while at a masquerade in the opera-house at Stockholm, he was shot with a pistol, by an assassin named Ankerstroem, in consequence of a conspiracy among some of the discontented nobles; and having survived in great pain till the 29th of that month, expired, in the 46th year of his age and 22d of his reign.

The prince-royal, being fourteen years of age, was immediately proclaimed king, by the name of Gustavus Adolphus; and the duke of Sudermania, his uncle, and brother to the late king, in compliance with his majesty's will, was declared sole regent, and guardian of the young sovereign, till he should attain his majority, which was fixed at the age of eighteen. The reign of this prince has hitherto been pacific, if we

except his entering very warmly into the confederacy formed by the northern powers against England, by signing what was called a convention of neutrality, in which claims were advanced which the British government considered as injurious to its interests and derogatory to its honour. But the signal victory obtained by lord Nelson, in the battle off Copenhagen, of which an account will be found in our summary of the affairs of England, and the sudden death of the late emperor Paul of Russia, completely dissolved this confederacy, and Sweden has now acceded to the treaty signed at St. Petersburg, June 17, 1801, which has restored peace to the North.

Gustavus Adolphus IV., the present king of Sweden, was born Nov. 1, 1778; and succeeded his father, Gustavus III., March 29, 1792; married Oct. 31, 1797, to the princess Frederica Dorothea Wilhelmina, daughter of Charles Louis, hereditary prince of Baden, born March 12, 1781; by whom he has issue,

1. Gustavus, prince-royal, born Nov. 9, 1799.

2. Sophia Wilhelmina, born May 21, 1801.

Queen dowager—Sophia Magdalena, daughter of Frederic V. king of Denmark, born July 3, 1746.

Brothers and sisters to the late king :

1. Charles, duke of Sudermania, born Oct. 7, 1748.

2. Frederic Adolphus, duke of West-Gothland, born July 18, 1750.

3. Sophia Albertina, abbess of Quedlingburg, born Oct. 8, 1753.

LAPLAND.

THOUGH Lapland has no peculiar government as a distinct nation, but is divided among the three great northern powers, Sweden, Denmark, and Russia, the peculiar character and manners of its inhabitants entitle it to be treated of in a distinct section; and as the largest and most cultivated part of it belongs to Sweden, it appears most proper to place the account of it after that of the country on which it is principally dependent.

NAME.] The name of *Lappes* was given to the Laplanders by the Swedes, and is of uncertain derivation. Some say that it signifies exiles or fugitives, because they are of the race of the Fins driven out of their own country; others, that it signifies sorcerers. The Laplanders call themselves *Same*, and their country *Same-ednam*; whence it has been conjectured that they are of the race of the Samoieds.

EXTENT AND DIVISIONS.] Lapland, taking together the whole of Swedish, Danish, and Russian Lapland, extends from 64 to 71 degrees north latitude, and from 15 to 40 degrees west longitude, being in length about 600 miles, and in breadth 500: it may contain about 120,000 square miles. The most southern part belongs to Sweden: the northern part appertains to Denmark, and is called Finmark. The distinction between the territory of the two countries, as agreed on by treaty in 1750, is, according to Mr. Acerbi, a late intelligent traveller into Lanland, that all that tract of country of which the rivers run into the Frozen Ocean, shall belong to Denmark; and all that of which the rivers fall into the Gulf of Bothnia, shall be considered as Swedish Lapland. The eastern extremity of Lapland belongs to Russia, and makes a part of the government of Archangel.

The subdivisions of Swedish Lapland have already been given in the table of the Swedish provinces.

MOUNTAINS, LAKES, RIVERS.] Lapland contains many mountains, but none with which we are sufficiently acquainted to notice them particularly. The principal rivers are the Tornea, the Tana, and the Alten. The Tornea springs from the lake of the same name, and, after a course of 300 miles, falls into the Gulf of Bothnia. The Tana and Alten fall into the Frozen Ocean. The Paes divides Russian Lapland from the part subject to Denmark. The lakes in Lapland are numerous; those of Hernasba-Staer, or the Great Lake, Tornea, Lulea, and Enara in Russian Lapland, are the chief.

MINERALS, METALS.] Lapland abounds in metals and minerals of every kind. Native gold has been found at Svappawara; copper, iron, lead, zinc, and plumbago, or black-lead, are found in various parts; and in the south of Swedish Lapland there are mines worked by the Swedes. Limestone, marble, gypsum, rock-crystal, jasper, amethysts, and garnets, are also among the mineral productions of this country. Pearls of considerable value are said to be found in the rivers.

CLIMATE, SOIL, VEGETABLE PRODUCTIONS.] The winter in Lapland, as may be expected in so northern a climate, is extremely severe. In the most northern parts the sun remains below the horizon from the 20th of November to the 10th of January; and from the beginning of September to the middle of March the whole country is covered with snow and ice; and in the depth of winter the lakes and rivers are generally frozen to the depth of two Danish ells and a half. In summer, on the other hand, the sun continues in like manner two months above the horizon; and the heat in the valleys and plains is excessive. Innumerable insects are produced, and the inhabitants are infested with musquitoes to an intolerable degree. Mr. Acerbi, returning on the 20th of July from the North Cape, the most northern extremity of these regions, remarks in his Diary—"The sea was perfectly calm, and I do not remember having ever suffered greater heat in my life than in this journey."

With respect to the soil and vegetable productions of Lapland, the whole country is an immense wilderness, where agriculture is entirely unknown, except in a very few parts in the south, in which corn (principally rye and buckwheat) is cultivated. In the north, tracts of considerable extent are overgrown with moss, which is the principal food of the rein-deer. The trees are the fir, birch, larch, and small beech, which form vast but not very thick forests.

ANIMALS.] The animals are nearly the same with those described in the account of Norway, excepting the rein-deer, which more peculiarly belongs to Lapland. This animal, the most useful, perhaps, of any in the creation, and which seems to have been provided by nature to recompense the Laplanders for the privation of the other comforts of life, 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 moss; which they have a wonderful sagacity at finding, and, when found, 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, which are fastened to the horns of the animal, 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

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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 contributes to support their master. Their instinct in choosing their road, and directing their course, can only be accounted for by their being well acquainted with the country during the summer months when they live in the woods. Their flesh is well-tasted food, whether fresh or dried; their skin forms excellent clothing both for the bed and the body; their milk and cheese are nutritive and 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 be killed in a flock, the survivors will gore and trample him to pieces; therefore single stragglers are generally chosen. 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. Their surprising speed (for they are said to run at the rate of 200 miles a-day) seems to be owing to their impatience to get rid of their incumbrance. None but a Laplander could bear the uneasy posture in which he is placed, when he is confined in one of these carriages or pulkhas; or would believe, that, by whispering the rein-deer in the ear, they know the place of their destination.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS.] Lapland is very thinly peopled. Russian Lapland, according to Mr. Tooke, does not contain more than 1200 families, or about 6000 persons. The population of the whole of this extensive region is supposed to be not more than 40,000, or one person to about three square miles.

Both men and women are in general considerably shorter than more southern Europeans. Maupertuis measured a woman who was suckling her child, whose height did not exceed four feet two inches and about a half. The Laplander is of a swarthy and dark complexion; his hair is black and short, his mouth wide, and his cheeks hollow, with a chin somewhat long and pointed. The women are complaisant, chaste, often well made, and extremely nervous, which is also observable among the men, though more rarely.

Agriculture is not much attended to among the Laplanders. They are chiefly divided into Lapland fishers, and Lapland mountaineers. The former always make their habitations on the brink or in the neighbourhood of some lake, from which they draw their subsistence. The others seek their support upon the mountains and their environs, possessing herds of rein-deer more or less numerous, which they use according to the season, but go generally on foot. They are excellent and very industrious herdsmen, and are rich in comparison of the Lapland fishers. Some of them possess six hundred or a thousand rein-deer, and have often money and plate besides. They mark every rein-deer on the ears, and divide them into classes; so that they instantly perceive whether any one has strayed, though they cannot count to so great a number as that to which their stock often amounts. Those who possess but a small stock, give to every individual a proper name. The Lapland fishers, who are also called Laplanders of the Woods, because in summer they dwell upon the borders of the lakes, and in winter in the forests, live by fishing and hunting, and choose their situation by its convenience for either. The greatest part of them, however, have some rein-deer. They are active and expert in the chase: and the introduction of fire-arms among them has almost entirely abolished the

use of the bow and arrow. Besides looking after the rein-deer, the fishery, and the chase, the men employ themselves in the construction of their canoes, which are small, light, and compact. They also make sledges, to which they give the form of a canoe, harness for the rein-deer, cups, bowls, and various other utensils, which are sometimes neatly carved, and sometimes ornamented with bones, brass, or horn. The employment of the women consists in making nets for the fishery, in drying fish and meat, in milking the rein-deer, in making cheese, and tanning hides; but it is understood to be the business of the men to look after the kitchen, in which it is said the women never interfere.

The Laplanders live in huts in the form of tents. A hut is from about twenty-five to thirty feet in diameter, and not much above six in height. They cover them, according to the season and the means of the possessor, some with briers, bark of birch or of linden,—others with turf, coarse cloth, or felt, or the old skins of rein-deer. The door is of felt, made like two curtains which open asunder. A little place surrounded with stones is made in the middle of the hut for the fire, over which a chain is suspended to hang the kettle upon. They are scarcely able to stand upright in their huts, but constantly sit upon their heels round the fire. At night they lie down quite naked; and, to separate the apartments, place upright sticks at small distances. They cover themselves with their clothes, or lie upon them. In winter they put their naked feet into a fur bag. Their household furniture consists of iron or copper kettles, wooden cups, bowls, spoons, and sometimes tin or even silver basins; to which may be added the implements of fishing and hunting. That they may not be obliged to carry such a number of things with them in their excursions, they build in the forests, at certain distances, little huts, made like pigeon-houses, and placed upon the trunk of a tree, cut off at the height of about six feet from the root. In these elevated huts they keep their goods and provisions; and though they are never shnt, yet they are never plundered. The rein-deer supply the Laplanders with the greatest part of their provisions: the chase and the fishery supply the rest. Their principal dishes are the flesh of the rein-deer, and puddings which they make of their blood, by putting it, either alone or mixed with wild berries, into the stomach of the animal from whence it was taken, in which they cook it for food. But the flesh of the bear is considered by them as their most delicate meat. They eat every kind of fish, even the sea-dog; as well as all kinds of wild animals, not excepting birds of prey and carnivorous animals. Their winter provisions consist chiefly of flesh and fish dried in the open air, both of which they eat raw, without any sort of dressing. Their common drink is water, sometimes mixed with milk. They make also broths and fish-soups. Brandy is very scarce with them, but they are extremely fond of it. Whenever they are inclined to eat, the head of the family spreads a carpet on the ground; and the men and women squat round this mat, which is covered with dishes. Every Laplander always carries about him a knife, a spoon, and a little cup for drinking. Each has his portion separately given him, that no person may be injured; for they are great eaters. Before and after the meal they make a short prayer; and as soon as they have done eating, each gives the other his hand.

In their dress the Laplanders are not clothed by them. The men wear close breeches, reaching down to their shoes, which are made of untanned skin, pointed and turned up before; and in winter they put a little hay in them. Their doublet is made to fit their shape, and open at the

breast. Over this they wear a close coat with narrow sleeves, the skirts of which reach down to the knees, and which is fastened round them by a leathern girdle, ornamented with plates of tin or brass. To this girdle they tie their knives, their instruments for making fire, their pipes, and the rest of their smoaking apparatus. Their clothes are made of fur, of leather, or of cloth; the close coat, of cloth or leather, always bordered with fur, or bindings of cloth of different colours. Their caps are edged with fur, pointed at top, and the four seams adorned with lists of a different colour from that of the cap. The women wear breeches, shoes, doublets, and close coats, in the same manner as the men; but their girdle, at which they carry likewise the implements for smoaking tobacco, is commonly embroidered with brass wire. Their close coat has a collar, which comes up somewhat higher than that of the men. Besides these, they wear handkerchiefs, and little aprons, made of painted cloth, rings on their fingers, and ear-rings, to which they sometimes hang chains of silver, which pass two or three times round the neck. They are often dressed in caps folded after the manner of turbans. They wear also caps fitted to the shape of the head: and as they are much addicted to finery, they are all ornamented with the embroidery of brass wire, or at least with list of different colours.

A young man is not permitted to marry till he be able to take and kill a rein-deer. When he is thus qualified, and has chosen a female to whom he wishes to make proposals, he communicates his desire to his own family, who then repair in a body to the dwelling of the parents of the girl, taking with them a quantity of brandy to drink on the occasion, and a slight present for the young woman; for instance, a girdle ornamented with silver, a ring, or something of the like kind. When they come to the door of the hut in which she lives, the principal spokesman enters first, followed by the rest of the kindred, the suitor waiting without until he shall be invited to enter. As soon as they are come in, the orator fills out a bumper of brandy, which he offers to the girl's father, who, if he accept it, shows thereby that he approves of the match about to be moved for. The brandy is handed round, not only to the girl's father and mother, and her friends assembled together, but likewise to the intended bride; and in the course of this comotation, leave is obtained for the young man to forward his suit in his own person. The orator then, in a set speech, makes a beginning: and in this stage of the courtship the lover is himself introduced, but takes his seat at a distance from the rest, placing himself near the door. The parents of the girl at length signifying their full consent to the match, the suitor offers the maiden the present he has brought with him, and at the same time promises wedding-clothes to the father and mother. If the parents, after having thus given their consent, depart from their word, it is an established law amongst the Laplanders that all the expenses incurred must be made good, even to the brandy drank at the first visit. The parties being thus betrothed, the young man is allowed to visit his mistress from time to time. On the day of the nuptials the bride appears dressed in her gala habit, with this difference, that whereas her head is close covered at other times, upon this occasion her hair is left to flow loose upon her shoulders, and she wears a bandeau of different-coloured stuffs, and sometimes a fillet. The nuptials are celebrated in a frugal manner, and without show. Such of the guests as are invited, and are of sufficient ability to do it, make the bride a present of money, rein-deer, or something towards a stock*.

* Acerbi, vol. ii. p. 285.

The Laplanders, it is said, entertain an aversion to war; and it has never been found practicable to convert them into soldiers: but this is rather to be attributed to their habits of life, which disqualify them for military discipline; as they will brave the fury of the tempestuous ocean with astonishing intrepidity, and skait without fear along the edges of tremendous precipices.

LANGUAGE.] The language of Lapland appears to have an affinity to the Finnish, with an intermixture of some words evidently of Gothic origin, derived perhaps from their intercourse with the Danes and Swedes. Very different dialects, however, are spoken in different parts of the country. The Lord's Prayer in Laplandish is as follows:

Atki mijan juco lee almensine. Ailis ziaddai tu Nam. Zweigubatta tu Ryki Ziaddus tu Willio naukuchte almene nau ei edna mammal. Wadde mijai udni mijan fert pæfve: laibelm. Jah andugasloite mi jenujan suddoid naukuchte mije andugasloitebt kudi mije uelgogas tien. Jah sissalaidi mijubni. Æle tocko kackzællebma pahast. Amen.

RELIGION.] The Laplanders have been induced, by the missionaries sent among them from Denmark and Norway, to profess Christianity; but this does not prevent them from sacrificing to the gods of their forefathers, and practising their ancient superstitions. The principal instrument of their magical rites, to which they are still addicted, is the Runic drum, which is a box of an oval shape, covered at one end with a skin, and furnished on the other with several strings and pieces of iron to rattle and make a noise: strange figures, intended to represent the heavenly bodies; beasts and birds, with many others characters, are drawn on the skin. The noaaid, or sorcerer, puts a ring upon his drum, and beats on it with his drumstick, which is made of the horn of the rein-deer, and according to the figure on which the vibration of the skin causes the ring to fall; he answers all questions concerning former or future events. At the same time he invokes the spirits to assist his drum; and in the course of this mummerly falls into a fit, during which his soul is supposed to be with the spirits of the air, hearing their converse and learning the decrees of Heaven. Families in general possess such a drum, which the Laplander consults before he sets out on a journey, and which is his guide and director on all common occasions; but in affairs of greater moment he applies to the *Noaids*, or professed magicians, to consult it for him. These drums are preserved with great care and secrecy, and are hidden from sight except at the time they are used. A woman dare not approach the place where one of these drums is concealed, much less durst she presume to touch it.

TRADE.] The Laplanders carry on a trade with the Swedes and Norwegians, by supplying them with the skins and furs of quadrupeds; such as ermines, sables, martens, squirrels; black, white, and variously-coloured foxes; bears, lynxes, and wolves. In return they purchase meal, cloth, various utensils, spirituous liquors, and tobacco. The furs in which they traffic are of extreme fineness, and bear a high price, so that the balance of this trade is much in favour of the Laplanders.

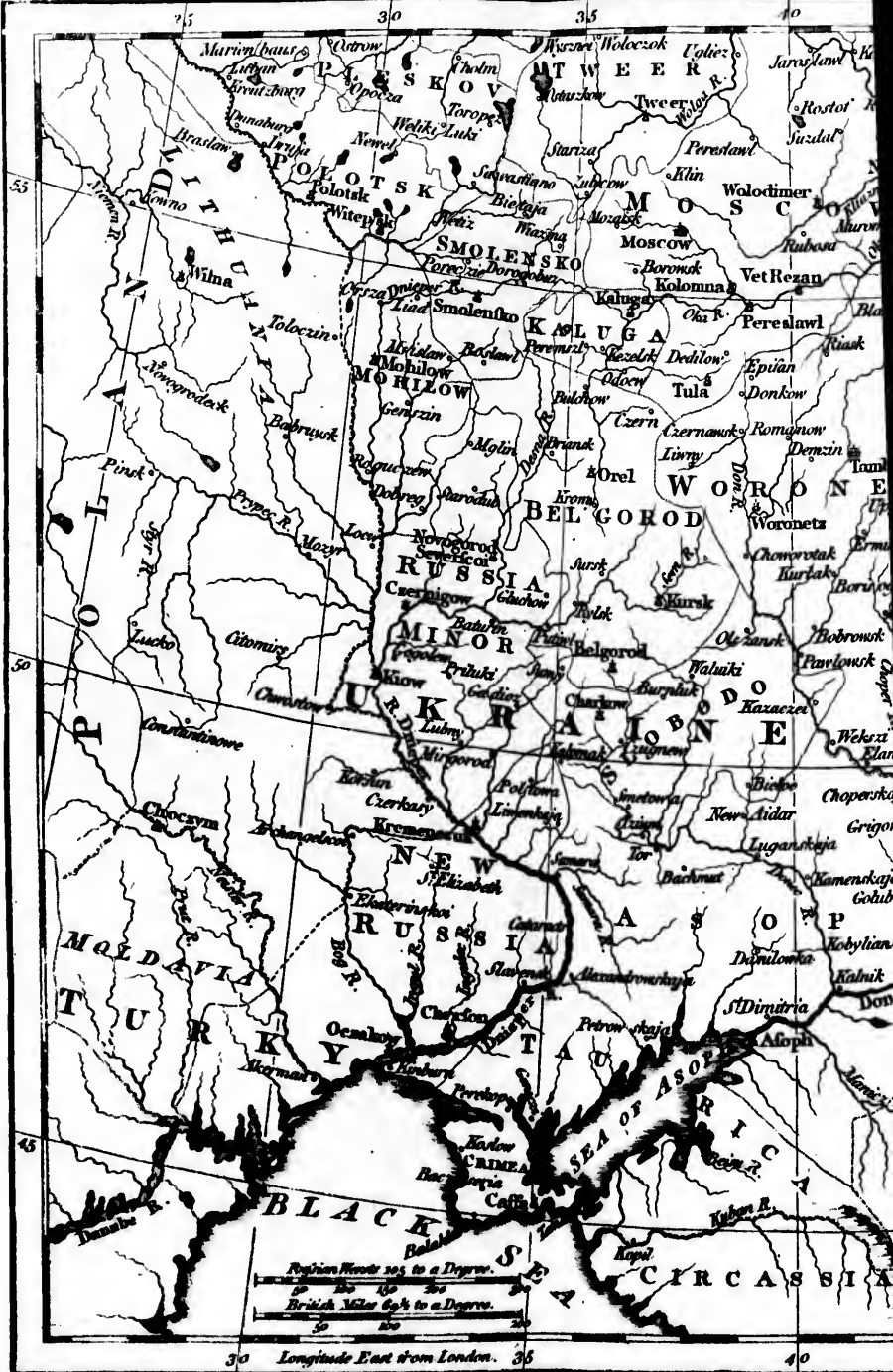
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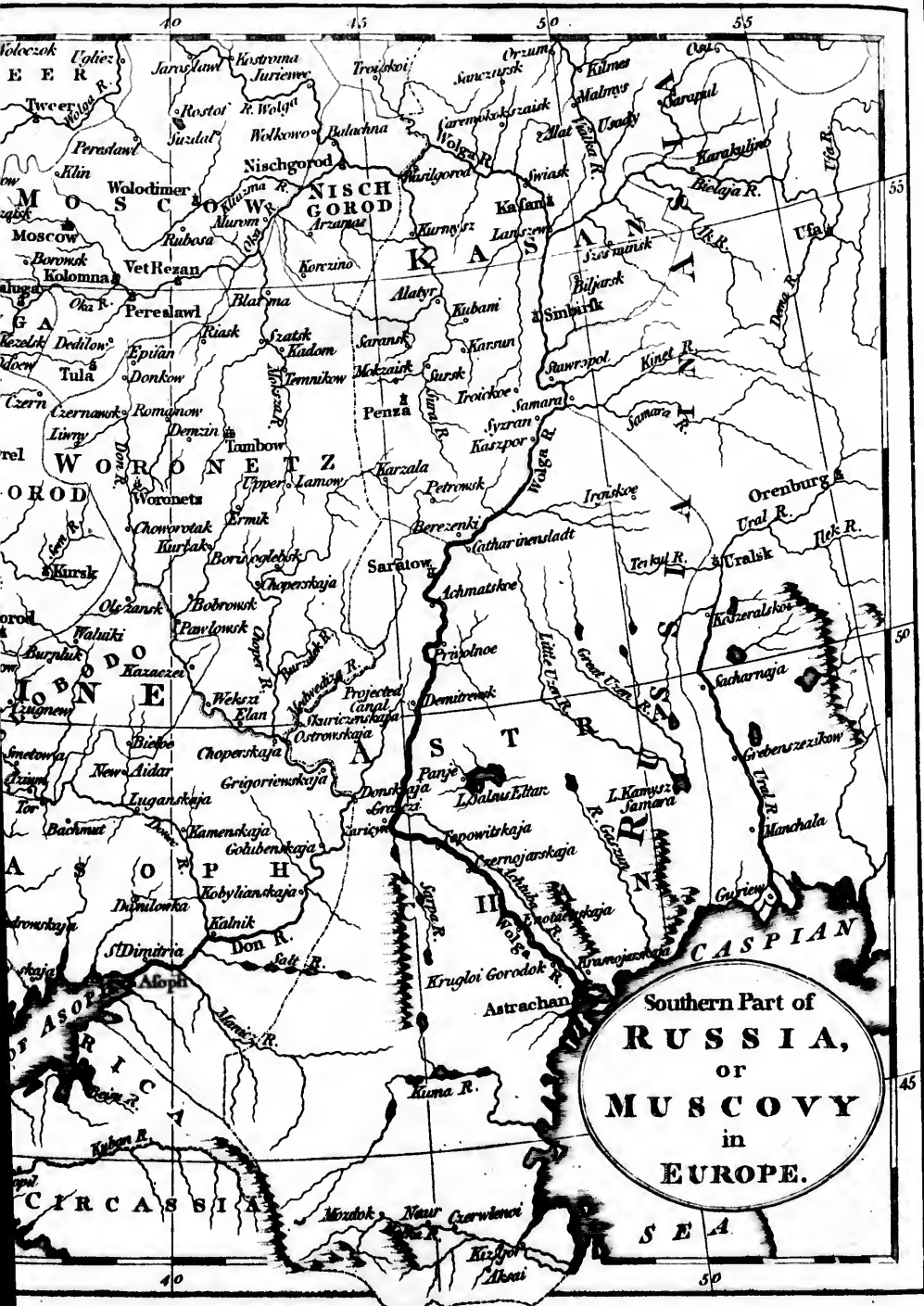
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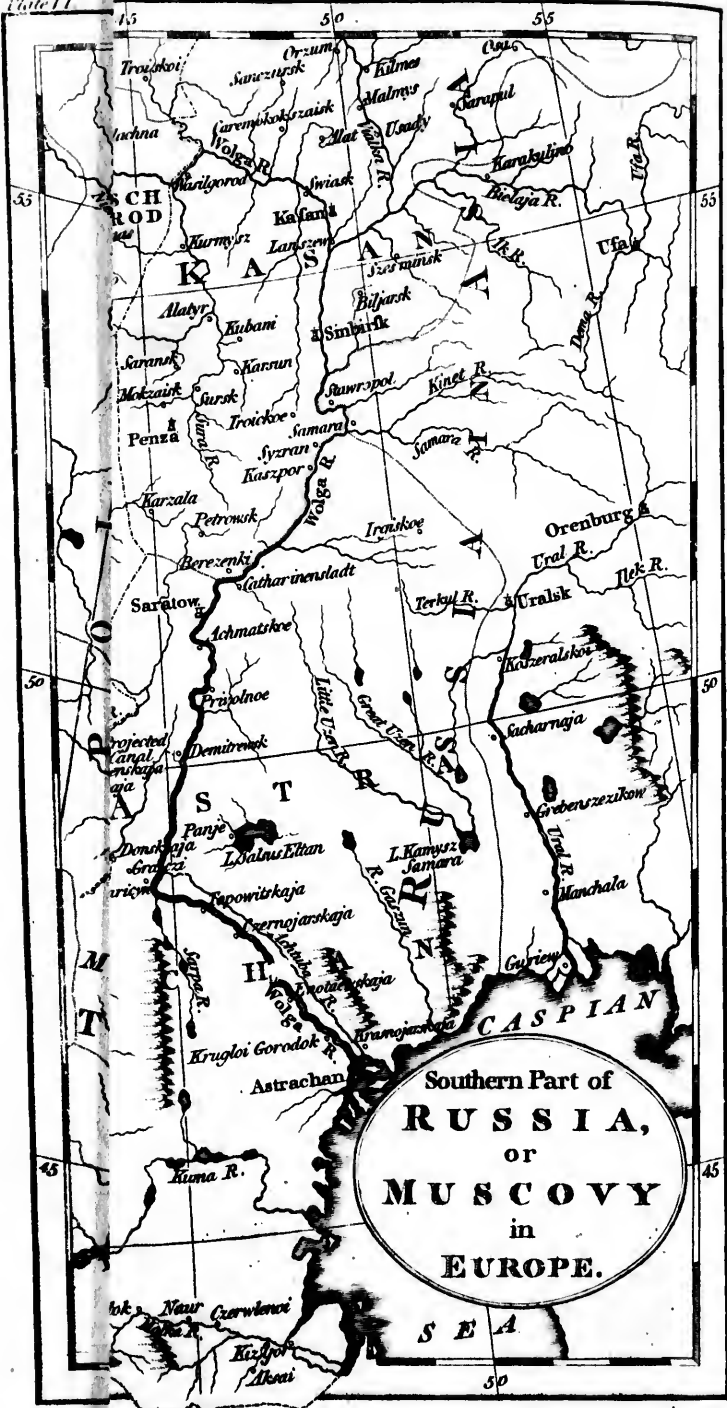
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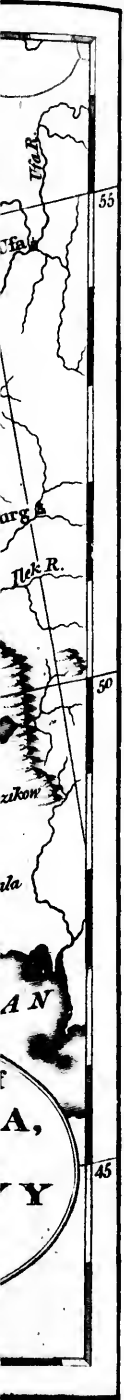


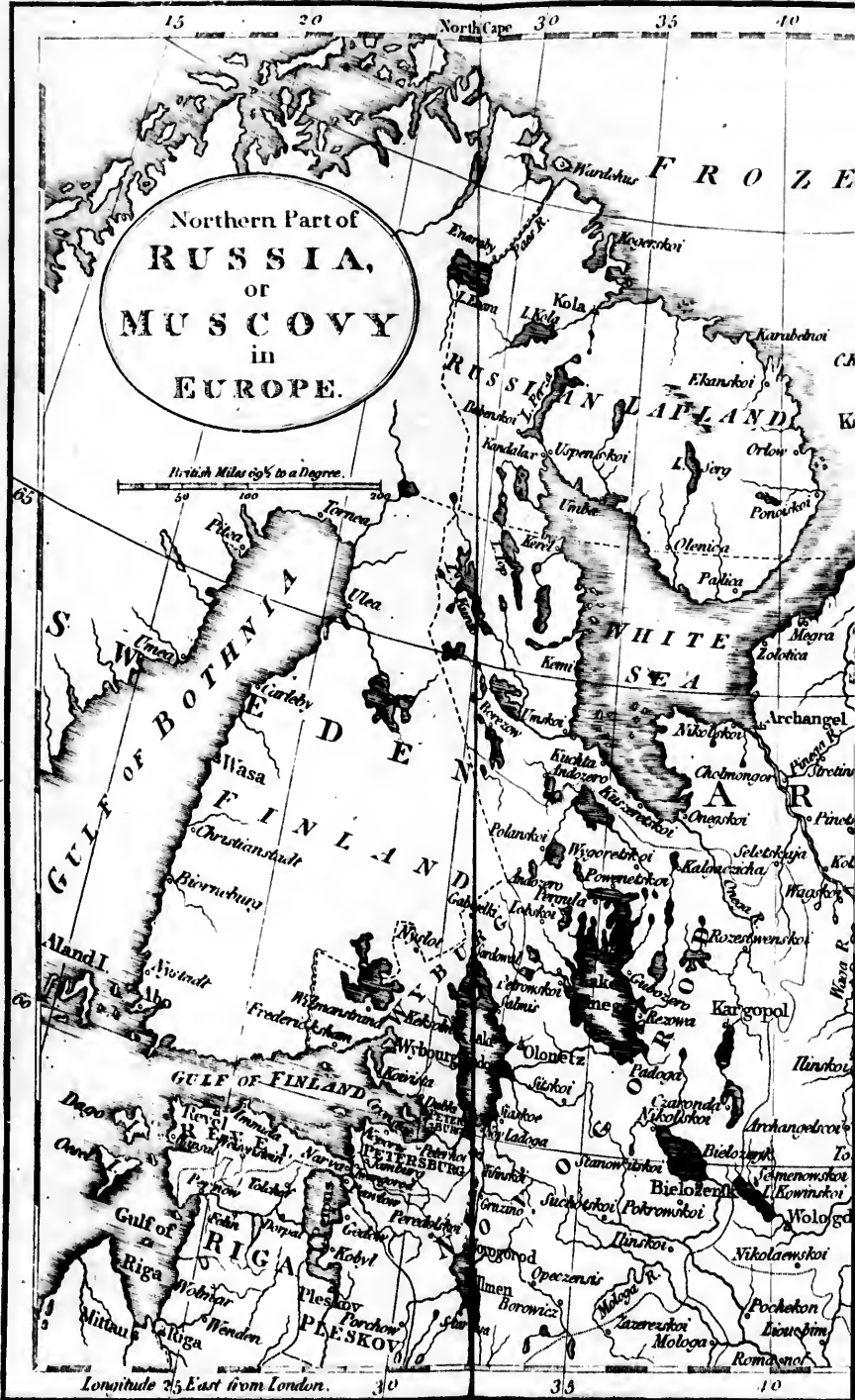


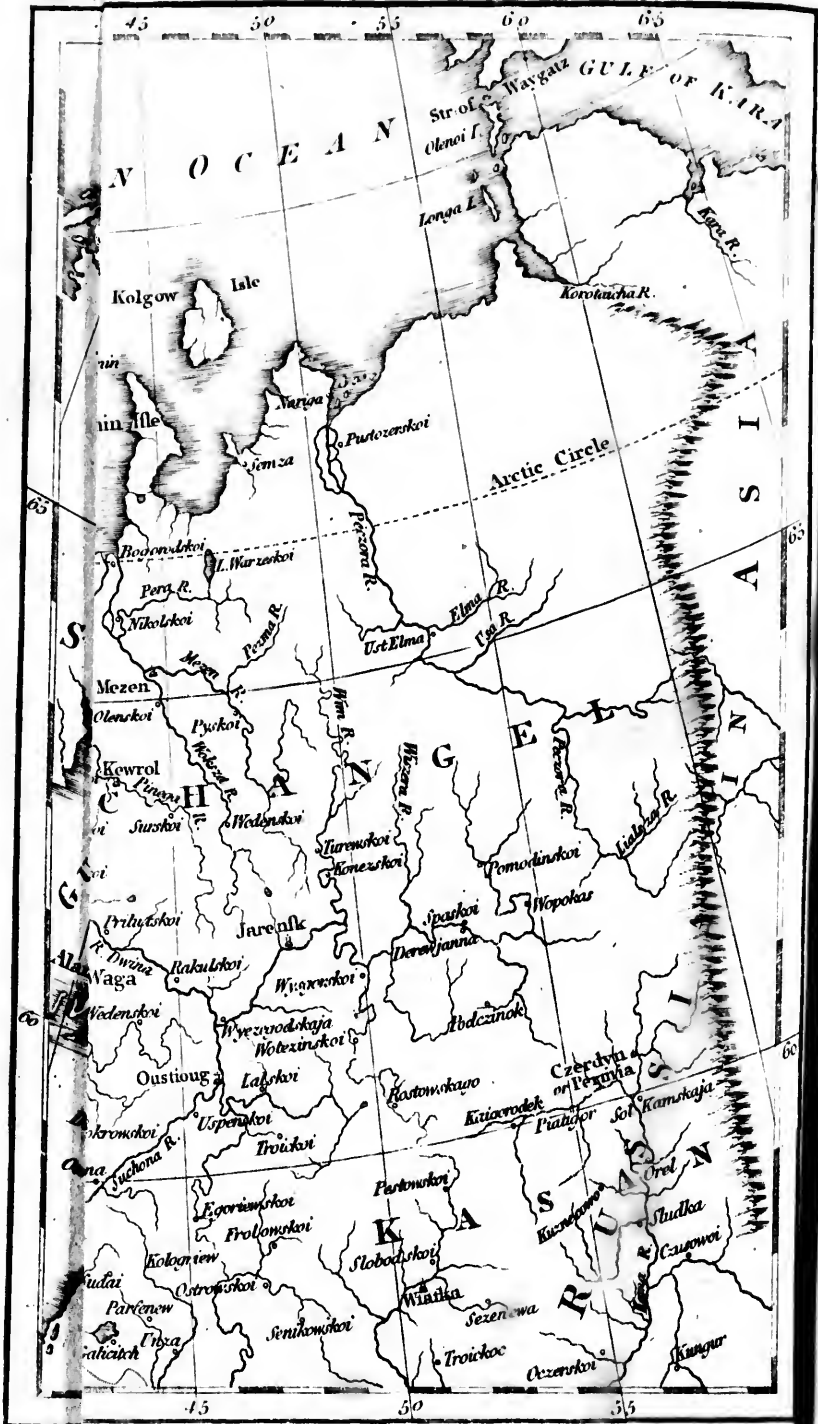
Southern Part of
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RUSSIA IN EUROPE.

SITUATION AND EXTENT OF RUSSIA IN EUROPE.

Miles.	Degrees.
Length 1960 } between	{ 44 and 72 North latitude.
Breadth 1850 }	{ 21 and 65 East longitude.

Russia in Europe contains 1,220,000 square miles, with 25 inhabitants to each.

SITUATION AND EXTENT OF THE WHOLE RUSSIAN EMPIRE.

Miles.	Degrees.
Length 6750 } between	{ 21 and 190 E. or 170 W. longitude.
Breadth 2320 }	{ 44 and 78 North latitude.

The whole Russian empire contains 4,900,000 square miles, with less than 7 inhabitants to each.

NAME.] RUSSIA derives its name from the *Russi* or *Rossi*, a Slavonic tribe, who were the first known possessors of the country. It has very generally, however improperly, been denominated Muscovy, from Moscow, the capital, which takes its name from the river Moskva, on which it is situate.

BOUNDARIES, DIVISIONS.] Russia in Europe is bounded on the north by the Frozen Ocean; on the east by the river Cara, the Uralian mountains, and the Volga; on the south by the Black Sea and Turkey; and on the west by Prussia, the Baltic Sea, and Sweden.

The whole Russian empire is divided into 50 governments.

GOVERNMENTS.	CHIEF TOWNS.
Archangel - - -	Archangel { N. lat. 64. 34. E. lon. 38. 55.
Bratzlau - - -	Bratzlau.
Caucasia - - -	Astracan { N. lat. 46. 21. E. lon. 48. 2.
Courland - - -	Mittau { N. lat. 56. 40. E. lon. 23. 50.
Ekaterinoslav - - -	{ Cherson { N. lat. 46. 34. E. lon. 32. 30. Ekaterinoslav.
Irkutsk - - -	{ Irkutsk { N. lat. 62. 1. E. lon. 129. 43. Ochotsk.
Kaluga - - -	Kaluga.
Kagan - - -	Kazan.
Kharkof - - -	Kharkof.
Kief - - -	Kief.
Kolhyvane - - -	Tomsk.
Kostroma - - -	Kostroma.
Kursk - - -	Kursk.
Mohilef - - -	Mokilef.
Minsk - - -	Minski.
Moscow - - -	Moscow { N. lat. 55. 45. E. lon. 37. 46.
Nishnei Novgorod - - -	Nishnei Novgorod.



GOVERNMENTS.	CHIEF TOWNS.
Novgorod - - - -	Novgorod.
Novgorod Sieversk - - - -	Novgorod Sieversk.
Olonetz - - - -	Olonetz.
Orel - - - -	Orel.
Pensa - - - -	Pensa.
Perm - - - -	Perm.
Petersburg - - - -	St. Petersburg { N. lat. 59. 56. E. lon. 30. 19.
Podolia - - - -	Kaminieck.
Polotzk - - - -	Polotzk.
Pscove - - - -	Pscove.
Revel - - - -	Revel.
Riazan - - - -	Riazan.
Riga - - - -	Riga { N. lat. 56. 56. E. lon. 23. 58.
Saratof - - - -	Saratof.
Simbirsk - - - -	Simbirsk.
Slonim - - - -	Slonim.
Smolensk - - - -	Smolensk.
Tambof - - - -	Tambof.
Taurida - - - -	Caffa.
Tobolsk - - - -	Tobolsk { N. lat. 58. 12. E. lon. 68. 25.
Tschernigof - - - -	Tschernigof.
Tula - - - -	Tula.
Tver - - - -	Tver.
Ufa - - - -	{ Ufa. Orenburg { N. lat. 51. 46. E. lon. 55. 5.
Viætka - - - -	Viætka.
Vilna - - - -	Vilna.
Vladimir - - - -	Vladimir.
Volhynia - - - -	Lucko.
Vologda - - - -	Vologda.
Voronetsch - - - -	Voronetsch.
Vorsnesensk - - - -	Vorsnesensk.
Vyborg - - - -	Vyborg.
Yaroslaf - - - -	Yaroslaf.

MOUNTAINS, LAKES, RIVERS, CANALS.] Russia is in general a plain country, but between Petersburg and Moscow are the high grounds called the Valdaj Mountains, though the highest is only 400 yards above the level of Petersburg, or the sea. Between the lakes Ladoga and Onega is the chain of Olonetz, which runs in a direction almost due north for a great extent. The vast Uralian chain, which divides European from Asiatic Russia, extends from about the 50th to nearly the 67th degree of N. lat. or more than 1000 English miles. The Russians call this range *Lennoipoljas*, the Girdle of the Earth. *Ural* also is a Tartarian word signifying a belt or girdle. These mountains are supposed to be the *Montes Hyperboræ*, or *Riphæi*, of the ancients.

The principal lakes in European Russia are the Onega, in the government of Olonetz, about 150 miles in length by 30 in breadth; the lake Ladoga in the government of Vyborg, situate between the lake Onega and the Gulf of Finland; 180 miles in length by 70 in breadth, being one of the largest lakes in Europe; the Peypus, which divides the governments of Petersburg and Riga, about 60 miles in length and 30 in

breadth; the Ilmen, on which stands the city of Novgorod; and the Bietozersk, or White Lake, so called from its bottom being of white clay. The most considerable rivers are the Volga, or Wolga, running east and south, which, after traversing the greatest part of Russia, and winding a course of 3000 English miles, falls into the Caspian Sea. It is remarkable, that in all this long course there is not a single cataract to interrupt the navigation. As it approaches to its mouth it divides itself into a greater number of arms than any known river in the world, and discharges itself into the Caspian Sea by more than 70 mouths. By means of this noble river, the city of Moscow maintains a communication, not only with all the southern parts of Russia, but even with Persia, Georgia, Tartary, and other countries bordering on the Caspian Sea. The Don, or Tanais, divides the most eastern part of Russia from Asia, and, in its course towards the east, approaches so near the Volga, that the czar Peter I. had undertaken to form a communication between them by means of a canal: this grand project, however, was defeated by the irruption of the Tartars. This river, exclusive of its turnings and windings, discharges itself into the Palus Mæotis, or sea of Asoph, about four hundred miles from its rise. The Borysthenes, or Dnieper, which is likewise one of the largest rivers in Europe, runs through Lithuania, the country of the Zaporog Cossacs, and that of the Nagaisch Tartars, and falls into the Euxine, or Black Sea, at Kinburn, near Oczakow: it has thirteen cataracts within a small distance. To these may be added the Duna, or Dvina, which empties itself at Riga into the Baltic; the Dwina, which has its source near Ustiaga, and, dividing itself into two branches near Archangel, there falls into the White Sea; and the Neva, which issues from the lake Ladoga, and falls into the Gulf of Finland below Petersburg.

Though the plan of Peter I. to unite the Volga and the Don by a canal, failed in the execution, a communication between Astracan and Petersburg is effected by the canal of Vishnei Voloshok, which unites the Twertza and the Shlina. The canal of Ladoga, which runs along the edge of that lake, joins the Voskof to the Neva, extending the length of 67 miles, and communicating with the canal of Vishnei Voloshok. Another canal is cut from Moscow to the river Don.

METALS, MINERALS.] The principal mines of the Russian empire are in Siberia, but there are some likewise in the European part, in the mountains of Olonetz, where a gold mine was discovered in 1739; but it yielded but 57 pounds of gold in the year, scarcely repaying the labour of working it.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AGRICULTURE.] The severity of the climate, in Russia properly so called, is very great. Dr. John Glen King, who resided eleven years in Russia, observes, that the cold in St. Petersburg, by Fahrenheit's scale, is, during the months of December, January, and February, usually from 8 to 15 or 20 degrees below 0; that is, from 40 to 52 degrees below the freezing point; though commonly, in the course of the winter, it is for a week or ten days some degrees lower. The same writer remarks, that it is very difficult for an inhabitant of our temperate climate to have any idea of a cold so great. It is such, that, when a person walks out in that severe weather, the cold makes the eyes water, and that water, freezing, hangs in little icicles on the eyelashes. As the common peasants usually wear their beards, icicles are frequently seen hanging to their chins like a solid lump of ice. In some very severe winters, sparrows, though a hardy species of birds, have been seen quite numbed by the intense cold, and unable to fly: and drivers, when sitting on their loaded carriages, have sometimes been

found frozen to death in that posture. When the thermometer has stood at 25 degrees below 0, boiling water thrown up into the air by an engine, so as to spread, has fallen down perfectly dry, formed into ice. A pint-bottle of common water was found by Dr. King frozen into a solid piece of ice in an hour and a quarter. A bottle of strong ale has also been frozen in an hour and a half; but in this substance there was about a tea-cup-full in the middle unfrozen, which was as strong and inflammable as brandy or spirits of wine. But, notwithstanding the severity of the cold in Russia, the inhabitants have such various means and provisions to guard against it, that they suffer much less from it than might be expected. The houses of persons in tolerable circumstances are so well protected, both without doors and within, that they are seldom heard to complain of cold. The method of warming the houses in Russia, is by an oven constructed with several flues; and they can regulate the warmth in their apartments by a thermometer with great exactness, opening or shutting the flues to increase or diminish the heat. When the Russians go out, they are clothed so warmly, that they almost bid defiance to frost and snow; and it is observable that the wind is seldom violent in the winter; but when there is much wind, the cold is exceedingly piercing.

One advantage which the Russians derive from the severity of their climate, is the preserving of provisions by the frost. Good housewives, as soon as the frost sets in for the winter, about the end of October, kill their poultry, and keep them in tubs packed up with a layer of snow between them, and then take them out for use as occasion requires: by which means they save the nourishment of the animal for several months. Veal frozen at Archangel, and brought to Petersburg, is esteemed the finest they have; nor can it be distinguished from what is fresh killed, being equally juicy. The markets in Petersburg are by this means supplied in winter with all manner of provisions, at a cheaper rate than would otherwise be possible; and it is not a little curious to see the vast stacks of whole hogs, sheep, fish, and other animals, which are piled up in the markets for sale. The method of thawing frozen provisions in Russia is by immersing them in cold water; for when the operation of thawing them is effected by heat, it seems to occasion a violent fermentation, and almost a sudden putrefaction; but when produced by cold water, the ice seems to be attracted out of the body, and forms a transparent incrustation round it. If a cabbage, which is thoroughly frozen, be thawed by cold water, it is as fresh as if just gathered out of the garden; but if it be thawed by fire or hot water, it becomes so rancid and strong that it cannot be eaten.

The quickness of vegetation in Russia is nearly the same as has been described in Sweden and Denmark. 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, indeed, produces a vast number of mushrooms for their subsistence. Peter the Great, and his successors down to the present time, have been at incredible pains to introduce agriculture into their dominions; and though the soil is not everywhere proper for corn, yet its vast fertility in some provinces may make grain as common in Russia as it is in the southern countries of Europe. The easy communication by means of rivers, which the inland parts of that empire have with each other, facilitates the conveyance of those products of the earth which abound in one province, to another which may be deficient in them.

VEGETABLE PRODUCTIONS, ANIMALS.] Russia contains numerous and extensive forests of pine, fir, larch, mountain-ash, &c. Wheat, oats, bar-

ley, rye, flax, hemp, and a variety of other vegetables, and fruits of different kinds, are produced in Russia, especially in the southern provinces. The animals of the northern part of Russia do not greatly differ from those of Denmark and Sweden, to the account of which we refer the reader. The lynx, famous for its piercing eye, is a native of this empire; it makes prey of every creature it can master, and is said to be produced chiefly in the fir-tree forests. Hyænas, bears, wolves, foxes, and other creatures already described, afford their furs for clothing 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 beasts of burden known in many parts of Russia. The 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.

We know of few or no birds in Russia that have not been already described. The same may be said of fishes, except that the Russians are better provided than their neighbours with sturgeon, cod, salmon, and beluga. The latter resembles a sturgeon, and is often called the large sturgeon; it is from twelve to fifteen feet in length, and weighs from 9 to 16 and 18 hundred-weight; its flesh is white and delicious. Of the roe of the sturgeon and the beluga the Russians make the famous caviare, so much esteemed for its richness and flavour.

CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] Among the natural curiosities of Russia, the thirteen cataracts of the Dnieper may be enumerated, as also may other cataracts in the government of Olonetz. The prodigious rocks of ice, of several miles in extent and surprising height, which float in the ocean to the north of Russia, may likewise be reckoned among the natural curiosities of this country; as among the artificial may be commemorated the palace of ice which the empress Anne caused to be built on the bank of the Neva in 1740. This edifice, constructed of huge quadrats of ice hewn in the manner of freestone, was 52 feet in length, 16 in breadth, and 20 in height; the walls were three feet thick. In the several apartments were tables, chairs, beds, and all kinds of household furniture, of ice. In front of the palace, besides pyramids and statues, stood six cannons, carrying balls of six pounds weight, and two mortars of ice. From one of the former, as a trial, an iron ball, with only a quarter of a pound of powder, was fired off: the ball went through a two-inch board at sixty paces from the mouth of the cannon, and the piece of ice artillery, with its carriage, remained uninjured by the explosion. The illumination of the ice-palace at night had an astonishingly grand effect.

In the cabinet of natural history at Petersburg, is a rhinoceros, dug up on the banks of the river Valui, with his skin, and the hair upon it, perfect.

The Russians are extremely fond of the ringing of bells, which are always to be heard tinkling in every quarter. The great bell of Moscow weighs, according to Mr. Coxe, "432,000 pounds, and exceeds in bigness every bell in the known world. Its size is so enormous," says that writer, "that I could scarcely have given credit to the account of its magnitude, if I had not examined it myself, and ascertained its dimensions with great exactness. Its height is nineteen feet, its circumference at the bottom twenty-one yards eleven inches, its greatest thickness twenty-three inches." It 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 broken out of it; so that it lately lay in a manner useless. Mr. Bruce in his Memoirs mentions a bell at Moscow, founded in the reign

of the czar Boris, nineteen feet high, twenty-three in diameter, and two in thickness, and weighing 336,000 pounds.

POPULATION.] The population of Russia has been variously represented by different writers. Some years since it was generally estimated at about twenty millions. Mr. Bötticher, a German writer, in his statistical tables, gives the population of the European part at 20,882,986, and that of the whole empire at 25 millions. Mr. Tooke, in his View of the Russian Empire, states, that by the lists of the revision of the empire, drawn up in 1783, as he assures us, with the greatest care and accuracy of examination, there were in the 41 governments of which Russia then consisted, male inhabitants 12,838,529.

Supposing an equal number of females, the amount will be 25,677,000
 Allowing for the Cossacs and unnumbered tribes and classes 1,720,000

We shall have for the whole population in 1783	-	27,397,000
To this number he adds, for the increase of inhabitants in		
12 years,	-	3,000,000
And for the new acquisitions since 1783, or the nine new		
governments	-	5,755,000

Consequently the present population of the Russian empire
 will be at least - - - - - 36,152,000

He afterwards deduces, from a table of the births, deaths, and marriages in the eparchies of the Greek church throughout the Russian empire, in the year 1799, faithfully extracted from the general returns received by the synod, that the whole number of inhabitants must have then amounted, on a moderate estimate, to upwards of *forty millions*.

Professor Storch, in his "Historico-statistical Picture of the Russian Empire at the End of the Eighteenth Century," likewise rates the population of the whole of the Russian dominions at 36 millions of souls.

NATIONAL CHARACTER, MANNERS, CUSTOMS.] The Russians, properly so called, are in general a personable people, hardy, vigorous, and patient of labour, especially in the field, to an incredible degree. Their complexions differ little from those of the English or Scots; but the women think that an addition of red heightens their beauty, and paint is said to be as necessary an article in the dress of a Russian lady as linen. Their eye-sight seems to be defective, occasioned, probably, by the snow, which for the greater part of the year is continually present to their eyes. Their officers and soldiers always possessed a large share of passive valour; and in several of the late wars have shown themselves as active as any troops in Europe. They are implicitly submissive to discipline, let it be ever so severe; endure extreme hardships with great patience; and can content themselves with very hard fare.

Before the days of Peter the Great, the Russians were in general barbarous, ignorant, mean, and much addicted to drunkenness. Not only the common people, but many of the boyars, or nobles, lived in a continual state of idleness and intoxication; and the most complete objects of misery and barbarity appeared in the streets, while the court of Moscow was the most splendid of any upon the globe. The czar and the grandees dressed after the most superb Asiatic manner; and their magnificence was astonishing. 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. Peter saw the bulk of his subjects, at his accession to the throne, little better than beasts of burden, destined 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 even obliged the laity to cut off their beards. At present a French or English gentleman may live as comfortably and sociably in Russia as in most other parts of Europe. Their polite assemblies, since the accession of the late empress, have been put under proper regulations; and few of the ancient usages remain. It is, however, to be observed, that, notwithstanding the severities of Peter and the prudence of succeeding governments, drunkenness still continues among all ranks; nor are even priests or ladies ashamed of it on holidays.

The Russians were formerly noted for so strong an attachment to their native soil, that they seldom visited foreign countries. This, however, was only the consequence of their pride and ignorance; for Russian nobility, besides those who are in a public character, are now found at every court in Europe. Her late imperial majesty interested herself in the education of young men of quality, in the knowledge of the world, and foreign services, particularly that of the British fleet.

It is said that the Russian ladies were formerly as submissive to their husbands in their families as the latter are to their superiors in the field; and that they thought themselves ill treated if they were not often reminded of their duty by the discipline of a whip, manufactured by themselves, which they presented to their husbands on the day of their marriage. Their nuptial ceremonies are peculiar to themselves; and formerly consisted of some very whimsical rites, many of which are now disused. When the parents have agreed upon a match, though the parties perhaps have never seen each other, the bride is critically examined by a certain number of females, who are to correct, if possible, any defect 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 her head, wishing she may prove as fruitful as that plant. She is then led home, with abundance of coarse and indeed indecent ceremonies, which are now wearing off even amongst the lower 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.

The nobility, and almost all the people of quality, dress after the German fashion; and the ladies, even in the remotest parts of the country, appear more modishly attired than would easily be imagined. The peasants, burghers, and most of the mercantile class, still adhere to the national dress. They let their beards grow, which are commonly long and bushy; their hair is cut and combed. They wear a short shirt without any sort of collar, and loose trousers, over which the shirt usually hangs, and is girt round the waist with a string. Over the shirt they wear a short breast-cloth, or vest, furnished with buttons, and a coat girt about with a sash that passes twice round the body. The covering for the head is either a flat fur cap, with a narrow brim, or a cap which forms a bag of a span in depth, in which they keep their handkerchief on their head. Leg-wrappers are worn instead of stockings, especially by the lower class of people; these are tied about their feet and legs with packthread, so as to make them look very thick. The women wear a *saraphan*, or vest without sleeves, which is close about the neck, and sits tight to the body down to the hips: from the hips it spreads without gathers, and reaches down to the shoes. On the facing it is garnished with a thick row of little buttons, from the top to the very bottom: it is, however, girt with a sash, to which the bunch of keys

is suspended. The girls in general wear their hair uncovered more than the women: the former plait it in three plaits, with ribbons and beads tied to the points of them. In some provinces they wear a band across the forehead bedizened with pearls and beads of various colours; in others they wear caps in the form of an upright crescent. In the vicinity of Moscow, and in several of the neighbouring governments, the cap has a stiff flap before, like a jockey-cap, and is decorated with pearls and various coloured stones.

In great towns the funeral obsequies of people of rank are conducted in much the same manner as in other countries of Europe; but the lower classes still retain some peculiar ceremonies. After the dead body is dressed, a priest is hired to pray for the soul, to purify the corpse with incense, and to sprinkle it with holy water while it remains above ground, which, among the better sort, it generally does for eight or ten days. When the body is carried to the grave, which is done with many gesticulations of sorrow, the priest produces a ticket, signed by their bishop and another clergyman, as the deceased's passport to heaven. This is put into the coffin, between the fingers of the corpse; after which the company return to the deceased's house, where they drown their sorrow in intoxication, which lasts, among the better sort, with a few intervals, forty days. During that time a priest every day recites 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.

At the new year is usually held a feast of the dead, on which every one visits the grave of his relations, lays some victuals upon it, and hears mass, in payment for which the priest gets the victuals. Profligates, such as have come to a miserable end, and all who have died without the sacrament were formerly thrown, without inhumation, into a hut for that purpose, and on the Thursday before Whitsuntide were buried by the clergy, who said masses for their souls, attended by the inhabitants of the place. At present greater indulgence is shown to these poor wretches.

CITIES, CHIEF TOWNS, EDIFICES.] Petersburg, now the capital of Russia, is situate on both sides of the river Neva, between the lake of Ladoga and the bottom of the Gulf of Finland. In the year 1703, this city consisted of a few small fishing huts, on a spot so waterish and swampy, that the ground was formed into nine islands, by which its principal quarters are still divided. Without entering into too minute a 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 is to be found in the most celebrated cities in Europe.

As Petersburg is the emporium of Russia, the number of foreign ships trading to it in the summer-time is extremely great. In winter 3000 one-horse sledges are employed for passengers in the streets. It is supposed that there are 170,000 inhabitants in this city; and it is ornamented with thirty-five great churches; for in it almost every sect of the Christian religion is tolerated. It also contains five palaces, some of which are superb, particularly that which is called the New Summer-Palace, near the Triumphal Port, which is an elegant piece of architecture. There is likewise a foundling-hospital, assistant to the noble one at Moscow, where the mother may come to be delivered privately; after

which she leaves the child to the state, as a parent more capable of promoting its welfare.

This magnificent city is defended on the side next the sea by the fortress of Cronstadt, which, considering the difficulty and danger of navigating a large naval force through the Gulf of Finland, is sufficient to guard it on that side from the attempts of any enemy. Petersburg is the capital of the province of Ingria, one of Peter the Great's conquests from the Swedes. In the neighbourhood of this city are numerous country-houses and gardens.

The city of Moscow, or Moskoa, formerly the capital of the great empire, stands on the river from which it takes its name. 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 ancient magnificence of this city would be incredible, were it not attested by the most unquestionable authors: but we are to make great allowances for the uncultivated state of the adjacent provinces, which might have made it appear with a greater lustre in a traveller's eyes. Busching speaks of it as the largest city in Europe; but that can be only meant as to the ground it stands on, computed to be sixteen miles in circumference. It is generally admitted, that Moscow contains 1600 churches and convents, and forty-three palaces or squares. The merchants' exchange, according to Busching, contains about 6000 fine shops, which display a vast parade of commerce, especially to and from China. No city exhibits a greater contrast than Moscow, 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 Kremlin, or grand imperial palace, is mentioned as one of the most superb structures in the world: it stands 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, the cathedral, five convents, four parish-churches, the arsenal, with the public colleges, and other offices. All the churches in the Kremlin have beautiful spires, most of them gilt or covered with silver; the architecture is in the Gothic taste; but the insides of the churches are richly ornamented; and the pictures of the saints are decorated with gold, silver, and precious stones. The cathedral has nine towers, covered with copper, double-gilt, and contains a silver branch with forty-eight lights, said to weigh 2500 pounds.

The foundling-hospital at Moscow is an excellent institution. It was founded by the late empress, and is supported by voluntary contributions, legacies, and other charitable endowments. It is an immense pile of building, of a quadrangular shape, and will contain 8000 foundlings. They are taken great care of, and at the age of fourteen have the liberty of choosing any trade; for which purpose there are different species of manufactures established in the hospital.

Moscow, when lord Carlisle was the English ambassador there, in the reign of Charles II., was twelve miles in compass, and the number of houses was computed at 40,000. According to Voltaire, when he wrote, it was twenty miles in circumference, and its inhabitants amounted to 500,000. Mr. Coxe confirms the account of the circumference of this city, but thinks the estimate of its population much exaggerated: according to an account which was given to him by an English gentleman, which he received from a lieutenant of the police, and which he says may be relied on, Moscow contains within the ramparts 250,000 souls,

and in the adjacent villages 50,000. Two French travellers, who were there in 1792, say its population consists of from 300,000 to 328,000 souls, in summer; but in winter is increased to nearly 400,000.

Archangel, situate at the mouth of the river Dwina, on the White Sea, was, before the time of Peter the Great, the only port by which Russia communicated with the rest of Europe. It 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 since the building of Petersburg, it still exports a considerable quantity of merchandisc.

Riga, a strong town, formerly the capital of Livonia, is, next to Petersburg, the most commercial place in the Russian empire. It contains about 9,000 inhabitants within the fortifications, and in the suburbs 15,000. There is a floating wooden bridge over the Dwina 2600 feet long, and 40 broad, which, in winter, when the ice sets in, is removed, and in summer replaced.

MANUFACTURES, COMMERCE.] Several manufactures, among others those of isinglass, oil, and soap, are conducted in Russia with considerable activity and success. There are also manufactures of linen, silk, paper, and tobacco. Coarse cloths, carpets, and hats, are likewise made in Russia; and the leather which takes its name from the country is a kind of staple commodity.

According to the best information, the annual exports of Russia at present amount to about 2,400,000*l.* and her imports do not exceed 1,600,000*l.*; so that the balance of trade is yearly 800,000*l.* sterling in her favour*.

The productions and exports of Russia, 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, isinglass, linseed-oil, pot-ash, soap, feathers, train-oil, hogs' bristles, musk, rhubarb, and other drugs, timber, and also raw silk from China and Persia. The Ukraine may be called the granary of the empire: the best corn, hemp, flax, honey, and wax, come from this fertile province, and 10,000 head of horned cattle are annually sent from its pastures into Silesia and Saxony.

Russia carries on a commerce over land, by caravans, to China, chiefly in furs: and they bring back from thence tea, silk, cotton, gold, &c. To Bochary, near the river Oxus in Tartary, Russia sends her own merchandise, in return for Indian silks, curled lamb-skins, and ready money; and also to the annual fair at Samareand: she likewise trades to Persia by Astracan, across the Caspian Sea, for raw and wrought silk. The late empress, in 1784, issued an edict, permitting all foreigners to carry on a free trade by sea and land with the several countries bordering on the Euxine, which have been lately annexed to the empire. The same privileges, religious and civil, are allowed to them in the ports of Cherson, Sebastopolis, and Theodosia (formerly Caffa), in the province of Taurida, as in Petersburg.

GOVERNMENT.] The sovereign of the Russian empire is absolute and despotic in the fullest extent of those terms, and master of the lives and properties of all his subjects, who, though they are of the first nobility, or have been highly instrumental in promoting the welfare of the state, may, notwithstanding, for the most trifling offence, or even for no offence at all, be seized upon and sent to Siberia, or made to drudge for

* Coxe, vol. ii. p. 247.

life upon the public works, and have all their goods confiscated, whenever the sovereign or his ministers shall think proper. Persons of any rank may be banished into Siberia, for the slightest political intrigue; and their possessions being confiscated, a whole family may at once be ruined by the insinuations of an artful courtier.

LAWs.] The system of civil laws established in Russia is very imperfect, and in many instances barbarous and unjust; being an assemblage of laws and regulations drawn from most of the states of Europe, ill digested, and in many respects not at all adapted to the genius of the Russian nation. But the late empress made some attempts to reform the laws, and put them upon a better footing. The courts of justice were in general very corrupt, and those by whom it was administered extremely ignorant; but the judicious regulations of Catharine II. fixed a certain salary to the office of judge, which before depended on the contributions of the unhappy clients; and thus the poor were without hope or remedy.

The Russians are remarkable for the severity and variety of their punishments, which are both inflicted and endured with a wonderful insensibility. Peter the Great used to suspend the robbers upon the Volga, and other parts of his dominions, by iron hooks fixed to their ribs, on gibbets, where they writhed themselves to death, hundreds at a time. The single and double knout have been inflicted upon ladies as well as men of quality. Both of them are excruciating: but in the double knout the hands are bound behind the prisoner's back, and the cord being fixed to a pulley, lifts him from the ground, with the dislocation of both his shoulders; and then his back is in a manner scarified by the executioner with a hard thong cut from a wild ass's skin. This punishment has been so often fatal, that a surgeon generally attends the patient to pronounce the moment it should cease. It is not always the number of the strokes, but the method of applying them, which occasions the death of a criminal; for the executioner can kill him in three or four strokes, by striking him upon the ribs; though persons are sometimes recovered, in a few weeks, who have received three hundred strokes moderately inflicted. The boring and cutting out of the tongue are likewise practised in Russia; and even the empress Elizabeth, though she prohibited capital punishments, was forced to give way to the supposed necessity of those tortures.

According to the strict letter of the law, there are no capital punishments in Russia, except in the case of high treason: but there is much less humanity in this than has been supposed. For there are many felons who expire under the knout; and others die of fatigue in their journeys to Siberia, and from the hardships they suffer in the mines; so that there is reason to believe that no fewer criminals suffer death in Russia than in those countries where capital punishments are authorised by the laws.

Felons, after receiving the knout, and having their cheeks and forehead marked, are sometimes sentenced for life to the public works at Cronstadt, Vishnei-Volotchok, and other places: but the common practice is to send them into Siberia, where they are condemned for life to the mines at Nershink. There are, upon an average, from 1600 to 2000 convicts at these mines. The greatest part are confined in barracks, excepting those who are married: the latter being permitted to build huts near the mines, for themselves and families. The prohibition of the torture does honour to the late empress Catharine II.

REVENUE.] The revenue of Russia arises from the capitation tax, or

head-money, the tax on the capital of merchants, the produce of the imperial domains, the customs, the stamp-duties, the tax on kabaks or public-houses, the salt-trade, the mines, the mint, and other taxes. It amounts, according to the latest and most authentic accounts to nearly 50 millions of rubles, or about ten millions sterling.

When this sum is considered relatively, that is, according to the high value of money in that empire, compared to its low value in Great Britain, it will be found that the national revenue of Russia far exceeds that of most other countries in Europe, and is amply sufficient, not only to answer all the expenses of government, but also to afford considerable sums for the benefit and embellishment of the empire, though the late empress remitted many taxes, and abolished several monopolies. With the further increase of commerce, it will naturally keep equal pace.

According to Bœtticher, however, Russia has a national debt of nearly nine millions sterling, for the greater part of which interest is paid at the rate of 8 per cent. The annual expenses of the state, according to the same author, amount only to 5,600,000*l*.

ARMY AND NAVY.] The army is generally calculated to amount to from 400 to 450,000 men: according to Busching, it amounted, in 1772, to above 600,000; and according to an estimate taken in 1784, it then amounted to 368,901. Mr. Tooke, in his View of the Russian Empire, estimates the whole military force of Russia at 600,000 men, of whom, he says, we may reckon at least 500,000 effective soldiers in actual service*.

The Russian armies are raised with little or no expense, and, while in their own country, subsist chiefly on provisions furnished them by the country people according to their internal valuation. The pay of a soldier scarcely amounts to thirty shillings yearly; in garrison he receives only five rubles yearly. The pay of a sailor and a gunner is a ruble a month, and they are found with provisions when on shore.

The Russian navy in the harbours of Cronstadt, Revel, and Archangel, in the year 1792, consisted of 50 ships of the line, of which 9 were of 110 guns, and the rest of 74 and 66; 27 frigates of 28, 32, and 38 guns; 50 galleys, 300 gun-boats, 16 fire-ships, and other smaller vessels; besides a fleet in the Black Sea, consisting of 17 ships of the line, and a still greater number of frigates, corvettes, &c. Twenty thousand sailors are kept in constant pay and service, either on board the ships or in the dock-yards. The harbour at Cronstadt, seven leagues from Petersburg, is defended on one side by a fort of four bastions, and on the other by a battery of 100 pieces of cannon. The canal and large basin will contain near 600 sail of ships.

ROYAL TITLE, NOBILITY, ORDERS OF KNIGHTHOOD.] The sovereign of Russia is called the *Czar*, or more properly *Tzar*, or if an empress *Tzarina*, a Slavonic word signifying king or sovereign. He takes the title in his ukases or royal decrees, and other public acts, of "Emperor and Autocrat of all the Russias." The term *autocrat* is a compound Greek word signifying *self-ruler* or *sole ruler*, and is employed to express the Russian word *samoderjetz*; but Mr. Tooke thinks that it does not come up to its meaning, which, perhaps, would be more truly ex-

* The French travellers before quoted remark on this head—"If we rely on the gazettes, we shall estimate the forces of the Russian empire at more than 500,000 men; and be led into no small error. The armies of that power have never exceeded 150,000 men in both cavalry and infantry. This is the greatest effort the empire can make. The irregular troops and regiments in garrison are not included in this estimate."

pressed by "uncontrollable ruler." The full title of the Russian monarchs is of considerable length, and enumerates a great number of the governments of Russia, and the countries subject to their sway.

The distinctions of rank form a considerable part of the Russian constitution. The ancient nobility of Russia were divided into knezes or knazes, boyars, and vaivods. The knezes were sovereigns upon their own estates, till these 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 late empresses introduced among their subjects the titles of counts and princes, and the other distinctions of nobility that are common to the rest of Europe.

The Russian orders of knighthood are six. The order of *St. Andrew* was instituted by Peter the Great in 1698, to animate his nobles and officers in his wars against the Turks. He chose *St. Andrew* for his patron, because by tradition he was the founder of Christianity in the country. The knights are persons of the first rank in the empire. The order of *St. Alexander Newski* was also instituted by Peter the Great, and confirmed by the empress Catharine I. in the year 1725. The order of *St. Catharine* was instituted by Peter the Great, in honour of his empress, for her assistance on the banks of the Pruth. The order of *St. George*, instituted by the empress Catharine II. in favour of the military officers in her service. The order of *St. Vlodymir* was instituted October 3d, 1782, by the late empress, in favour of those who serve in a civil capacity. The order of *St. Anne* of Holstein, in memory of Anne, daughter of Peter the Great, was introduced into Russia by Peter III.

[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: but the great article of faith by which that church has been so long separated from the Latin or Catholic church, is the doctrine that the Holy Spirit does not proceed from the Father and the Son, but from the Father only. 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 the soil and climate. They have many peculiar notions with regard to the sacraments. They oblige their bishops, but not their priests, to celibacy. Peter the Great showed his profound knowledge in government in nothing more than in the reformation of his church. He broke 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 their beards: that impolitic attempt was reserved for the emperor Peter III., and greatly contributed to his fatal catastrophe. Before his time, 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 a monk till he is turned of thirty; and no female a nun till she is fifty; and even then not without permission of their superiors.

The conquered provinces, as already observed, retain the exercise of

their own religion; but such is the extent of the Russian empire, that many of its subjects are Mahometans, 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. On the banks of the river Sarpa, is a flourishing colony of Moravian brethren, to which the founders have given the name of Sarepta; the beginning of the settlement was in 1765, with distinguished privileges from the imperial court.

LITERATURE.] The Russians have hitherto made but an inconsiderable figure in the republic of letters: but the great encouragement lately given by their sovereigns, in the institution of academies and other literary societies, has produced sufficient proofs that they are no way deficient in 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.

UNIVERSITIES.] 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; but they appear to have been neglected and suffered to fall to decay. The empress Catharine II. also founded a university at Petersburg, and invited some of the most learned foreigners in every faculty, who are provided with good salaries; and also a military academy, where the young nobility and officers' sons are taught the art of war. It ought also to be mentioned, to the honour of the same royal benefactress, that she founded a number of schools for the education of the lower classes of her subjects, throughout the best inhabited parts of the empire.

LANGUAGE.] The Russian language is an improved dialect of the Slavonian, which, with its characters, is still in use in the offices of religion. The Russian alphabet has thirty-six letters, though some make the number amount to forty-one; but of these several are only notes of accent in pronunciation. They have a great resemblance in form to the Greek characters. The language is copious, expressive, and requires great pliancy in the organs of utterance. The Pater Noster in Russian is as follows—*Otshe nash, cje esi na nebesech; da svyatitsya imya tvoje da priedet tzarstve tvoje; da boodet volya tvoja, yako no nebesa ee na zemle shleb nash nasooshnic dujd nam dnes; ee ostaveenam dolje nasha yakoje ee me ostavlyacem doljnekom nashim: ee ne vovede nas vo iskooshenie no oebave nas ot loocavago; yako tvoe est tzarstvo, ee seela, ee slava, vo vekov vekov. Amen.*

ANTIQUITIES.] Russia affords very few remains of antiquity: the catacombs or burying-places near Kiow, which are a kind of subterranean labyrinths of considerable extent; and some brass idols of the pagan ancestors of the Russians, occasionally found in tombs, containing likewise weapons and ornaments; are perhaps all that can deserve notice.

HISTORY.] 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 the princess of this country, called Olga, is said to have been baptised at Constantinople, and refused the hand of the Greek emperor, John Zimisces, in marriage. Photius, the famous Greek patriarch, sent priests to baptise 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. About this time John Basilides, or Ivan Vassillievitch, conquered the Tartars, and, among others, the duke of Great Novogorod, from whom he is said to have taken 300 cart-loads of gold and silver. His prosperous reign of forty years gave a new aspect to Russia.

His grandson, the famous John Basilowitz, or Vassillievitch, II., having cleared his country of the intruding Tartars, subdued the kingdoms of Kasan 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 Velike Knez, "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 (a word which signifies king, or emperor), was added to that of the Russian sovereigns. Upon the death of John Basilowitz, the Russian succession was filled by a set of weak cruel princes; and their territories were torn in pieces by civil wars. In 1597, Boris Godonow assassinated Demetrius, 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 Demetriuses started up, one after another.

These impostures prove the despicable state of ignorance in which the Russians were immersed. The 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 of Sigismund 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 from the ancient sovereigns of Russia, had been sent ambassador to Poland by Demetrius, one of the Russian tyrants, and there 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 Feodorowitz, of the house of Romanoff, 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, reigned in the right of Michael with great prudence and success. He defeated the attempts of the Poles to replace Uladislaus upon the throne, and likewise the claim of a brother of Gustavus Adolphus. The claims of the Swedes and Poles upon Russia occasioned a war between those two nations, which gave Michael a kind of breathing-time; and he made use of it for the benefit of his subjects. He reigned thirty-three years; and by his wisdom, and the mildness of his character, restored ease and tranquillity to his subjects.

Alexius succeeded his father Michael. 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-seignor, Mahomet IV., haughtily demanded some possessions from him in the Ukraine, his answer was, "that he scorned to submit to a Mahometan dog, and that his cimeter was as good as the grand-seignor's "sabre." He promoted agriculture; introduced into his empire arts and sciences, of which he was himself a lover; published a code of laws, some of which are still used in the administration of justice; and greatly improved his army by establishing discipline. This he effected chiefly by the aid of foreigners, most of whom were Scotch. He subdued a chief of the Don Cossacs, named Stenka 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 Kamma. Theodore succeeded his father Alexius in 1667. He reigned seven years; and having on his death-bed called his boyars around him, in the presence of his brother and sister, Ivan and Sophia, and of Peter, who was afterwards so celebrated, and who was his half-brother, he said to them, "Hear my last sentiments; they are dictated by my love for the state, and by my affection for my people. The bodily infirmities of Ivan necessarily must affect his mental faculties; he is incapable of ruling an empire like that of Russia; he cannot take it amiss if I recommend to you to set him aside, and let your approbation fall on Peter, who, to a robust constitution, joins great strength of mind, and marks of a superior understanding." But this wise destination extremely offended the princess Sophia, who was a woman of great ambition, and who, after the death of Theodore, found means to excite a violent 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 Ivan in his birth-right, 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 of her barbarous administration are shocking to humanity. At length, in 1682, the two princes, Ivan and Peter, were declared joint sovereigns, and their sister their associate 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 now was about 17 years of age, and asserted his right to the throne. Sophia and Ivan 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 curipus 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." This left Peter with no other competitor, in the year 1689, than the mild and easy Ivan; and upon

his death, which happened in 1696, Peter reigned alone, and cruelly provided for his own future security by the execution of above 3000 Strelitzes.

Peter, though he had been but very indifferently educated through the jealousy of his sister, associated himself with the Germans and Dutch; with the former for the sake of their manufactures, which he early introduced into his dominions; and with the latter for their skill in navigation, which he practised himself. His inclination for the arts was 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 insolence 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 Saardam, he completed himself in ship-building and navigation; and through 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, excepting 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 that from Charles XII. at Narva, stimulated him to new exertions. The battles he lost rendered him at length a conqueror, by adding experience to his courage; and the generous friendship he showed 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 Catharine, a young Lithuanian woman, who had been betrothed to a Swedish soldier; because, after a long co-habitation, he found her possessed of a soul formed to execute his plans and to assist his councils. Catharine 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 in 1709, with Charles XII., were not the chief glory of Peter's reign. He applied himself with equal assiduity to the cultivation of commerce, arts, and sciences; and made such acquisitions of dominion, 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, but more feared than beloved by his subjects.

Peter the Great was unfortunate in his eldest son, who in Russia is entitled the Czarowitz, 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, it is difficult to determine on the justice of the charge. It was undoubtedly his will that the young prince should be found guilty; and the very reading of the sentence appears to have been fatal to him. It is said, that, as soon as sentence of death was pronounced upon the prince, in which were the following words, "The divine, ecclesiastical, civil, and military law, condemns to death, without mercy, all those whose attempts against their father and their sovereign are manifest," he fell into the most violent convulsions, from which it was with great difficulty that he

regained a little interval of sense, during which he desired his father would come to see him; when he asked his pardon, and soon after died. According to other accounts, he was secretly executed in prison, and marshal Weyde was the person who beheaded him. After this event, in 1724, Peter ordered his wife Catharine to be crowned, with the same magnificent ceremonies as if she had been a Greek empress, and to be recognised as his successor; which she accordingly was, and mounted the Russian throne upon the decease of her husband. She died, after a glorious reign, in 1727, and was succeeded by Peter II., a minor, son to the czarowitz. Many domestic revolutions happened in Russia during the short reign of this prince; but none 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 II. 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 the 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 Ivan, Peter's eldest brother, though her eldest sister, the duchess of Mecklenburg, was alive. Her reign was extremely prosperous; and though she accepted the throne under limitations that some thought derogatory to her dignity, yet she broke them all, and asserted the prerogative of her ancestors. Upon her death in 1740, John, the son of her niece the princess of Mecklenburg, by Anthony Ulric of Brunswick-Wolfenbuttle, was by her will entitled to the succession; but being no more than two years old, Biron, who had been her favourite, and raised by her to the duchy of Courland, was appointed to be administrator of the empire during his nonage. This destination was disagreeable to the princess of Mecklenburg and her husband, and unpopular among the Russians. Count Munich was employed by the princess of Mecklenburg to arrest Biron, who was tried, and condemned to die, but was sent into exile to Siberia.

The administration of the princess Anne of Mecklenburg and her husband was on many accounts, but particularly that of her German connexions, disagreeable, not only to the Russians, but to other powers of Europe: and notwithstanding a prosperous war they carried on with the Swedes, the princess 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 princess of Mecklenburg, her husband, and son, were made prisoners.

The reign of Elizabeth may be said to have been more glorious than that of any of her predecessors, her father excepted. She abolished 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 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 with Sweden, she restored the natural order of succession in her own family, by declaring the duke of Holstein-Gottorp, who was descended from her eldest sister, her heir. She gave him the title of grand-duke of Russia; and, soon after her accession to the throne, called him to her court, where he re-

nounced the succession of the crown of Sweden, which undoubtedly was his right, embraced the Greek religion, and married a princess of Anhalt-Zerbst, the late empress Catharine II., by whom he had a son, the late emperor of Russia, Paul I.

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 expense of a large subsidy; but many political, and some private reasons, it is said, 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 fortune of the war, which was in disfavour of Prussia, notwithstanding that monarch's amazing abilities both in the field and cabinet. Her success was such as portended the entire destruction of the Prussian power, which was, perhaps, saved only by her critical death, on January 5, 1762.

Elizabeth was succeeded by Peter III., grand-duke 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 rule of his future reign. He might have surmounted the effects even of those peculiarities, 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. It is also alleged that he had formed a resolution to destroy both the empress and her son, though they had been declared heirs to the imperial throne by the same authority which had placed the crown upon his head: even the advocates of Peter the Third acknowledge that he had resolved to shut up his wife and son in a convent, to place his mistress upon the throne, and to change the order of succession. The execution of his designs was, however, prevented by an almost general conspiracy formed against him, in which the empress took a very active part; and this unfortunate prince scarcely knew an interval between the loss of his crown and his life, of which he was deprived, while under an ignominious confinement, in July 1762. His wife, the late Catharine II., was proclaimed empress.

The death of prince Ivan, son to the princess of Mecklenburg, was an act of state policy perfectly according with the means by which Catharine ascended the throne. This young prince, as soon as he came into the world, was designed, though illegally, to wear the imperial crown of Russia, after the death of his great-aunt, the empress Anne Ivannovna; but, on the advancement of the empress Elizabeth, he was condemned to lead an obscure life in the castle of Schlüsselburg, under a strong guard, who had particular orders, that, if any person or any armed force was employed in attempting to deliver him, they should kill him immediately. He lived quietly in his prison, when the empress Catharine II. mounted the throne; and as the revolution which deposed her husband Peter III. had occasioned a strong ferment in the minds of the people, Catharine was apprehensive that some attempts might be made in favour of Ivan; she therefore doubled the guards of this unhappy prince, and particularly entrusted him to the care of two officers who were devoted to her interest. However, a lieutenant of infantry, who was born in the Ukraine, undertook, or at least pretended so, to deliver Ivan by force of arms, from the fortress of Schlüsselburg; and under this pretence the prince was put to death, after an imprisonment of 23 years. The lieutenant who attempted to

deliver him was arrested, and afterwards beheaded: but, notwithstanding this, it has been represented that he was a mere tool of the court, though he suffered for executing the instructions he received.

While this event excited the attention of the Russian nation, the flames of civil war broke out with great violence in Poland; which was generally the case when the throne was vacant. And as the internal tranquillity of Poland was a capital object with Russia, the empress Catharine sent a body of troops into that country; and by her influence count Poniatowski was raised to the throne. She also interposed, in order to secure the rights which the treaty of Oliva had given to the Greek and protestant subjects of Poland. But the umbrage which her imperial majesty's armies gave to the Roman-catholic Poles, by their residence in Poland, increased the rage of civil war in that country, and rendered it a scene of blood and confusion. The conduct of Russia with regard to Poland gave so much offence to the Ottoman court, that the grand-seignor sent Obreskoff, the Russian minister, to the prison of the Seven Towers, declared war against Russia, and marched a very numerous army to the confines of Russia and Poland. Hostilities soon commenced between these rival and mighty empires. In the months of February and March, 1769, Crim Gueray, khan of the Tartars, at the head of a great body of Tartars, supported by 10,000 spahis, having forced the Russian lines of communication, penetrated into the province of New Servia, where he committed great ravages, burning many towns and villages, and carrying off some thousand families captive. In April following, the grand-vizir, at the head of a great army, began his march from Constantinople, and proceeded towards the Danube. In the mean time, prince Galitzin, who commanded the Russian army on the banks of the Dniester, thought this a proper time to attempt something decisive, before the arrival of the great Turkish force in that quarter. Having accordingly crossed the Dniester with his whole army, he advanced to Choczim, where he encamped in sight of a body of 30,000 Turks, commanded by Caraman Pasha, and intrenched under the cannon of the town. The prince, having made the necessary dispositions, attacked the Turks in their intrenchments early in the morning of the 30th of April, and, notwithstanding an obstinate defence, and a dreadful fire from the fortress, at length beat them out of their trenches. The Turks endeavoured to cover their retreat, by detaching a large body of cavalry to attack the right wing of the Russian army; but they met with such a warm reception from the artillery, that they soon retired in great disorder. General Stoffeln and prince Dolgorucki were then ordered to pursue the fugitives, at the head of eight battalions; which they did so effectually, that they followed them into the suburbs of Choczim, and their pursuit was at length only stopped by the palisadoes of the fortress.

On the 13th of July, a very obstinate battle was fought between a considerable Turkish army, and the Russians under prince Galitzin, in the neighbourhood of Choczim, in which the Turks were defeated. The Russians immediately invested Choczim; but the garrison, being numerous, made frequent sallies, and received great reinforcements from the grand-vizir's camp, who was now considerably advanced on this side of the Danube. Several actions ensued; and prince Galitzin was at length obliged to retreat, and repossess the Dniester. It was computed that the siege of Choczim, and the actions consequent to it, cost the Russians above 20,000 men.

In the management of this war, the grand-vizir had acted with a de-

gree of prudence, which, it has been thought, would have proved fatal to the designs of the Russians, if the same conduct had been afterwards pursued. But the army of the vizir was extremely licentious, and his caution gave offence to the Janissaries; so that, in consequence of their clamours, and the weakness of the counsels that prevailed in the seraglio, he at length became a sacrifice, and Moldovani Ali Pasha, a man of more courage than conduct, was appointed his successor.

During these transactions, general Romanzow committed great devastations upon the Turks on the borders of Bender and Oczakow, where he plundered and burnt several towns and villages, defeated a Turkish detachment, and carried off a great booty of cattle. The Tartars also committed great ravages in Poland, where they almost totally destroyed the palatinate of Bracklaw, besides doing much mischief in other places. In the beginning of September, the Russian army was again posted on the banks of the Dniester, and effectually defended the passage of that river against the Turks, whose whole army, under the command of the new vizir, was arrived on the opposite shore. Having laid three bridges over the Dniester, the Turkish army began to pass the river in the face of the enemy. Prince Galitzin having perceived this motion early in the morning of the 9th of September, immediately attacked those troops that had crossed the river in the night, who consequently could neither choose their ground, nor have time to extend or form themselves properly where they were. Notwithstanding these extreme disadvantages, the engagement was very severe, and continued from seven in the morning till noon. The Turks fought with great obstinacy, but were at length totally defeated, and obliged to repass the river with great loss, and in the utmost confusion. It was computed, that about 60,000 Turks crossed the river before and during the time of the engagement. Prince Galitzin charged at the head of five columns of infantry, with fixed bayonets, and destroyed the flower of the Turkish cavalry. It is said that the loss of the Turks in this battle amounted to 7000 men killed upon the spot, besides wounded and prisoners, and a great number who were drowned. Though the ill conduct of the vizir had greatly contributed to this misfortune, yet this did not prevent him from engaging in another operation of the same nature. He now laid but one bridge over the river, which he had the precaution to cover with large batteries of cannon, and prepared to pass the whole army over. Accordingly, on the 17th of September, 8000 Janissaries and 4000 regular cavalry, the flower of the whole Ottoman army, passed over with a large train of artillery, and the rest of the army were in motion to follow, when a sudden and extraordinary swell of the waters of the Dniester carried away and totally destroyed the bridge. The Russians lost no time in making use of this great and unexpected advantage. A most desperate engagement ensued, in which the slaughter of the Turks was prodigious. Not only the field of battle, but the river over which some few hundreds of Turks made their escape by swimming, was for several miles covered with dead bodies. The Russians took 64 pieces of cannon, and above 150 colours and horse-tails. The Turks immediately broke up their camp, and abandoned the strong fortress of Choczim, with all its stores and numerous artillery, and retired tumultuously towards the Danube. They were much exasperated at the ill conduct of their commander the vizir: and it was computed that the Turks lost 28,000 of the best and bravest of their troops, within little more than a fortnight; and 48,000 more abandoned the army, and totally deserted, in the tumultuous retreat to the Danube. Prince Galitzin placed a gar-

rison of four regiments in the fortress of Choczim, and soon after resigned the command of the army to general count Romanzow, and returned to Petersburg covered with laurels.

The Russians continued to carry on the war with success; they overran the great province of Moldavia, and general Elmdt took possession of the capital, Jassy, without opposition. As the Greek natives of this province had always secretly favoured the Russians, they now took this opportunity of their success and the absence of the Turks to declare themselves openly. The Greek inhabitants of Moldavia, and afterwards those of Wallachia, acknowledged the empress of Russia their sovereign, and took oaths of fidelity to her. On the 18th of July, 1770, general Romanzow defeated a Turkish army near the river Larga: the Turks are said to have amounted to 80,000 men, and were commanded by the khan of the Crimea. On the second of August, the same Russian general obtained a still greater victory over another army of the Turks, commanded by a new grand-vizir. This army was very numerous, but was totally defeated. It is said that above 7000 Turks were killed in the field of battle, and that the roads to the Danube were covered with dead bodies: a vast quantity of ammunition, 143 pieces of brass cannon, and some thousand carriages loaded with provisions, fell into the hands of the Russians.

But it was not only by land that the Russians carried on the war successfully against the Turks. The empress sent a considerable fleet of men of war, Russian built, into the Mediterranean, to act against the Turks on that side; and by means of this fleet, under count Orloff, the Russians spread ruin and desolation through the open islands of the Archipelago, and the neighbouring defenceless coasts of Greece and Asia. The issue of this war was a peace, concluded on the 21st of July, 1774, highly honourable and beneficial to the Russians, by which they obtained the liberty of a free navigation over the Black Sea, and a free trade with all the ports of the Ottoman empire.

Before the conclusion of the war with the Turks, a rebellion broke out in Russia, which gave much alarm to the court of Petersburg. A Cossac, whose name was Pugatscheff, assumed the name and character of the late unfortunate emperor, Peter the Third. He appeared in the kingdom of Kasan, and pretended that he made his escape, through an extraordinary interposition of Providence, from the murderers who were employed to assassinate him; and that the report of his death was only a fiction invented by the court. There is said to have been a striking resemblance in his person to that of the late emperor; which induced him to engage in this enterprise. As he possessed abilities and address, his followers soon became very numerous; and he at length found himself so powerful, his followers being armed and provided with artillery, that he stood several engagements with able Russian generals, at the head of large bodies of troops, and committed great ravages in the country. But being at last totally defeated, and taken prisoner, he was brought to Moscow in an iron cage, and there beheaded and quartered on the 21st of January, 1775.

The peace of 1774 was then indispensably necessary to the immediate preservation of the Turkish empire; but within so small a space of time as five years a new war was on the point of breaking out between the two empires, and was only prevented by a new treaty of pacification, which took place on the 21st of March, 1779. But the great source of discord still remained. The pretended independency of the Crimea afforded such an opening to Russia into the very heart of the Turkish em-

pire, and such opportunities of interference, that it was scarcely possible that any lasting tranquillity could subsist between the two empires. A claim, made and insisted on by Russia, of establishing consuls in the three provinces of Moldavia, Wallachia, and Bessarabia, was exceedingly grievous to the Porte. After long disputes, the Turkish ministers, more from a sense of the disability of the state for war, than from pacific dispositions, found it necessary, towards the close of the year 1781, to give up the point in debate with respect to the consuls. This concession, however mortifying, produced but a short-lived effect. New troubles were continually breaking forth. The emperor of Germany having avowed his determination of supporting all the claims of Russia as well as his own, all the parties prepared, with the utmost vigour, for the most determined hostility. The year 1783 accordingly exhibited the most formidable apparatus of war on the northern and eastern borders of Europe. However, in the midst of all these appearances of war, negotiations for a peace continued to be carried on at Constantinople; which peace was at last signed, January 9th, 1784.

By this treaty Russia retained the full sovereignty of her new acquisitions, viz. the Crimea, the isle of Taman, and part of Cuban.—As the recovery and restoration of every thing Greek was the predominant passion of the court of Petersburg, so the Crimea and its dependencies were in future to be known by the name of Taurida; particular places were likewise restored to their ancient appellations; and the celebrated port and city of Caffa resumed its long-forgotten name of Theodosia. Since this accession of dominion, new towns, with Greek or Russian names, are rising fast in the deserts, and are peopled mostly by colonies of Greeks and Armenians.

The year 1787 opened with the extraordinary spectacle of the journey of the empress of Russia to Cherson, where it seems to have been her original intention to have been crowned with all possible magnificence, and under the splendid titles of empress of the East, liberator of Greece, and reviver of the series of Roman emperors, who formerly swayed the sceptre over that division of the globe. But this coronation, for reasons we are unable to assign, did not take place. The splendor of the route of the czarina surpasses whatever the imagination would spontaneously suggest. She was escorted by an army. Pioneers preceded her march, whose business it was to render the road as even and pleasant as it could possibly be made. At the end of each day's journey she found a temporary palace erected for her reception, together with all the accommodations and luxuries that Petersburg could have afforded. In the list of her followers were the ambassadors of London, Versailles, and Vienna; and her own ambassador, as well as the envoy of the emperor to the court of Constantinople, were appointed to meet her at Cherson. The king of Poland met her in her journey; and the emperor, not satisfied with swelling her triumph at Cherson, appeared in that capital eight days before her, and proceeded to a considerable distance up the Dnieper, to intercept her progress. Her route was through Kiow, where she remained three months, and was received under triumphal arches; and upon her arrival at Cherson, having thought proper to extend the walls of the city, she inscribed over one of the gates, "Through this gate lies the road to Byzantium." The czarina returned to Petersburg by the way of Moscow.

Scarcely had the empress returned to her capital, before she was followed by the Turkish declaration of hostilities. The emperor of Germany joined her in declaring war against the Porte, which, instead of

being disheartened at the formidableness of this confederacy, applied itself with redoubled ardour to prepare for resistance. The operations of the Russian forces were directed against Choczim and Oczakow. In the former of these undertakings, they acted rather as auxiliaries to the emperor's general, the prince of Saxe Cobourg, who, from the last day of June to the 29th of September, 1788, continued a very powerful attack on Choczim, when it surrendered to the arms of the imperial forces. Oczakow, after an obstinate contest, in which the Russians at length became exposed to all the rigours of a winter campaign, was taken by storm on the 17th of December following.

During the progress of these hostilities with the Porte, Russia found herself suddenly involved in a new and unexpected war. As a nation, Sweden had the greatest causes of resentment against Russia for past injury and loss, at the same time that she had every thing to dread from her present overgrown power and boundless ambition. Gustavus the Third was therefore induced to meditate a project of hostilities against Russia, which commenced in Finland, a few days after the king's arrival in that province. The principal action of the campaign was the naval battle off Hoogland, in the Gulf of Finland. The engagement, which lasted five hours, was fought with considerable skill and obstinacy on both sides; but the victory was indecisive and claimed by both parties. At length, after several other engagements attended with various success, on the 14th of August, 1790, a convention for a peace was signed between the courts of Russia and Sweden, and ratified in six days after.

At the close of the year 1790, the empress had the satisfaction to see her conquests no longer bounded by the course of the Danube. The capture of Ismail was the last important action. It was taken by storm on the 22d of December, 1790; but it is said that the siege and assault did not cost the Russians less than 10,000 men. The most shocking part of the transaction is, that the garrison (whose bravery merited, and would have received from a generous foe, the highest honours) were massacred in cold blood by the merciless Russians, to the amount of upwards of 30,000 men, by their own account. The place was given up to the unrestrained fury of the brutal soldiery; and the most horrid outrages were perpetrated on the defenceless inhabitants.

England and Prussia, after a long and expensive armed negotiation; at length assented to the demand of the empress, which was strengthened by the interference of Spain and Denmark, that Oczakow, and the territory between the rivers Bog and Dniester, should in full sovereignty belong to Russia; that the river Dniester should for the future determine the frontiers of Russia and the Porte; that the two powers might erect on the shores of that river what fortresses they should think proper: and that Russia should engage to grant a free navigation on the river Dniester.

The final treaty with the Turks was concluded at Jassy, the 9th of January, 1792. Catharine then applied herself to the improvement of Oczakow, and rendered it a place of great strength, importance, and commerce. At the same time she was not inattentive to European politics. When the coalition of sovereign powers was formed against France, Gustavus III., the late king of Sweden, was to have conducted that expedition which was afterwards made against France by the king of Prussia and the Prince of Brunswick. Catharine, on this occasion, promised to assist him and the alliance with twelve thousand Russian troops, and an annual subsidy of three hundred thousand rubles. She assured the pope that she would support him in the resumption of

Avignon, and published a strong manifesto against the French revolution and the progress of the new principles of liberty; but the only active part she took against that revolution was sending twelve ships of the line and eight frigates to join the English fleet, which were paid for by a subsidy, victualled and repaired in the British ports, and then returned home without rendering any effectual service. But her attention was principally directed to Poland, and the efforts which that people made in the cause of liberty. Whilst she amused the world with manifestoes against France, she beheld, with pleasure, the greatest powers of Europe wasting their strength and treasure; and, undisturbed by any foreign interference, made a second partition of Poland, the circumstances of which the reader will find briefly narrated in our account of that unfortunate country.

By her intrigues, she in like manner annexed to the crown of Russia the fertile and populous country of Courland. She invited the duke of Courland to her court under the pretext that she wished to confer with him on some affairs of importance; and during his absence the states of Courland assembled, and the nobles proposed to renounce the sovereignty of Poland, and annex the country to the empire of Russia. The principal members of the great council opposed this change; but the Russian general Pahlen appeared in the assembly, and his presence silenced all objections. The next day (March 18, 1795) an act was drawn up, by which Courland, Semigallia, and the circle of Pilten, were surrendered to the empress of Russia. The act was sent to Petersburg, and the submission of the states accepted by the empress. The duke of Courland was in no condition to refuse his acquiescence: he received very considerable presents from the empress, in compensation, and retired to live on some extensive estates he had purchased in Prussia.

But the acquisition, by intrigue and artifice, of countries incapable of resistance, was not sufficient to satisfy the ambition of Catharine, incessantly anxious to extend her dominions, she turned her arms against Persia, under the pretext of defending Lolf Ali Khan, a descendant of the race of the Sophis; but in reality to seize on the Persian provinces which border on the Caspian Sea. Her general Valerian Soubow penetrated, at the head of a numerous army, into the province of Daghestan, and laid siege to Derbent. Having carried a high tower which defended the place, he put all the garrison to the sword, and prepared to storm the city. The Persians, terrified at the barbarous fury of the Russians, demanded quarter; and the keys of the city were delivered up to Soubow by the commandant, a venerable old man, a hundred and twenty years of age, who had before surrendered Derbent to Peter I. at the beginning of the last century. Aga Mahmied was advancing to the relief of Derbent, when he learned that the place was already in the power of the Russians. Soubow drew out his army, and gave him battle; but victory declared in favour of the Persians, who forced the Russians to retire into Derbent; in consequence of which defeat, a strong body of Russian troops were ordered to reinforce the army of Soubow.

These martial preparations, and plans of ambition, were, however, interrupted by her death. On the morning of the 9th of November, 1796, she appeared very cheerful, and took her coffee as usual. Soon after she retired into the closet, where continuing unusually long, her attendants became alarmed, and at length opened the door, when they found her on the floor in a state of insensibility, with her

feet against the door. Doctor Rogerson, her first physician, was immediately called, who bled her twice. At first she appeared rather to revive, but was unable to utter a word, and expired at ten o'clock at night.

Catharine II. in her youth had been handsome, and preserved in the close of life a graceful and majestic air. She was of a middle stature, well proportioned, and, as she carried her head very erect, appeared taller than she really was. Her forehead was open, her nose aquiline, her mouth well made, and her chin somewhat long, though not so as to have a disagreeable effect. Her countenance did not want for expression; but she was too well practised in the courtly habits of dissimulation to suffer it to express what she wished to conceal.

With respect to her political character, she was undoubtedly a great sovereign. From the commencement of her reign she laboured, and with the greatest success, to increase the power and political consequence of her country. She encouraged learning and the arts, and made every exertion to extend, encourage, and enlarge the commerce of her subjects. She effected many and important regulations in the interior police, and particularly in the courts of justice. She abolished the torture, and adopted an excellent plan for the reformation of prisons. The new code of laws, for which she gave instructions, will contribute still more to mitigate the rigour of despotism. In the execution, indeed, of her plans for the aggrandisement of her empire, she appears to have acknowledged no right but power, no law but interest. Of her private life, her panegyrist, if prudent, will speak but little. They will dwell lightly on the means by which she mounted the throne. The only palliation of that conduct, which the most friendly ingenuity can suggest, will be derived from the frequent and bloody usurpations which, since the death of Peter the Great, had almost become the habit of the Russian court. But there are some acts, at the recital of which we should shudder, even if the scene were laid in Morocco. The mysterious fate of prince Iwan, in 1763, cannot be obliterated from history; the blood spilt in the long-conceived scheme of expelling the Turks from Europe, and re-establishing the eastern empire in the person of a second Constantine, will not be expiated, in the estimation of humanity, by the gigantic magnificence of the project. Above all, the fate of Poland, the dissensions and civil wars industriously fomented in that unhappy kingdom, for a period of thirty years—the horrible massacres which attended its final subjugation, and the impious mockery of returning solemn thanks to heaven for the success of such atrocious crimes, will be a foul and indelible stain on the memory of Catharine.

She was succeeded by her son, Paul I., who in the beginning of his reign appeared to display a milder and more pacific disposition than that of his mother. Immediately on his accession to the throne, he ordered hostilities to cease between Russia and Persia; and a peace was soon after concluded between the two countries. He set at liberty the unfortunate Kosciusko, the general of the Polish patriots, with liberty either to reside in his dominions or retire to America, which latter country the general chose for his asylum, but whence he has since returned to Europe, and now resides in France. He behaved with an honourable liberality towards the deposed king of Poland; and restored to their estates a great number of Polish emigrants and fugitives.

In the year 1799 he, however, took a very active part in the war against France; and sent a powerful army, under the command of the celebrated general Suwarrow, which, co-operating with the Austrians,

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drove the French almost entirely out of Italy, entered Switzerland, and threatened the interior of the republic. He, at the same time, sent a considerable force to act with the English army which had invaded Holland. But suddenly, with a capriciousness which from this time appeared to attend all his actions, he recalled his general, Suwarrow, and his army from Switzerland, and appeared to have become more hostile to England than he had been to France. He seized all the British ships in his ports, detaining upwards of 200 trading vessels in the harbour of Riga alone, and sending their crews up the country. From whatever cause proceeded his animosity against England—whether from perceiving, as has been supposed, that it was not the intention of the British ministry to give him possession of Malta, of which he was eagerly desirous, or whether it was a consequence of his natural extravagance and caprice, which in many instances bordered on phrensy*—he entered into alliance with France, and excited a formidable confederacy of the maritime powers of the North against the naval interests of Great Britain, which was broken by the glorious battle of Copenhagen. His frantic acts appear to have given great offence to many of the principal nobles. But on the 23d of March 1800, he expired *suddenly in the night, of an apoplexy*. Respecting the cause and manner of his death a cautious silence has been maintained in Russia, and it might not be proper to repeat the reports concerning it circulated in this country.

The day succeeding his decease, his eldest son, Alexander, was proclaimed emperor of all the Russias; and the new emperor soon after visited the senate, and issued several popular ukases; one in particular, reviving and confirming all the regulations of the empress Catharine for the encouragement of industry and commerce.

The conduct of Alexander, since his accession to the throne, has been at least characterised by an apparent moderation, forming a strong contrast to the hasty violence of his predecessor. He soon entered into a pacific accommodation with Great Britain, relinquished the claim on Malta, and restored the English ships detained in the ports of Russia. He has at the same time acted in conjunction with the first consul of France, in settling the indemnities allotted to the princes and states of the German empire, in which interference he probably has had a view (patriotic with respect to his own subjects) to the extension of the influence and power of Russia: how long he will continue thus to act in concert with the present ambitious ruler of France, time must show.

Alexander, the present emperor of all the Russias, was born Dec. 23, 1777; married to the princess Louisa of Baden (born Jan. 24, 1779) Oct. 9, 1793.

Brothers and sisters to the emperor:

Constantine, born May 8, 1779; married to the princess of Saxe-Cobourg Feb. 14, 1796.

Helena, born Dec. 24, 1784.

Maria, born Feb. 15, 1786.

Catharine, born May 21, 1788.

Anne, born Jan. 18, 1795.

Nicholas Paulovitsch, born June 2, 1796.

* Particularly in the case of the extraordinary challenge which he inserted in the Petersburg gazette, proposing to the sovereigns of Europe to end the wars in which they had so long been engaged, by meeting him, with their respective ministers, and engaging in single combat with himself and his minister. This challenge, it has since appeared, was written under his directions by the celebrated Kotzebue.

Michael Paulovitsch, born Feb. 8, 1798.
 Empress dowager, Maria Feodorowna, (Sophia Dorothea Augusta,) daughter of duke Frederick Eugenius of Wurtemberg, born October 25, 1759.

ENGLAND.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

Miles.	Degrees.
Length 360 } between	{ 50° and 55° 45' North latitude.
Breadth 300 }	{ 1° 50' E. and 5° 40' West longitude.

England and Wales contain 57,680 square miles, with 164 inhabitants to each.

NAME.] ANTIQUARIES are divided with regard to the etymology of the word *England*; some derive it from a Celtic word, signifying a level country, but the common etymology is doubtless the true one, according to which it originated from the Angles, a nation of the Cimbric Chersonesus, or modern Jutland, who conquered a considerable part of 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*; a name which, according to some, is derived from a Celtic word, and signifies the *land of strangers*, because inhabited by the Belgic Gauls, who were driven thither by the Romans, and were strangers to the old natives.

BOUNDARIES.] England 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.

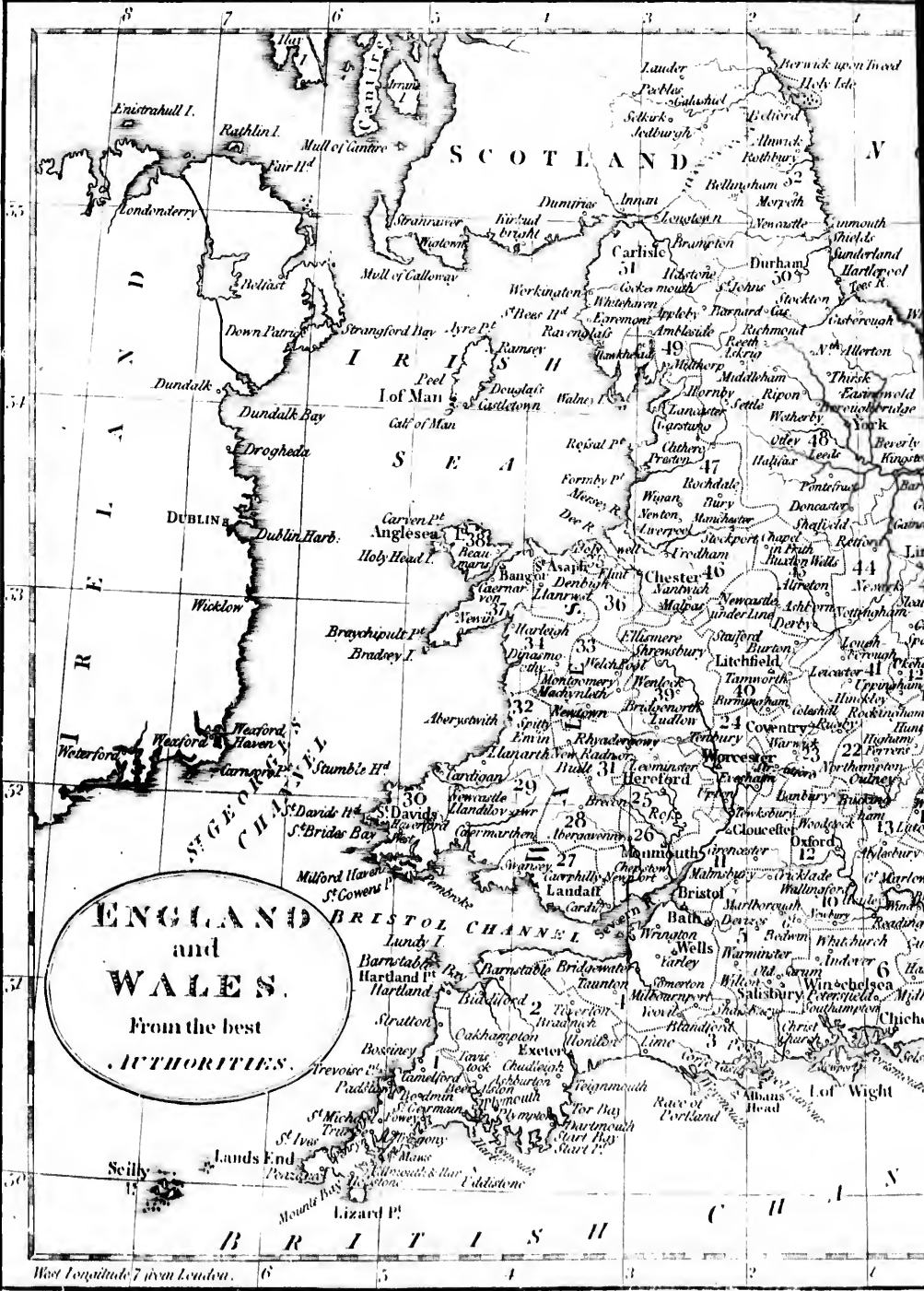
DIVISIONS, ANCIENT AND MODERN.] When the Romans provinciated England, they divided it into,

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 the wall of Severus, between Newcastle and Carlisle, and sometimes as far as that of Adrian in Scotland, between the Forth and Clyde.
4. *Flavia Cæsariensis*, which contained the midland counties.

When the Saxons invaded England, about the year 450, and when they were established, in the year 582, their chief leaders appropriated to themselves, after the manner of other northern conquerors, the countries which each had been the most instrumental in conquering; and the whole formed a heptarchy, or political confederacy consisting of seven kingdoms. In time of war, a chief was chosen from the seven kings, by public consent; so that the Saxon heptarchy appears to have somewhat resembled the constitution of Greece during the heroic ages.





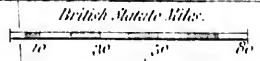


West Longitude 7 given London.



References to the Counties.

1 Cornwall	27 Glamorganshire
2 Devonshire	28 Brecknockshire
3 Dorsetshire	29 Northamptonshire
4 Somersetshire	30 Derbyshire
5 Wiltshire	31 Radnorshire
6 Hampshire	32 Gwentshire
7 Sussex	33 Montgomeryshire
8 Kent	34 Merionethshire
9 Surrey	35 Flintshire
10 Berkshire	36 Denbighshire
11 Gloucestershire	37 Herefordshire
12 Oxfordshire	38 Arden
13 Buckinghamshire	39 Shropshire
14 Middlesex	40 Staffordshire
15 Bedfordshire	41 Lancashire
16 Hertfordshire	42 Rutlandshire
17 Essex	43 Lincolnshire
18 Suffolk	44 Nottinghamshire
19 Norfolk	45 Derbyshire
20 Cambridgeshire	46 Cheshire
21 Huntingdonshire	47 Lancashire
22 Northamptonshire	48 Yorkshire
23 Warwickshire	49 Westmoreland
24 Herefordshire	50 Durham
25 Shropshire	51 Cumberland
26 Monmouthshire	52 Northumberland



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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.....	Sussex..... Surry.....	Chichester Southwark
3. East Angles, founded by Uffa in 575, and ended in 793....	Norfolk..... Suffolk..... Cambridge, with..... The Isle of Ely.....	Norwich Bury St. Edmund's Cambridge Ely
4. West Saxons, founded by Cerdic in 512, and ended in 1060...	Cornwall..... Devon..... Dorset..... Somerset..... Wilts..... Hants..... Berks..... Lancaster..... York.....	Launceston Exeter Dorchester Bath Salisbury Winchester Abington Lancaster York
5. Northumberland, founded by Ida in 574, and ended in 792.....	Durham..... Cumberland..... Westmorland..... Northumberland and Scotland, to the frith of Edinburgh.....	Durham Carlisle Appleby Newcastle
6. East Saxons, founded by Erchewin in 527, and ended in 746	Essex..... Middlesex, and part of Hertford..... The other part of Hertford	London Hertford
7. Mercia, founded by Crida in 582, and ended in 874.....	Gloucester..... Hereford..... Worcester..... Warwick..... Leicester..... Rutland..... Northampton..... Lincoln..... Huntingdon..... Bedford..... Buckingham..... Oxford..... Stafford..... Derby..... Salop..... Nottingham..... Chester.....	Gloucester Hereford Worcester Warwick Leicester Oakham Northampton Lincoln Huntingdon Bedford Aylesbury Oxford Stafford Derby Shrewsbury Nottingham Chester

It is the more necessary to preserve these divisions, as they account for different local customs, and many very essential modes of inheritance, which to this day prevail in England, and which took their rise from

different institutions under the Saxons. Since the Norman invasion, England has been divided into counties, a certain number of which, excepting Middlesex and Cheshire, are comprehended in six circuits, or annual progresses of the judges, for administering justice to the subjects who are at a distance from the capital. The circuits are:

CIRCUITS.	COUNTIES.	CHIEF TOWNS.
I. Home circuit.....	Essex 226,437 ...	Chelmsford, Colchester, Harwich, Malden, Saffron-Walden, Bocking, Braintree, and Stratford.
	Hertford 97,577	Hertford, St. Albans, Ware. Hitchin, Baldock, Bishop's-Stortford, Berkhamstead, Hemsted, and Barnet.
	Kent 307,024 ...	Maidstone, Canterbury, Chatham, Rochester, Greenwich, Woolwich, Dover, Deal, Deptford, Feversham, Dartford, Romney, Sandwich, Sheerness, Canterbury, Margate, Gravesend, and Milton.
	Surry 269,043 ...	Southwark, Kingston, Guildford, Croydon, Epsom, Richmond, Wandsworth, Battersea, Putney, Farnham, Godalmin, Bagshot, Egham, and Dorking.
	Sussex 159,311 ..	Chichester, Lewes, Rye, East Grinstead, Hastings, Horsham, Midhurst, Shoreham, Arundel, Winchelsea, Batten, Brighthelmstone, and Petworth.
	Bucks 107,444 ...	Aylesbury, Buckingham, High Wickham, Great Marlow, Stoney-Stratford, and Newport Pagnel.
	Bedford 63,393 ..	Bedford, Ampthill, Wooburn, Dunstable, Luton, and Biggleswade.
	Huntingdon } 37,568 } ...	Huntingdon, St. Ives, Kimbolton, Godmanchester, St. Neot's, Ramsey, and Yaxley.
	Cambridge } 89,346 } ...	Cambridge, Ely, Newmarket, Royston, and Wisbech.
	Suffolk 210,431 ..	Bury, Ipswich, Sudbury, Leostoff, part of Newmarket, Aldborough, Bungay, Southwold, Brandon, Halesworth, Mildenhall, Beccles, Framlingham, Stowmarket, Woodbridge, Lavenham, Hadley, Long Melford, Stratford, and Easterbergholt.
II. Norfolk circuit.....	Norfolk 272,371	Norwich, Thetford, Lynn, Yarmouth.
	Oxon 109,620 ...	Oxford, Banbury, Chipping-Norton, Henley, Burford, Whitney, Dorchester, Woodstock, and Thame.
	Berks 109,215 ...	Abingdon, Windsor, Reading, Wallingford, Newbury, Hungerford, Maidenhead, Farringdon, Wantage, and Oakingham.
III. Oxford circuit.....		

CIRCUITS.	COUNTIES.	CHIEF TOWNS.
III. Oxford circuit continued....	Gloucester } 250,809 } ...	Gloucester, Tewkesbury, Cirencester, part of Bristol, Camden, Stow, Berkley, Dursley, Lechlade, Tetbury, Sudbury, Wotton, and Marshfield.
	Worcester } 139,333 } ...	Worcester, Evesham, Droitwich, Bewdley, Stourbridge, Kidderminster, and Pershore.
	Monmouth } 45,582 } ...	Monmouth, Chepstow, Abergavenny, Caerleon, and Newport.
	Hereford 89,191	Hereford, Leominster, Weobley, Ledbury, Kyncton, and Ross.
	Salop 167,629 ...	Shrewsbury, Ludlow, Bridgnorth, Wenlock, Bishop's Castle, Whitchurch, Oswestry, Wem, and Newport.
	Stafford 239,153	Stafford, Litchfield, Newcastle-under-Lyne, Wolverhampton, Rugeley, Burton, Uttoxeter, and Stone.
	Warwick } 208,190 } ...	Warwick, Coventry, Birmingham, Stratford upon Avon, Tamworth, Aulcester, Nuneaton, and Atherton.
IV. Midland circuit.....	Leicester 130,081	Leicester, Melton-Mowbray, Ashby-de-la-Zouch, Bosworth, and Harborough.
	Derby 161,142 ..	Derby, Chesterfield, Wirksworth, Ashbourne, Bakewell, Balsover, and Buxton.
	Nottingham } 140,350 } ...	Nottingham, Southwell, Newark, East and West Retford, Mansfield, Tuxford, Worksop, and Blithe.
	Lincoln 208,557	Lincoln, Stamford, Boston, Grant-ham, Croyland, Spalding, New Sleaford, Great Grimsby, Gainsborough, Louth, and Horncastle.
	Rutland 16,356 .	Oakham and Uppingham.
	Northampton } 131,757 }	Northampton, Peterborough, Daventry, Higham-Ferrers, Brackley, Oundle, Wellingborough, Thrapston, Towcester, Rockingham, Kettering, and Rothwell.
	Hants 219,656...	Winchester, Southampton, Portsmouth, Andover, Basingstoke, Christchurch, Petersfield, Lyminster, Ringwood, Rumsey, Alresford, and Newport, Yarmouth and Cowes, in the Isle of Wight.
V. Western circuit.....	Wilts 108,107 ...	Salisbury, Devizes, Marlborough, Malmesbury, Wilton, Chippenham, Calne, Cricklade, Trowbridge, Bradford, and Warminster.
	Dorset 115,319 ..	Dorchester, Lyme, Sherborne, Shaftesbury, Poole, Blandford, Bridport, Weymouth, Melcombe, Wareham, and Winburn.

CIRCUITS.	COUNTIES.	CHIEF TOWNS.
V. Western cir- cuit con- tinued	Somerset 273,750	Bath, Wells, Bristol in part, Taunton, Bridgewater, Ilchester, Minthead, Milbourn-Port, Glastonbury, Wellington, Dulverton, Dunster, Watchet, Yeovil, Somerton, Axbridge, Chard, Bruton, Shepton-Mallet, Croscomb, and Froome.
	Devon 343,001 ..	Exeter, Plymouth, Barnstable, Biddeford, Tiverton, Honiton, Dartmouth, Tavistock, Topsham, Okehampton, Ashburton, Crediton, Moulton, Torrington, Totness, Axminster, Plympton, and Ilfracomb.
	Cornwall } 188,269 } ...	Launceston, Falmouth, Truro, Saltash, Bodmyn, St. Ives, Padstow, Tregony, Fowey, Penryn, Kellington, Leskeard, Lestwithiel, Helston, Penzance, and Redruth.
	York 858,892....	York, Leeds, Wakefield, Halifax, Rippon, Pontefract, Hull, Richmond, Scarborough, Boroughbridge, Malton, Sheffield, Doncaster, Whitby, Beverley, Northallerton, Burlington, Knaresborough, Barnesley, Sherborne, Bradford, Tadcaster, Skipton, Wetherby, Ripley, Heydon, Howden, Thirske, Gisborough, Pickering, and Yarum.
VI. Northern circuit*.	Durham 160,361	Durham, Stockton, Sunderland, Stanhope, Barnard-Castle, Darlington, Hartlepool, and Auckland.
	Northumber- } land 157,101 } Lancaster } 672,731 } ...	Newcastle, Tinnmouth, North Shields, Morpeth, Alnwick, and Hexham. Lancaster, Manchester, Preston, Liverpool, Wigan, Rochdale, Warrington, Bury, Ormskirk, Hawkshead, and Newton.
	Westmorland } 41,617 }	Appleby, Kendal, Lonsdale, Kirby-Stephen, Orton, Ambleside, Burton, and Milthorpe.
	Cumberland } 117,230 } ...	Carlisle, Penrith, Cockermouth, Whitehaven, Ravenglass, Egremont, Keswick, Workington, and Ireby.

Middlesex is not comprehended in these circuits; nor Cheshire, which, being a county palatine, enjoys municipal laws and privileges. The same may be said of Wales, which is divided into four circuits.

Counties { Middlesex } } London, first meridian, north lat. 51°
exclusive of { 1,000,929 † } } 31', Westminster, Uxbridge, Brent-
the circuits. } } ford, Chelsea, Highgate, Hamp-

* In the Lent or Spring assizes, the northern circuit extends only to York and Lancaster: the assizes at Durham, Newcastle, Appleby, and Carlisle, being held only in the Autumn, and distinguished by the appellation of the *long circuit*.

† Including London and Westminster.

Counties exclusive of the circuits, continued.	} Chester 191,751	} stead, Kensington, Hackney, and Hampton-Court. Chester, Nantwich, Macclesfield, Mal- pas, Northwich, Middlewich, Sand- bach, Congleton, Knotsford, Fro- disham, and Haulton.
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CIRCUITS OF WALES.

CIRCUITS.	COUNTIES.	CHIEF TOWNS.
North-East circuit....	Flint 39,622.....	} Flint, St. Asaph, and Holywell. Denbigh, Wrexham, and Ruthen.
	Denbigh 60,352 .	
North-West circuit....	Montgomery } 47,978 }	} Montgomery, Llanvlyin, and Welch- Pool. Beaumaris, Holyhead, and Newburgh. Bangor, Conway, Caernarvon, and Pulhilly. Dolgelly, Bala, and Haleigh.
	Anglesey 33,806	
	Caernarvon } 41,521 }	
	Merioneth } 29,506 }	
South-East circuit....	Radnor 19,050...	} Radnor, Presteign, and Knighton. Brecknock, Builth, and Hay. Llandaff, Cardiff, Cowbridge, Neath, and Swansea. St. David's, Haverfordwest, Pem- broke, Tenby, Fiscard, and Mil- fordhaven.
	Brecon 33,633...	
	Glamorgan } 71,525 }	
	Pembroke 56,280	
South-West circuit....	Cardigan 42,956	} Cardigan, Aberystwith, and Llanba- darn-vawer. Caermarthen, Kidwelly, Llanymd- dovry, Llandilovawr, Llangharn, and Llanelthy.
	Caermarthen } 67,317 }	

IN ENGLAND.

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

WALES.

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

SCOTLAND.

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

IRELAND.

32 Counties.....	64 knights.
36 Cities and Boroughs.....	36 citizens and burgesses.

Total..... 658

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

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

[FACE OF THE COUNTRY.] 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 the most luxuriant prospects, the corn and meadow grounds, the intermixtures of enclosures and plantation, 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 objects of which an adequate idea cannot be conveyed by description. The most barren spots are not without their verdure. But nothing can give us a higher idea of the English industry, than observing that some of the pleasantest 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.

[MOUNTAINS.] Though England is full of delightful rising grounds, and the most enchanting slopes, yet it contains few mountains. The principal are the Peak in Derbyshire, the Endle in Lancashire, the Wolds in Yorkshire, the Skiddaw and Saddle-back in Cumberland, the Cheviot-hills on the borders of Scotland, the Chiltern in Bucks, Malvern in Worcestershire, Cotswould in Gloucestershire, the Wrekin in Shropshire; with those of Plinlimmon and Snowdon in Wales. In general, however, Wales and the northern parts may be termed mountains.

[FORESTS.] The first Norman kings of England, partly for political purposes, that they might the more effectually enslave their new subjects, and partly from the wantonness of power, converted immense tracts of grounds into forests: and these were governed by laws peculiar to themselves: so that it was necessary, about the time of passing the Magna-Charta, to form a code of the forest-laws; and Justices in Eyre, so called from their sitting in the open air, were appointed to see them observed. By degrees those vast tracts were disforested: and the chief forests, properly so called, remaining out of no fewer than 69, are those of Windsor, New-Forest, the Forest of Dean, and Sherwood Forest. These 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 chesnut trees, which exceeded all other kinds of timber for the purposes of building, as appears from many great houses still standing, in which the chesnut beams and roofs remain still fresh and undecayed, though some of them are above 600 years old.

LAKES.] The lakes of England are few; though it is evident from history and antiquity, and indeed, in some places, from the face of the country, that meres and fens have been frequent in England, till drained and converted into arable land. The chief lakes remaining are Soham mere, 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 40 or 50 miles in circumference. Winander mere lies in Westmorland: there are besides some small lakes in Cumberland, the chief of which is Derwent-water.

RIVERS, SPRINGS, AND MINERAL WATERS.] The rivers in England add greatly to its beauty as well as to its opulence. The Thames, which, from the situation of the capital on its banks, naturally claims the first place among the rivers of England, rises on the confines of Gloucestershire, a little S. W. of Cirencester; and after receiving the many tributary streams of other rivers, it passes to Oxford, then by Abingdon, 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; whence it flows to London, and, after dividing the counties of Kent and Essex, widens in its progress, till it falls into the sea at the Nore, from which it is navigable for large ships to London-bridge.

The river Medway, which rises near Tunbridge, falls into the Thames at Sheerness, and is navigable for the largest ships as far as Chatham. The Severn, reckoned the second river for importance in England, and the first for rapidity, rises at Pimlimmon-hill in North-Wales; becomes navigable at Welch-Pool; runs east to Shrewsbury; then, turning south, visits Bridgnorth, 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, where lie the great ships which cannot get up to Bristol. The Trent rises in the Moorlands of Staffordshire, and, running south-east by Newcastle-under-Line, divides that county into 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 (a Gaëlic word signifying *water* in general) which falls into the Humber after receiving the waters of many other rivers. Another Ouse rises in Bucks, and falls into the sea near Lynn in Norfolk. The Tyne runs from west to east through Northumberland, and falls into the German sea at Tinmouth, below Newcastle. The Tees runs from west to east, dividing Durham from Yorkshire, and falls into the German sea below Stockton. The Tweed runs from west to east, on the borders of Scotland, and falls into the German sea at Berwick. The Eden runs from south to north through Westmorland and Cumberland, and, passing by Carlisle, falls into Solway-Firth 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 runs from east to west through Cumberland,

and, passing by Cockermonth, falls into the Irish Sea a little below. The Ribble runs from east to west through Lancashire, and, passing by Preston, discharges itself into the Irish Sea. The Mersey 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. The Dee rises in Wales, and divides Flintshire from Cheshire, falling into the Irish channel below Chester.

The champaign parts of England are generally supplied with excellent springs and fountains; though a discerning palate may perceive that they frequently contain some mineral impregnation. In some very high lands, the inhabitants are distressed for water, and supply themselves by trenches, or digging deep wells. The constitutions of the English, and the diseases to which they are liable, have rendered them extremely inquisitive after salubrious waters, for the recovery and preservation of their health; so that England contains as many mineral wells, of known efficacy, as perhaps any country in the world. The most celebrated are the hot-baths of Bath and Bristol in Somersetshire, and of Buxton and Matlock in Derbyshire: the mineral waters of Tunbridge, Epsom, Cheltenham, Harrogate, and Scarborough. Sea-water is also much used for medical 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.

[CANALS.] Within the last fifty years a great number of canals have been cut in various parts of England, which have greatly contributed to the improvement of the country, and the facilitating of commercial intercourse between the trading towns. The first of these, in point of date, is the Sankey canal, the act of parliament for which was obtained in 1755. It was cut to convey coals from the coal-pits at St. Helens to the river Mersey, and so to Liverpool, and is in length 12 miles.

But the canals of the late duke of Bridgewater, the great father of inland navigation in this country, are of much greater importance, both for the extent and the natural difficulties that were surmounted by the fertile genius of that extraordinary mechanic, Mr. Brindley. Of these great works, the first was begun in 1758, at Worsley-mill, about seven miles from Manchester, where a basin is cut containing a great body of water which serves as a reservoir to the navigation. The canal runs through a hill, by a subterranean passage large enough for the admission of long flat-bottomed boats towed by hand-rails on each side, near three quarters of a mile, to the duke's coal-works. There the passage divides into two channels, one of which goes 500 yards to the right, and the other as many to the left. In some places the passage is cut through solid rock, in others arched over with brick. Air-funnels, some of which are 37 yards perpendicular, are cut, at certain distances, through the rock to the top of the hill. At Bartonbridge, three miles from the basin, is an aqueduct, which, for upwards of 200 yards, conveys the canal across a valley and the navigable river Irwell. There are three arches over this river; the centre one 63 feet wide, and 38 feet high above the water, which will admit the largest barges to go through with masts and sails standing. The whole of the navigation is more than 29 miles: it falls 95 feet; and was finished in 5 years.

The Grand Trunk or Staffordshire canal was begun in 1766, under the direction of Mr. Brindley, in order to form a communication between the Mersey and Trent, and in consequence between the Irish Sea and the German Ocean. It was completed in 1777, after the death of Mr.

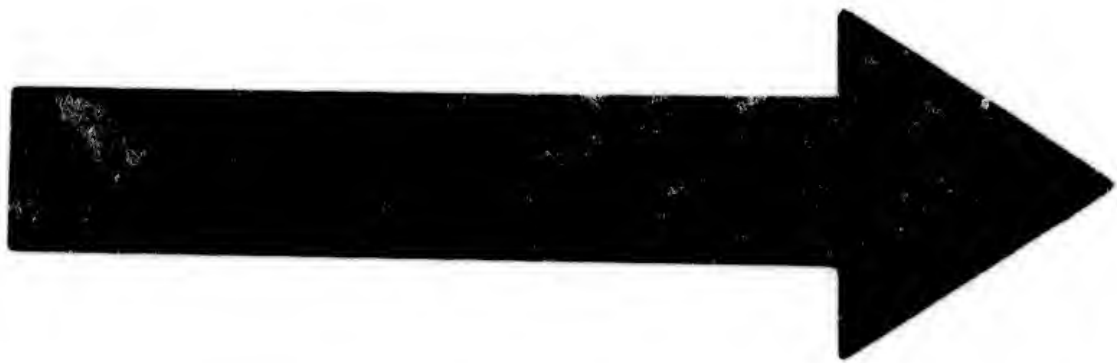
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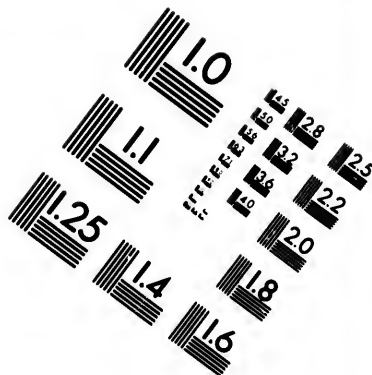
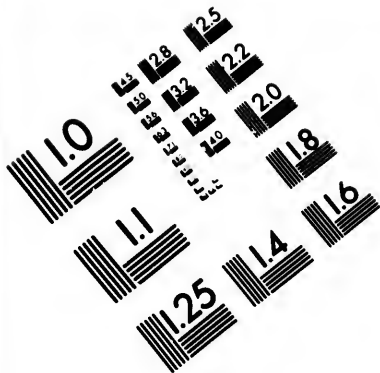
Brindley, who died in 1772, by his brother-in-law, Mr. Henshall. Its length is 22 miles; it is 29 feet broad at the top; 26 at the bottom, and five deep. It is carried over the river Dove by an aqueduct of 23 arches, and over the Trent by one of six. At the hill of Harecastle in Staffordshire, it is conveyed through a tunnel more than 70 yards below the surface of the ground, and 2880 yards in length. In the same neighbourhood there is another subterraneous passage of 350 yards, and at Preston on the Hill another 1241 yards in length. From the neighbourhood of Stafford a branch goes off from this canal, and joins the Severn near Bewdley: two other branches go, the one to Birmingham, and the other to Worcester.

The Braunston or Grand Junction canal (so called from its uniting the inland navigation of the central counties) extends from the Thames at Brentford, to the Oxford canal at Braunston in Northamptonshire. A branch of it likewise goes from Uxbridge to Paddington; and a plan has been proposed, and considerable sums of money subscribed, for extending a cut from the latter place to the new West-India docks at Blackwall: but whether this design will be carried into execution is as yet uncertain.

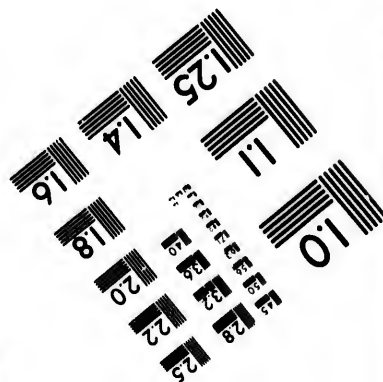
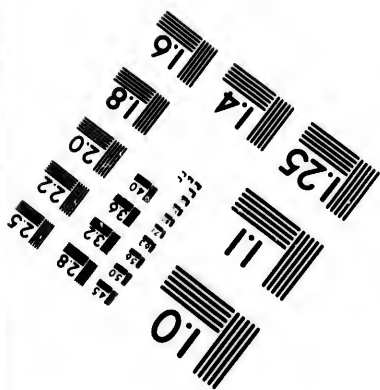
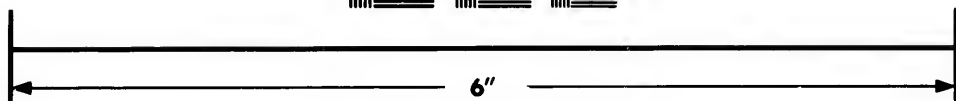
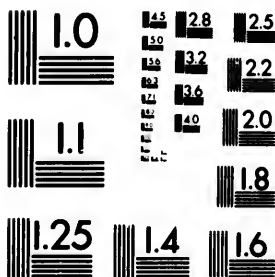
A great number of other canals have been cut in various parts of the kingdom; as the Lancaster canal; the canal from Liverpool to Leeds, carried through an extent of 117 miles; the canal from Halifax to Manchester, 31 miles; a canal from Basingstoke in Hampshire to the Thames at Weybridge; another from Andover in the same county to the river near Southampton; and many others, which it would be tedious here only to enumerate.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Among the minerals, the tin-mines of Cornwall deservedly take the lead. They were known to the Greeks and Phœnicians, the latter especially, some ages before the Christian æra; and since the English have found a method of manufacturing their tin into plates and white iron, they are of immense advantage to the nation, their annual produce amounting nearly to the value of 200,000*l.* including what is conveyed to foreign markets. These tin-works are under peculiar regulations, by what are called the stannary laws; and the miners have parliaments and privileges of their own, which are in force at this time. Iron is found in plenty in England: the principal mines of it are in Coalbrook-dale, Shropshire; Dean's forest in Gloucestershire, and some parts of the north of England. Lead is obtained in many parts of this island, particularly in Derbyshire, Yorkshire, Northumberland, and some counties in Wales. Near 20,000 tons of this metal are exported annually, notwithstanding great quantities are employed in different fabrications within the country. Of copper, Cornwall is said to furnish the value of 200,000*l.* annually, and the whole of the island to the amount of a million; the quantity exported having been estimated at above 1000 tons. The number of miners employed in Cornwall is said to amount to 100,000. There are no gold or silver mines in Britain; but particles of the former metal are found in the tin-mines of Cornwall, and some silver may be extracted from the ore of lead. Near Keswick in Cumberland is a rich mine of plumbago or black-lead, which the proprietors permit only to be opened once in six or seven years, to prevent the markets from being overstocked. Zinc, in the form of *lapis calaminaris*, is found in Cornwall and Derbyshire. Devonshire, and other counties of England, produce marble; but the best kind, which resembles Egyptian granite, is excessively hard to work. Quarries of freestone are found in many places. Near Northwich in Cheshire are





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immense mines of rock-salt, which were discovered about the beginning of the last century. The quarries extend over many acres, and their crystal roof, supported by pillars, has a most beautiful appearance. The pit at Witton is of a circular form, 108 yards in diameter, and the roof is supported by 25 pillars, each containing 294 solid yards of rock-salt. The annual produce of rock-salt at Northwich is estimated by Mr. Pennant at 65,000 tons. Cheshire likewise produces alum. The fullers-earth found in Berkshire, and in some other counties, is of such consequence to the clothing trade, that its exportation is prohibited under severe penalties. Pit and sea coal is found in many counties of England; but the city of London, to encourage the nursery of seamen, is chiefly supplied from the pits of Northumberland and the county of Durham. The cargoes are shipped at Newcastle and Sunderland. The exportation of coals to other countries is very considerable. The mines of Northumberland alone send every year upwards of 600,000 chaldron of coals to London; and 1500 vessels are employed in carrying them to that port along the eastern coast of England.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND AGRICULTURE.] England, from its insular situation and its proximity to the continent, is liable to a great uncertainty of weather; in consequence of which, the inhabitants, especially on several parts of the sea-coast, frequently suffer by agues and fevers. The air, in many places, is generally loaded with vapours wafted from the Atlantic Ocean by westerly winds; and the weather is so excessively capricious, and unfavourable to certain constitutions, that many of the inhabitants are induced to remove to a more regular climate for the restoration of their health. It cannot, however, be considered as in general insalubrious; as appears from the various instances of longevity which the country has afforded.

In consequence of the mutability of the climate, the seasons are very uncertain. Spring, summer, autumn, and winter, succeed each other; but in what month their different appearances will take place is very undetermined. The spring begins sometimes in February and sometimes in April. In May, the face of the country is often covered with hoar-frost instead of blossoms. The beginning of June is sometimes as cold as the middle of December; yet at other times the thermometer rises in that month as high as it does in Italy. Even August has its vicissitudes of heat and cold; and, upon an average, September, and next to it October, are the two most agreeable months in the year. The natives sometimes experience all the four seasons within the compass of one day—cold, temperate, hot, and mild weather. This inconstancy, however, is not attended with the effects that might be naturally apprehended. A fortnight, or at most three weeks, generally make up the difference with regard to the maturity of the fruits of the earth; and it is hardly ever observed that the inhabitants suffer by a hot summer.

The soil of England and Wales differs in every county, not merely from the nature of the ground, though that must be admitted to occasion a very considerable alteration, but from the progress made in each in the cultivation of lands and gardens, the draining of marshes, and many other local improvements, which are here carried to a much greater degree of perfection than they are perhaps in any other part of the world, if we except China. In no country is agriculture better understood, or prosecuted with greater zeal for improvement and assiduity. Excellent institutions for the improvement of agriculture are now common in England; and their members print periodical accounts of their discoveries and experiments. The publications of the Bath Society upon the sub-

ject of agriculture are well known; and such has been the attention of the nation to this important object, that his present majesty has been pleased, August 31, 1793, by letters-patent under the great seal, to constitute a board for the encouragement of agriculture and internal improvement. The proper cultivation of the soil is an object so peculiarly interesting to the community at large, that those who most assiduously attend to it are perhaps to be accounted the most meritorious citizens of their country. The art of gardening is likewise cultivated with great success in several places in the vicinity of the metropolis: a single acre of land employed in the production of vegetables and fruits, will yield 120*l.* annually; the ordinary consumption of such commodities in the capital being computed at more than a million sterling.

VEGETABLES.] England produces in abundance wheat, barley, rye, peas, beans, vetches, oats, and other grain. It is almost needless to mention, to the most uninformed reader, in what plenty the most excellent fruits, apples, pears, plums, cherries, peaches, apricots, nectarines, currants, gooseberries, raspberries, and other hortulan productions, grow here; and what quantities of cyder, perry, metheglin, and the like liquors, are made in some counties. The cyder of Devon and Herefordshire, when kept, and made of proper apples, and in a particular manner, is often preferred, by judicious palates, to French white-wine. The natives of England have made the different fruits of the world their own, sometimes by simple culture, but often by hot-beds and other means of forcing nature. The English pine-apples are delicious, and now plentiful. The same may be said of other natives of the East and West Indies, Persia, and Turkey. The English grapes are pleasing to the taste, but their flavour is not exalted enough for making 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, cabbages, celerworts, broccoli, peas, beans, kidney-beans, spinage, beets, lettuce, celerly, endive, turnips, carrots, potatoes, mushrooms, leeks, onions, and shallots.

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

ANIMALS.] The English oxen are large and fat; but some prefer for the table the smaller breed of the Scotch and Welch cattle, after grazing in English pastures. The English horses are the best in the world, whether we regard their spirit, strength, swiftness, or docility. Incredible have been the pains taken, by all ranks, 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. The irresistible spirit and weight of the English cavalry render them superior to all others in war; and an English hunter will perform what would appear incredible in a fox or stag chase. Those which draw carriages in the streets of London are often particularly beautiful. The exportation of horses has of late be-

come a considerable article of commerce. The breed of asses and mules begins likewise to be improved and encouraged in England.

The English sheep are of two kinds; those that are valuable for their fleece, and those that are proper for the table. The former are very large, and their fleeces constitute the original staple commodity of England. In some counties the inhabitants are as curious in their breed of rams as in those of their horses and dogs: and in Lincolnshire, particularly, it is no uncommon thing for one of these animals to sell for 50*l.* It must, however, be owned, that those large fat sheep are very rank eating. The late Mr. Bakewell of Leicestershire was particularly famous for his improvements in the breed of sheep. Four or five hundred, and, according to some accounts, a thousand guineas have been given for the use of one of his rams for a single season. It is thought that in England twelve millions of fleeces are shorn annually; which, at a medium of 2*s.* a fleece, make 1,200,000*l.* 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 the short bite, is little, if at all, inferior in flavour and sweetness to venison.

The English mastiffs and bull-dogs are said to be 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 bull-dogs upon one of the fiercest lions in the Tower, and they soon conquered him. The mastiff, however, has all the courage of the bull-dog, without its ferocity, and is particularly distinguished for his fidelity and docility. All the different species of dogs that abound in other countries, for the field as well as domestic uses, are to be found in England.

What has been 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 of these 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 much the same in England as in other countries; turkeys, peacocks, common poultry, such as cocks, pullets, and capons, geese, swans, ducks, and tame pigeons. The wild sort are bustards, wild geese, wild ducks, teal, wigeon, plover, pheasants, partridges, woodcocks, grouse, quail, landrail, snipe, wood-pigeons, hawks of different kinds, kites, owls, herons, crows, rooks, ravens, magpies, jack-daws and jays, blackbirds, thrushes, nightingales, goldfinches, linnets, larks, and a great variety of small birds; Canary-birds also 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.

Few countries are better supplied than England with river and sea fish. Her rivers and ponds contain plenty of salmon, trout, eels, pike, perch, smelts, carp, tench, barbel, gudgeons, roach, dace, grey mullet, bream, plaice, flounders, and cray-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, mackerel, haddock, whiting, herrings, pilchard, skait, 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 coast. As to shell-fish, they are chiefly oysters, the propagation of which, upon their proper banks, requires a peculiar culture. Lobsters, crabs, shrimps,

and escallops, one of the most delicious of shell-fishes, cockles, wilks, periwinkles, and muscels, with many other small shell-fish, abound in the English seas. The whales chiefly visit the northern coast; but great numbers of porpoises and seals appear in the Channel.

With regard to reptiles, such as adders, vipers, snakes, and worms; and insects, such as ants, gnats, wasps, and flies, England nearly resembles the rest of Europe; and the difference, if any, becomes more proper for natural history than geography.

NATURAL CURIOSITIES.] Among the natural curiosities of this country, those of Derbyshire appear to deserve the first place. Elden Hole, about four miles from Mam Tor, or the Mother Tower, which is superstitiously said to be continually mouldering away but never to diminish, is a chasm in the side of a mountain, nearly seven yards wide, and fourteen long; diminishing in extent within the rock; but of what depth is not known. A plummet once drew 884 yards of line after it, of which 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 cavern. 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 stupendous cavern at Castleton, which is from its hideousness named the Devil's Arse, is wide at first, and upwards of thirty feet perpendicular. Several cottagers dwell under it, who in a great measure 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 beautiful appearance, being chequered with various coloured stones.

Other extraordinary caverns are found in the mountains of the north of England, as Yordas Cave, in the vale of Kingsdale in Yorkshire, which contains a subterraneous cascade. Wethercot Cave, not far from Ingleton, is divided by an arch of limestone, passing under which is seen a large cascade falling from a height of more than 20 yards. The length of this cave is about 60 yards, and the breadth 30.

There are also, in various parts of England, many remarkable springs, of which some are impregnated either with salt, as that of Droitwich in Worcestershire; or sulphur, as the famous well of Wigan in Lancashire; or bituminous matter, as that at Pitchford in Shropshire. Others have a petrifying quality, as that near Lutterworth in Leicestershire, and a dropping well in the West Riding of Yorkshire. 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 strong a heat that meat may be boiled over it. The fluid itself will not burn when taken out of the well*.

POPULATION.] The population of England has been variously estimated by different writers; but according to the returns under the late act, which, though they may not be perfectly accurate, certainly form a document of very considerable authority, the number of inhabitants is

In England	8,614,234
Wales	541,546
Scotland	1,607,760
Army	198,351
Navy	126,279
Seamen in registered vessels	144,558
Convicts	1,410

Total . . . 11,234,138

To which if we add four millions, or somewhat more, which Ireland is estimated to contain, we shall have, for the whole population of the united kingdom, above fifteen millions of souls.

NATIONAL CHARACTER, MANNERS, CUSTOMS.] Englishmen, in their persons, are generally well-sized, regularly featured, commonly fair, rather than otherwise, and florid in their complexions. The women, in their shape, features, and complexion, appear so graceful and lovely, that England may be termed the native country of female beauty. But beside the external graces so peculiar to the women in England, they are still more to be valued for their prudent behaviour, thorough cleanliness, and a tender affection for their husbands and children, and all the engaging duties of domestic life.

In their dispositions the English are rather grave and phlegmatic, but not without an occasional mixture of vivacity, as they are perhaps not inferior to any nation in true wit and genuine humour. They are remarkable for a nervous sensibility, which has been considered as one of the sources of those singularities which so strongly characterise the English nation. They sometimes magnify the slightest appearances into realities, and bring the most distant dangers immediately home to themselves; and yet, when real danger approaches, no people face it with greater resolution or constancy of mind. They are fond of clubs and convivial associations; and when these are kept within the bounds of temperance and moderation, they prove the best cure for those mental evils, which are so peculiar to the English, that foreigners have pronounced them to be national.

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; but they travel for the purposes of society, and at the more advanced ages of life, when their judgements 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

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

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 enter into the higher walks of life, affect what we call a snug rather 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 connexions they form are sincere, cheerful, and indissoluble. The like habits descend pretty far into the lower ranks, and are often discernible among tradesmen. This love of snugness and conveniency may be called the ruling passion of the English people, and is the ultimate end of all their application, labours, and fatigues. A good economist, 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 settle his money in the funds. He then commonly resides in a comfortable house in the country, often his native county, and expects to be treated on the footing of a gentleman; but his style of living is always judiciously suited to his circumstances.

The humanity of the English is manifested in the large subscriptions for public charities, raised by all degrees of both sexes. Poor and miserable objects are relieved in England with the greatest liberality. The very persons who contribute to those collections are at the same time assessed in proportion to their property for their parochial poor, who have a legal demand for their maintenance; and upwards of three millions sterling is said to be collected yearly in this country for charitable purposes. The institutions, however, of extra-parochial 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, qualified or unqualified, 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.

An Englishman of education and reading, is, perhaps, the most accomplished gentleman in the world: he is, however, shy and reserved in his communications. This unamiable coldness is so far from being affected, that it is a part of his natural constitution. Living learning and genius often meet not with their suitable regard, even from the first-rate 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 patronise men of literary abilities; but the pecuniary encouragements given them were but very moderate; and the very few who met with preferments in the state might have earned them by a competent knowledge of business, and that pliability which the dependents in office generally possess. We scarcely have an instance, even in the magnificent reign of queen Anne, or of her predecessors, who owed so much to the press, of a man of genius, as such, being made easy in his circumstances. Mr. Addison had about 300*l.* a year of the public money to assist him in his travels; and Mr. Pope, though a Roman-catholic, was offered the like pension, by Mr. Craggs, the whig secretary of state, but did not accept of it; and it was remarked, that his tory friend and companion, the earl of Oxford, when sole minister, did nothing for him but bewail his misfortune in being a papist. Indeed, a few men of di-

stinguished literary abilities, as well as some without, have of late received pensions from the crown; but, from the conduct of some of them, it should seem that state and party services have been expected in return.

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 many of their convivial meetings they are very noisy, and their wit is often offensive, while the loudest are the most applauded. This is particularly apt to be the case in large companies; but, in smaller and more select parties, all the pleasures of rational conversation and agreeable society are enjoyed in England in a very high degree.

The courage of the English is cool and firm; if they have not that ardour of attack sometimes displayed by the French, they can support and defeat such an attack. 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 excel 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 is the cause of the numerous instances of mental absence that are to be found in the nation.

All that has been said concerning the English is to be understood of them in general, as they are at present, or rather, perhaps, as they were; for it is not to be dissembled, that every day produces strong indications of great alterations in their manners. The great fortunes made during the late and the preceding wars, the immense acquisitions of territory 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 finance in the nation. Among the commercial ranks we find 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 of dress and equipage, and the most expensive amusements and diversions, not only in the capital, but throughout the trading towns in the kingdom.

Even the customs of the English have, since the beginning of the last century, undergone an almost total alteration. Their ancient hospitality subsists but in few places in the country, or is revived only upon electioneering 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. Stag and fox hunting, and horse-races, are sports of which many of the English 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 increased and improved by those amusements. Next to horse-racing and hunting, cock-fighting, to the reproach of the nation, is a favourite diversion among the great as well as the vulgar. Multitudes of both classes assemble round the pit at one of those matches, and enjoy the

pangs and death of this generous animal; every spectator being concerned in a bet, sometimes of a high sum. 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. Many other pastimes are common in England, some of them of a very robust nature, such as cudgelling, wrestling, bowls, skittles, quoits, and prison-base; not to mention duck-hunting, foot and ass races, dancing, puppet-shows, 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 as the shows of gladiators in Rome, are now prohibited, though often practised; and all places of public diversion, excepting the royal theatres, are under regulations by act of parliament. Other diversions, which are common in 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 patronised and encouraged by his present majesty's father, the late prince of Wales, and may be considered as a national improvement. The English are amazingly 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 farmer and country people destroy the game in the nest, 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.

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 to the honour of the court, that the foreign manufactures of all these are discouraged. Some of these rich stuffs are said to be brought to as great perfection in England as they are in France, or any other nation. 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 best of linen. 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 tie-perukes, and swords, was formerly remarkable, if not ridiculous, now dress like other gentlemen and men of business. 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 particular occasions, are superb beyond description. Few, even of the lowest tradesmen, on Sundays, carry about them less than 10*l.* in clothing, comprehending hat, stockings, shoes, and linen; and even many beggars in the streets appear decent in their dress. In short, none but the most abandoned of both sexes are otherwise; and the appearance of an artisan or manufacturer, in holiday times, is commonly an indication of his industry and morals.

CITIES, CHIEF TOWNS, EDIFICES PUBLIC AND PRIVATE.] London,

the metropolis of the British empire, and perhaps the most populous and wealthy city in the world, 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 round, with hewn stones and British bricks, by Constantine the Great; and the walls formed an oblong square, in compass about three miles, with seven principal gates. The same emperor made it a bishop's see; for it appears that the bishops of London and York, and another English bishop, were at the council of Arles, in the year 314. He also established a mint in it, as is plain from some of his coins.

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

It is situated on the banks of the Thames, a river which, though not the largest, is the richest and most commodious for commerce of any in the world; it being continually filled with fleets sailing to or from the most distant climates; and its banks, from London-bridge to Black-wall, are almost one continued great magazine of naval stores, containing three large wet docks, 32 dry docks, and 33 yards for the building of ships for the use of the merchants, beside the places allotted for the building of boats and lighters, and the king's yards, down the river, for the building of men of war. As this city is about 60 miles distant from the sea, it enjoys, by means of this noble river, all the benefits of navigation, without the danger of being surprised by foreign fleets, or of being annoyed by the moist vapours of the sea. It rises regularly from the water-side, and, extending itself on both sides along its banks, reaches a prodigious length from east to west, in a kind of amphitheatre towards the north, and is continued for near 20 miles on all sides, in a succession of magnificent villas and populous villages, the country seats of gentlemen and tradesmen; whither the latter retire for the benefit of fresh air, and to relax their minds from the hurry of business. The regard paid by the legislature to the property of the subject has hitherto prevented any bounds being fixed for its extension.

The irregular form of this city makes it difficult to ascertain its extent. However, its length from east to west is generally allowed to be above seven miles, from Hyde-park Corner to Poplar: and its breadth in some places three, in others two, and in others, again, not much above half a mile. Hence the circumference of the whole is almost 18 miles; or, according to a modern measurement, the extent of continued and still increasing buildings is 35 miles, 2 furlongs, and 39 roods.

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, amounting, by the returns under the late population act, to 885,577; and from the number of edifices devoted to the service of religion.

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

There are also in and near this city 100 alms-houses; about 20 hospitals and infirmaries; 3 colleges; 10 public prisons; 15 flesh-markets; 1 market for live cattle; 2 other markets more particularly for herbs; and 23 other markets for corn, coals, hay, &c.; 15 inns of court; 37 public squares, besides those within single buildings, as the Temple, &c.; 3 bridges; 49 halls for companies; 8 public schools, called free-schools; and 131 charity schools, which provide education for 5034 poor children: 207 inns; 447 taverns; 551 coffee-houses; 5975 ale-houses: 1200 hackney-coaches; 400 ditto chairs; 7000 streets, lanes, courts, and alleys; and 130,000 dwelling-houses, containing, as has been already observed, nearly 900,000 inhabitants, who, according to calculations made so many years ago that they may be considered as low in the present enlarged state of this great city, consume annually 101,000 black cattle; 710,000 sheep; 193,000 calves; 240,000 swine and pigs; 1,172,500 barrels of strong beer; 3000 tuns of foreign wines; and eleven millions of gallons of rum, brandy, and other distilled liquors; with 500,000 chaldrons of coals for fuel.

London-bridge was first built of stone in the reign of Henry II. about the year 1163, by a tax laid upon wool, which, in the course of time, gave rise to the notion that it was built upon wool-packs: from that time it has undergone many alterations and improvements, particularly since the year 1756, when the houses were taken down, and the whole rendered more convenient and beautiful. The passage for carriages is 31 feet broad, and 7 feet on each side for foot passengers. It crosses the Thames where it is 915 feet broad, and has 19 arches of about 20 feet wide each; but the centre one is considerably larger.

Westminster-bridge is reckoned one of the most complete and elegant structures of the kind known in the 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 balustrade of stone, with places of shelter from the rain. The width of the bridge is 44 feet; having on each side a fine foot-way for passengers. It consists of 14 piers, and 13 large and two small arches, all semicircular, that in the centre being 76 feet wide, and the rest decreasing four feet each from the other; so that the two least arches of the 13 great ones are each 52 feet. This magnificent structure was begun in 1738, and finished 1750, at the expense of 389,000*l.* defrayed by the parliament.

Blackfriars-bridge is not inferior to 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 persons even prefer it to Westminster-bridge. This bridge was begun in 1760, and finished in 1770, at the expense of 152,840*l*.

The cathedral of St. Paul is the most capacious, magnificent, and regular protestant church in the world. The length within is 500 feet; and its height, from the marble pavement to the cross on the top of the cupola, is 340. It is built of Portland stone, according to the Greek and Roman orders, in the form of a cross, after the model of St. Peter's at Rome, to which, in some respects, it is superior. St. Paul's church is the principal work of sir Christopher Wren, and, undoubtedly, the only work of the same magnitude that ever was completed by one man. He lived to a great age, and finished the building 37 years after he himself laid the first stone. It occupies six acres of ground, though the whole length of this church measures no more than the width of St. Peter's. The expense of building, or rather 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, 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's-le-Bow, and St. Bride's, which are supposed to be the most complete in their kind of any in Europe. The simplicity of the portico in Covent-garden is worthy the purest ages of ancient 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 style and execution of architecture.

Westminster-hall, though on the outside it makes no very advantageous appearance, is a noble Gothic building, and is said to be the largest room in the world the roof of which is not supported by pillars; it being 230 feet long, and 70 broad. The roof is the finest of its kind. Here are held the coronation-feasts of our kings and queens; also the courts of chancery, king's-bench, common-pleas, and exchequer.

The Monument, erected at the charge of the city, to perpetuate the memory of its being destroyed by fire, is 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, whence there are other steps to the top, 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, are 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, stating when the pillar was begun and finished. The charge of erecting this monument, which was begun by sir Christopher Wren in 1671, and finished by him in 1677, amounted to upwards of 13,000*l*.

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

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

We might here give a description of the Tower, Bank of England, the new Treasury, the Admiralty-office, and the Horse-guards at Whitehall, the Mansion-house, or house of the lord-mayor, the Custom-house, Excise-office, India-house, and a vast number of other public buildings; beside the magnificent edifices raised by our nobility; as lord Spencer's house, Marlborough-house, and Buckingham-house, in St. James's-park; the earl of Chesterfield's-house near Hyde-park; the duke of Devonshire's, and the late earl of Bath's, in Piccadilly; the marquis of Lansdown's in Berkeley-square; Northumberland-house in the Strand; Montague-house (the British Museum*), in Bloomsbury; Carlton-house, the residence of his royal highness the prince of Wales, in Pall-Mall; Foley-house, and Burlington-house; with a number of others of the nobility and gentry: but these would be sufficient to fill a large volume.

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

Before the conflagration in 1666, London (which, like most other great cities, had arisen from small beginnings) was totally inelegant, inconvenient, and unhealthy; which latter misfortune, without doubt, proceeded from the narrowness of the streets, and the unaccountable projections of the buildings, that confined the putrid air, and, joined with other circumstances, such as the want of water, rendered the city seldom free from pestilential contagion. 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 it by no means had the character of magnificence or elegance, in many particulars; and it is ever to be lamented 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.

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 easily be conceived for a city of extensive commerce, on the border of so noble a river as the Thames. The wharfs and quays on its banks are extremely mean and inconvenient; and the want of regularity and

* 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.

uniformity in the streets of the city of London, and the mean avenues to many parts of it, are also circumstances that greatly lessen the grandeur of its appearance. Many of the churches, and other public buildings, are likewise thrust up in corners, in such a manner as might tempt foreigners to believe that they were designed to be concealed. The improvements of the city of London for some years past have however been very great; and the new streets, which are numerous, are spacious, and built with great regularity and elegance.

In the centre of the town, and upon the banks of the noblest river in Europe, was a chain of wretched, ruinous houses, known by the name of Durham-yard, the Savoy, and Somerset-house. The first, being private property, engaged the notice of the ingenious Adams, who opened the way to a piece of scenery, which no city in Europe can equal. On the site of Durham-yard was raised, upon arches, the pile of the Adelphi, celebrated for its enchanting prospect, the utility of its wharfs, and its subterraneous apartments, answering a variety of purposes of general benefit. Contiguous to the Adelphi stands the Savoy, the property of government, hitherto a nuisance; and, adjoining to the Savoy, towards the Temple, stood Somerset-house, where, being the property of government also, a pile of buildings for public offices has been erected; and here, in a very magnificent edifice, are elegant apartments appropriated for the use of the Royal Society, the Royal Academy of painting and sculpture, and the Society of Antiquaries.

Moorfields, long a waste and mean part of the town, has become the site of a square called Finsbury-square, more regular and elegant than many of those at the west end of the metropolis. The narrow and inconvenient passage of Snow-hill has been opened by a spacious street of lofty and elegant houses. A considerable improvement of the same nature is likewise making at Temple-bar, though the gate is still suffered to remain. Near Bedford-square, which is likewise of recent date, the new streets and squares now building on the estate of the duke of Bedford, and which were planned and begun by the late duke, are on a most extensive and sumptuous scale. A spirit of improvement, indeed, seems universal among all degrees of people.

The roads leading to this great metropolis are not only lighted by lamps regularly placed on each side at short distances, but are rendered more secure by watchmen stationed within call of each other. 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, Oxford-street, &c. convey an idea of elegance and magnificence.

Foreigners are surprised that the monarch of the richest nation in Europe should be so indifferently lodged in his capital. The palace of St. James 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. Other houses, though belonging to the king, are far from deserving the name of royal.

Windsor-castle is the only fabric that merits 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 the favourite residence of king William. It is built in the Dutch taste, and has some good apartments, and, like Windsor, is near the Thames. Both these 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.

Next to the royal palaces, if not superior, in magnificence and expensive decorations, are many private seats in the neighbourhood of London, and in every part of the kingdom, in which the amazing opulence of the English nation shines forth in its fullest point of view. In these also the princely fortunes of the nobility are made subservient to the finest classical taste; witness the seats of the marquis of Buckingham and earl Pembroke. At the seat of the latter, more remains of antiquity are to be found than are in the possession of, perhaps, any other subject.

The houses of the English nobility and gentry are peculiarly distinguished by the appropriate adaptation of their parts, the richness and elegance of their furniture, and the admirable preservation in which the whole is kept; as well as by their hortulane and rural decorations, vistas, opening landscapes, temples;—all the result of that enchanting art of imitating nature, and uniting beauty with magnificence.

It cannot be expected that we should here enter into a particular detail of all the cities and towns of England, which would far exceed the limits of this work: we shall therefore only mention some of the most considerable.

York is a city of great antiquity, pleasantly situated on the river Ouse. It is surrounded with a good wall, through which are four gates and five posterns. Here are seventeen parish-churches, and a very noble cathedral, or minster—it being one of the finest Gothic buildings in England. It extends in length 525 feet, and in breadth 110 feet. The nave, which is larger than any in Christendom, except that of St. Peter's church at Rome, is four feet and a half wider, and eleven feet higher, than that of St. Paul's cathedral at London. At the west end are two towers, connected and supported by an arch which forms the west entrance, and is reckoned the largest Gothic arch in Europe. The windows are finely painted, and the front of the choir is adorned with statues of all the kings of England, from William the Norman to Henry VI.; and there are thirty-two stalls, all of fine marble, with pillars, each consisting of one piece of alabaster. Here is also a very neat Gothic chapter-house. Near the cathedral is the Assembly-house, which is a noble structure, and which was designed by the late earl of Burlington. The city has a stone bridge of five arches over the river Ouse. It contains above 16,000 inhabitants.

Bristol is reckoned the second city in the British dominions, for trade, wealth, and the number of its inhabitants. It stands upon the north and south side of the river Avon; and the two parts of the city are connected by a stone bridge. The city is not well built; but, according to the late enumeration, contains 10,896 houses, and 63,645 inhabitants. Here is a cathedral and eighteen parish churches, besides seven or eight other places of worship. On the north side of a large square, called Queen's-square, which is adorned with rows of trees, and an equestrian statue of William the Third, there is a custom-house, with a quay half a mile in length, said to be one of the most commodious in England, for shipping and landing of merchants' goods. The Exchange, where the merchants and traders meet, is all of freestone, and is one of the best of its kind in Europe.

Liverpool, situate at the mouth of the river Mersey, carries on an extensive traffic, and its population exceeds Bristol; containing, in 1801,

77,653 inhabitants. Its naturally advantageous situation has been considerably improved by art; particularly by the construction of three basins, or wet-docks, capable of containing near 400 ships of 500 tons in perfect security.

The city of Exeter was for some time the seat of the West-Saxon kings; and the walls, which at this time enclose it, were built by king Athelstan, who encompassed it also with a ditch. It is one of the first cities in England, as well on account of its buildings and wealth, as its extent, and the number of its inhabitants. It has six gates, and, including its suburbs, is more than two miles in circumference. There are sixteen parish churches, besides chapels, and five large meeting-houses, within the walls of this city. The trade of Exeter, in serges, perpetuans, long-ells, druggets, kerseys, and other woollen goods, is very great. Ships come up to this city by means of sluices.

The city of Gloucester stands on a pleasant hill, with houses on every descent, and is a clean, well-built town, with the Severn on one side, a branch of which brings ships up to it. The cathedral here is an ancient and magnificent structure; and there are also five parish churches.

Litchfield stands in a valley, three miles south of the Trent, and is divided by a stream which runs into that river. The cathedral was founded in the year 1148: it was much damaged during the civil war, but was so completely repaired soon after the Restoration, that it is now one of the noblest Gothic structures in England. Litchfield is thought to be the most considerable city in the north-west of England, except Chester.

Chester is a large, populous, and wealthy city, with a noble bridge, that has a gate at each end, and twelve arches over the Dee, which falls into the sea. It has eleven parishes, and nine well-built churches. The streets are generally even and spacious, and, crossing one another in straight lines, meet in the centre. The walls were first erected by Edelfleda, a Mercian lady, in the year 908, and join on the south side of the city to the castle, from whence there is a pleasant walk round the city upon the walls, except where it is intercepted by some of the towers over the gates; and from thence there is a prospect of Flintshire, and the mountains of Wales.

Warwick is a town of great antiquity, and appears to have been of eminence even in the time of the Romans. It stands upon a rock of free-stone, on the banks of the Avon: and a way is cut to it through the rocks, from each of the four cardinal points. The town is populous, and the streets are spacious and regular, and all meet in the centre of the town.

The city of Coventry is large and populous. It was formerly surrounded by a strong wall, and had twelve noble gates. It has a handsome town-house, and three parish churches, the steeple of one of which (St. Michael's) is esteemed a master-piece of architecture.

Salisbury is a large, neat, and well-built city, situated in a valley, and watered by the Upper Avon on the west and south, and by the Bourne on the east. The streets are generally spacious, and built at right angles. The cathedral, which was finished in 1359, at the expense of above 26,000*l.* is, for a Gothic building, the most elegant and regular in the kingdom. It is in the form of a lantern, with a beautiful spire of free-stone in the middle, which is 410 feet high, being the tallest in England. The length of the church is 478 feet, the breadth is 76 feet, and the height of the vaulting 80 feet. The church has a cloister, which is 150 feet square, and of as fine workmanship as any in England. The chap-

ter-house, which is an octagon, is 150 feet in circumference; and yet the roof bears all upon one small pillar in the centre, so much too weak, in appearance, for the support of such a prodigious weight, that the construction of this building is thought one of the greatest curiosities in England.

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

Nottingham is pleasantly situate on the ascent of a rock, overlooking the river Trent, which runs parallel with it about a mile to the south, and has been made navigable. It is one of the neatest places in England, and has a considerable trade.

Manchester, situate at the confluence of the rivers Irk and Irwell in Lancashire, though considered only as a village or market-town, exceeds in population every other town or city in England except the metropolis; the number of its inhabitants in 1801 being 84,020. This it owes to its immense cotton manufactories, which, beside the towns-people, are said to give employment to fifty or sixty thousand persons.

Birmingham in Warwickshire, and Sheffield in the southern part of Yorkshire, contain extensive manufactories of different kinds of hardware and cutlery; and both (the former especially) are in consequence extremely populous, the number of inhabitants being in the former, in 1801, 73,670, and in the latter 31,314.

No nation in the world has such dock-yards, and all conveniences for construction and repairs of the royal navy, as Portsmouth (the most regular fortification in England), Plymouth (by far the best dock-yard), Chatham, Woolwich, and Deptford. The Royal Hospital at Greenwich, for superannuated seamen, is scarcely exceeded by any royal palace, for its magnificence and expense.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] It is well known that commerce and manufactures have raised the English to be the first and most powerful people in the world. Historical reviews, on this head, would be tedious. It is sufficient then 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, particularly Virginia, but left the expense 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 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 though the Stuarts were not friendly to the latter, yet, during the reigns of the princes of that family, the trade of the nation was greatly increased. It is not intended to follow

Commerce through all her fluctuations, but only to give a general representation of the commercial interest of the nation.

The present system of English politics may properly be said to have taken rise in the reign of queen Elizabeth. At that 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 arose, 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 shipping of the two nations, with which he kept all the coasts of Europe in alarm, till the armada he had raised at a vast expense 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 independent and powerful commonwealth.

When the inhabitants of the Low-Countries had formed their system of government, and some remission of the war gave them leisure to provide for their 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 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.

When queen Elizabeth entered upon the government, the customs produced only 36,000*l.* a year: at the Restoration, they were let to farm for 400,000*l.*, and produced considerably above double that sum before the Revolution. The people of London, before we had any planta-

tions, and when our trade was inconsiderable, were computed at about 100,000; at the death of queen Elizabeth they were increased to 150,000, and are now nearly six times that number. In those days we had not only naval stores, but 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 brought to us from Spain; and the Venetians and Genoese retailed to us the commodities of the East Indies at their own price. The legal interest of money was twelve 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 lately belonged to the American colonies.

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, pit-coal, 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 foreign vessels 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, liquorice, watches, ribands, toys, &c.

There is scarcely a manufacture in Europe but what is brought to great perfection in England. The woollen manufacture is the most considerable, and exceeds in goodness and quantity that of any other nation. Hardware is another principal article: locks, edge-tools, guns, swords, and other arms, are of superior excellence; household utensils of brass, iron, and pewter, also, are very great articles; and our clocks and watches are in great esteem.

Of the British commerce, that branch which we enjoyed exclusively, viz. the commerce with our colonies, was long regarded as the most advantageous. Yet, since the separation of the American States from Great Britain, the trade, the industry, and manufactures of the latter have continually increased. New markets have opened, the returns from which are more certain and less tedious than those from America. By supplying a greater variety of markets, the skill and ingenuity of our artisans have taken a wider range; the productions of their labour have been adapted to the wants, not of rising colonies, but of nations the most wealthy and the most refined; and our commercial system, no longer resting on the artificial basis of monopoly, has been rendered more solid as well as more liberal. The trade of England to the United States, in a variety of articles, is likewise very considerable.

The principal islands belonging to the English, in the West Indies, are Jamaica, Barbadoes, St. Christopher's, Grenada, Antigua, St. Vincent, Dominica, Anguilla, Nevis, Montserrat, the Bermudas or Somers' Islands, and the Bahama or Lucayan Islands in the Atlantic Ocean; besides Trinidad, ceded to England by the late treaty of Amiens, and St. Lucia, recently taken from the French.

The English trade with their West-India Islands consists chiefly in

sugars, rum, cotton, logwood, cocoa, coffee, pimento, ginger, indigo, materials for dyers, mahogany and manchineel planks, drugs and preserves. For these, the exports from England are Osnaburghs, 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; hats; red caps for their slaves of both sexes; stockings and shoes of all sorts; gloves and 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, chisels, adzes, hoes, mattocks, gouges, planes, augers, nails, lead, powder, and shot; brass and copper wares; toys, coals, and pantiles; cabinet-wares, snuffs; and in general whatever is raised or manufactured in Great Britain; also negroes from Africa, and all sorts of Indian goods.

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. This company exports to the East Indies all kinds of woollen manufacture, all sorts of hardware, lead, bullion, and quicksilver. Their imports consist of gold, diamonds, raw silks, drugs, tea, pepper, arrack, porcelain or China-ware, salt-petre for home-consumption; and of wrought silks, muslins, calicoes, cottons, and all the woven manufactures of India, for exportation to foreign countries.

To Turkey, England sends, in her own bottoms, woollen cloths, tin, lead, and iron, hardware, iron utensils, clocks, watches, verdigris, spices, cochineal, and logwood. She imports from thence raw silks, carpets, skins, dyeing 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 the Turkey trade at present is at a very low ebb with the French as well as the English.

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.

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 the American colonies; and receives in return, wines, oils, dried fruits, oranges, lemons, olives, wool, indigo, cochineal, and other dyeing drugs, colours, gold and silver coin.

Portugal formerly was, upon commercial accounts, the favourite ally of England, whose fleets and armies have more than once saved her from destruction. England sends to this country almost the same kind of merchandises as to Spain, and receives in return vast quantities of wines, with oils, salt, dried and moist fruits, dyeing drugs, and gold coin.

The direct trade with France, Holland, and Flanders, has been interrupted by the late and present wars, though great quantities of English commodities still continue to be introduced into those countries through the ports of the north of Germany.

England sends to the coast of Guinea sundry sorts of coarse woollen and linen, iron, pewter, brass, and hardware manufactures, lead, shot, swords, knives, fire-arms, gunpowder, and glass manufactures. And, besides its drawing no money out of the kingdom, it lately supplied the

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American colonies with negro slaves, amounting in number to above 100,000 annually. The other returns are in gold-dust, gum, dyeing 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 brass; and brings home from those remote regions, muslins and cottons of many various kinds, calicoes, raw and wrought silk, chintz, teas, porcelain, gold-dust, coffee, salt-petre, and many other drugs. And so great a quantity of those various merchandises is exported to foreign European nations, as more than abundantly compensates for all the silver bullion which England carries out.

During the infancy of commerce to foreign parts, it was judged expedient to grant exclusive charters to particular bodies or corporations of men; hence the East-India, South-Sea, Hudson's-Bay, Turkey, Russia, and Royal-African companies; but the trade to Turkey, Russia, and Africa, is now laid open; though the merchant who proposes to trade thither must become a member of the company, be subject to their laws and regulations, and advance a small sum at admission, for the purpose of supporting consuls, forts, &c.

The prodigious extent of the trade of England, and its great and rapid increase of late years, will clearly appear from a comparative statement of the imports and exports at different periods; the value of which, including foreign merchandise and manufactures, in the years undermentioned, was as follows:

	Imports.		Exports.
1772,	14,500,000 <i>l.</i>	17,719,000 <i>l.</i>
1783,	13,325,000 <i>l.</i>	14,741,000 <i>l.</i>
1792,	19,629,000 <i>l.</i>	24,878,000 <i>l.</i>
1797,	21,450,000 <i>l.</i>	28,917,000 <i>l.</i>

And on the 22d of June, 1802, the chancellor of the exchequer, Mr. Addington, stated to the house of commons, that the real value of imports in the year ending the 5th of January, supposing the imports from the East Indies to be the same as in the preceding year, might be estimated at about 58,680,000*l.*; that the real value of British manufactures exported in the year 1801 might be estimated at 41,770,000*l.*; and that of foreign merchandise at 15,750,000*l.*, making for the whole of the exportation 57,520,000*l.*

He at the same time stated, that the number of registered vessels belonging to the British dominions, employed in trade in the year 1801, was 19,772; their tonnage 2,037,317; and their number of men 143,987.

As the quantity of circulating specie may in some measure indicate the extent of commerce, we may judge of the increase of the latter by comparing the sums which the three last monarchs found it necessary to coin. By George I., 8,725,921*l.* sterling were coined. In the long reign (thirty-three years) of George II., 11,966,576*l.* sterling; and in the first twenty-four years of his present majesty's reign the sums coined amounted to 33,089,274*l.* sterling.

Our 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 manufac-

tures are common to almost all the western counties. Dorsetshire makes 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 is said to employ 2000 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. Extensive manufactures of all kinds (glass, jewellery, clocks, watches, and cutlery, in particular) are carried on in London, and its neighbourhood; the gold and silver manufactures of London 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 manufacture of baize and serges; Exeter for serges and long-ells; and Norwich for its excellent stuffs, camlets, 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 hardware manufactures, particularly snuff and tobacco boxes, buttons, 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 hardwares, that they can afford them for a fourth part of the price at which other nations can furnish the same of an inferior kind: the cheapness of coals and all necessaries, and the convenience of situation, no doubt, contribute greatly to this. One company of iron manufacturers in Shropshire use every day 500 tons of coals in their iron works. In Great Britain there are made every year from 50 to 60,000 tons of pig-iron, and from 20 to 30,000 tons of bar-iron.

The northern counties of England carry on a prodigious trade in the coarser and slighter woollen manufactures; witness those of Halifax, Leeds, Wakefield, and Richmond; and, above all, Manchester, which by its variety of beautiful cottons, dimities, ticken, checks, and the like stuffs, is become a large and populous place, though only a village, and its highest magistrate a constable. Beautiful porcelain and earthen-ware have of late years been manufactured in different places in England, particularly in Worcestershire and Staffordshire. The English carpets, especially those of Axminster, Wilton, and Kidderminster, though but a late manufacture, greatly excel in beauty any imported from Turkey, and are extremely durable, and consequently are a vast saving to the nation. Paper, which was formerly imported in vast quantities from France and Holland, is now made in every corner of the kingdom.

The English manufactures have been lately estimated at the annual value of 63,600,000*l.*, and supposed to employ 1,385,000 people: of this sum, the woollen manufacture is stated to produce about 15,000,000*l.*; the leather 10,000,000*l.*; the iron, tin, and lead 10,000,000*l.*; and the cotton 9,000,000*l.*

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] 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 this to be a mistake; for, by contrivances unknown to antiquity, the English constitution has existed for above 500 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

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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 nearly 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 titles 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 increase 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. To Alfred we owe that master-piece of judicial policy, the subdivision of England into wapentakes and hundreds, and the subdivision of hundreds into tithings, 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 12 or 16 men, living in the neighbourhood of the place where the dispute lay; and here we have the origin of English juries. It is certain that they were in use among the earliest Saxon colonies, their institution being ascribed by bishop Nicholson to Woden himself, their great legislator and leader. Hence we find traces of juries in the laws of all those nations which adopted the feudal system, as in Germany, France, and Italy; who had all of them a tribunal composed of twelve good men and true, equals or peers of the party litigant. In England we find actual mention made of them so early as the laws of king Ethelred, and that not as a new invention.

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 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 felony and murder 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 Norman.

In many respects, the first princes of the Norman line afterwards 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 bloodshed, the famous charter of English liberties, so well known by the name of Magna Charta, was forcibly, in

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

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 there was one in the reign of Henry III. though we shall not enter into any disputes about their specific powers. We therefore now 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 vested 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., centred all the claims of the different competitors from the Norman invasion downward; he being indisputably the lineal heir of William I. And, what is still more remarkable, in his person also centred the right of the Saxon monarchs, which had been suspended from the Norman invasion 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 that royal family king James I. was the direct and 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 Norman.

At the Revolution in 1688, 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,

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1189 R
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1216 H
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1307 E
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1399 H
1413 H
1422 H
1461 F
1483 E
1483 R
1485 H
1509 H
1547 E
1553 M
1558 E

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 descend*.

* A chronology of English Kings, since the time that this country became united under one monarchy, in the person of Egbert, who subdued the other princes of the Saxon heptarchy, and gave the name Angle-land to this part of the island; the Saxons and the Angles having, about four centuries before, invaded and subdued the ancient Britons, whom they drove into Wales and Cornwall.

Began to reign.

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| 600 Egbert | } Saxon Princes. |
| 838 Ethelwulf | |
| 857 Ethelbald | |
| 860 Ethelbert | |
| 866 Ethelred | |
| 871 Alfred the Great | |
| 901 Edward the Elder | |
| 925 Athelstan | |
| 941 Edmund | |
| 946 Edred | |
| 955 Edwy | } Danish. |
| 959 Edgar | |
| 975 Edward the Martyr | } Saxon. |
| 978 Ethelred II. | |
| 1016 Edmund II. or Ironside | |
| 1017 Canute king of Denmark | } Danish. |
| 1035 Harold | |
| 1039 Hardicanute | } Saxon. |
| 1041 Edward the Confessor | |
| 1065 Harold | } Saxon. |
| 1066 William I. { (commonly called the Conqueror) duke of Normandy, a province facing the south of England, now annexed to the French territory. | |
| 1087 William II. { sons of the Conqueror. | } House of Lancaster. |
| 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, Geoffrey Plantagenet. | |
| 1189 Richard I. { sons of Henry II. | |
| 1199 John { | |
| 1216 Henry III. son of John. | |
| 1272 Edward I. son of Henry III. | |
| 1307 Edward II. son of Edward I. | |
| 1327 Edward III. son of Edward II. | |
| 1377 Richard II. grandson of Edward III. by his eldest son the Black Prince. | |
| 1399 Henry IV. { son to John of Gaunt, duke of Lancaster, } fourth son of Edward III. | |
| 1413 Henry V. son to Henry IV. | } House of York. |
| 1422 Henry VI. son to Henry V. | |
| 1461 Edward IV. descended from Edward III. by Lionel his third son, | } House of Tudor, in whom were united the houses of Lancaster and York, by the marriage of Henry VII. with Elizabeth, daughter of Edward IV. |
| 1483 Edward V. son of Edward IV. | |
| 1483 Richard III. brother to Edward IV. | |
| 1485 Henry VII. { (Tudor) son of the countess of Richmond, of the house of Lancaster. | |
| 1509 Henry VIII. son of Henry VII. | |
| 1547 Edward VI. son of Henry VIII. | |
| 1553 Mary { daughters of Henry VIII. | |
| 1558 Elizabeth { | |

The true ground and principle, upon which the Revolution proceeded, was entirely a 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 defeasance 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, 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 revolution, the old line of succession, which, from the Norman invasion, had lasted above 600 years, and, from the union of the Saxon heptarchy in king Egbert, almost 900.

Though in some points the revolution was not 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 avoided with great wisdom the extremes into which the visionary theories of some zealous republicans would have led them. They held that the 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 James was no longer king. And thus the constitution was kept entire; 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.

Began to
reign.

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| 1603 James I. | } | Great grandson of James IV. king of Scotland, by Margaret, |
| 1625 Charles I. | | daughter of Henry VII., and first of the Stuart family in England. |
| Commonwealth and protectorate of Cromwell. | | |
| 1649 Charles II. | } | sons of Charles I. |
| 1685 James II. | | |
| 1688 | } | William III. nephew and son-in-law of James II. |
| 1702 Anne | | 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 supposed infant son (the late Pretender), who was excluded by act of parliament, which settled the succession in the next protestant heirs of James I. The surviving issue of James, at the time of his death, were a son and a daughter, viz. Charles who succeeded him, and the princess Elizabeth, who married the Elector Palatine, who took the title of king of Bohemia, and left a daughter, the princess Sophie, who married the duke of Brunswick-Lunenbourg, 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. | } | House of Hanover. |
| 1727 George II. son of George I. | | |
| 1760 George III. grandson of George II. | | |

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, have been thought each of them to be 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 found extremely difficult and dangerous. On the other hand, divine 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, 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 judgements?—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 Gospel, shall say, The things which I have here before promised, I will perform and keep: so help me God! and then 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 judgement in mercy; and to maintain the established religion. With respect to the latter of these three branches, we may further remark, that by the act of union, 5 Anne, 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 accession 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 the greatest monarch 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 no cognisance of his actions, but only in the persons of his ministers, if they infringe the laws of the land. As to his power, it is very great, though he has no right to extend his prerogative beyond the ancient limits or the boundaries prescribed by the constitution; he can make no new laws, nor raise any new taxes, nor act in opposition to any of the laws: but he can make war or peace; send and receive ambassadors; make treaties of league and commerce; levy armies, and fit out fleets, for the defence of his kingdom, the annoyance of his enemies, or the suppression of rebellions; 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 has passed both houses; which, consequently, by such a refusal, has no more force than if it had never been moved—but this is a prerogative that the kings of England have very seldom ventured to exercise. He possesses 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, or general councils, in some shape, are, as has been before observed, of as high antiquity as the Saxon government in this island, and coeval with the kingdom itself. Blackstone, in his valuable Commentaries, says, "It is generally agreed, that in the main the constitution of parliament, as it now stands, was marked out so long ago as the 17th of king John, A. D. 1215, in the Great Charter granted by that prince; wherein he promises to summon all archbishops, bishops, abbots, lords, and greater barons, personally; and all other tenants in chief under the crown, by the sheriffs and bailiffs, to meet at a certain place, with forty days' notice, to assess aids and scutages when necessary. And this constitution hath subsisted, in fact, at least from the year 1266, 49 Henry III.; there being still extant writs of that date to summon knights, citizens, and burgesses to parliament."

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

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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, with four bishops from Ireland. 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 ancient peers; some by creation, as do all the new-made ones; others, since the unions with Scotland and Ireland, by election; which is the case of the sixteen peers who represent the body of the Scotch nobility, and the twenty-eight Irish peers who represent the Irish 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 the commons in the long parliament 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 whom has a voice in parliament, either personally, or by his representative*. 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

* This must be understood with some limitation. Those who are possessed of land estates, though to the value of only 40s. per annum, have a right to vote for members of parliament; as have most of the members of corporations, boroughs, &c. But there are very large trading towns, and populous places, which send no members to parliament; and of those towns which do send members, great numbers of the inhabitants have no votes. Many thousand persons of great personal property have, therefore, no representatives.

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 burgesses, chosen by the mercantile part, or supposed trading interest, of the nation. The number of English representatives is 513, of Scotch 45, and of Irish 100; in all 658. And every member, though chosen by one particular district, when elected and returned, serves for the whole realm. For the end of his going thither is not particular, but general; not merely to serve his constituents, but also the commonwealth, and to advise his majesty, as appears from the writ of summons.

These are the constituent parts of 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 shall 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 uncontrollable 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 intrusted by the constitution of these kingdoms. All mischiefs and grievances, oppressions 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 reigns of Henry VIII. and William III. It can alter and establish the religion of the land; as was done in a variety of instances in the reigns of Henry VIII. and his three children, Edward VI., Mary, and Elizabeth. 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*. But then its power, however great, was given to it in trust, and therefore ought to be employed according to the rules of justice, and for the promotion of the general welfare of the people. And it is a matter most essential to the liberties of the kingdom, that such members be delegated to this important trust as are most eminent for their probity, their fortitude, and their knowledge; for it was a known apophthegm 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 legal remedy.

In order to prevent the mischiefs that might arise by placing this extensive authority in hands that are either incapable or 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

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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 naturalised, shall be capable of being a member of either house of parliament.

Some of the most important privileges of the members of either house are, privilege of speech, of person, of their domestics, and 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 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 formerly could his goods be distrained or seized, without a breach of the privilege of parliament*.

The house of lords have a right to be attended, and consequently are, by the judges of the courts 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 points 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.

Each 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 of 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 their journals; but this has always been thought a violent measure.

The house of commons may be properly styled the grand inquest of Great Britain, empowered to inquire into all national grievances. 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 ancient 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

* This exemption from arrests for lawful debts was always considered by the public as a grievance. The lords and commons therefore generously relinquished their privileges by act of parliament in 1770; and members of both houses may now be sued like other debtors.

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 rejecting; they will not permit the least alteration or amendment to be made by the lords in 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, or in any other manner.

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 publicly and openly given; not privately, or by ballot. The latter method might, perhaps, be serviceable, to prevent intrigues and unconstitutional combinations; but it 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 be 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 mere 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 begin 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 further. The introduction of the bill may be originally opposed, as the bill itself may, at either of the readings; and if the opposition succeeds, the bill must be dropped 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 is 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 parchment

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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, it is done by tacking a separate piece of parchment on the bill, which is called a rider. The speaker then again opens the contents, and, holding it up in his hands, puts the question whether the bill shall pass. If this be agreed to, the title to it is then settled. After this it is carried to the lords, for their concurrence, by one of the members, who, attended by several more, presents it at the bar of the house of peers, and there delivers it to their speaker, who comes down from his woosack to receive it. It there passes through the same 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 be 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 disagree 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 await 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, or 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 bar on 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 house 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 bills that have passed both houses are read; and the king's answer is declared by the clerk of the parliament in Norman French. 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 comme il est désiré*, "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 assemblez, au nom de tous vos autres subjects, remercient très humblement votre majesté, et prient à Dieu vous donner en santé bonne 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 Henry 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.

The 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 imperial edicts; because every man in England is, in judgement of law, party to the making of an act of parliament, being present thereat by his representatives. However, copies thereof are usually printed at the king's press, for the information of the whole land.

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 over his natural life. If a parliament were to act in that manner, it must become *fitto de se*, an evil that no human provisions can guard against. But there are great resources of liberty in England; and though the constitution has been sometimes dangerously wounded, and even overturned, yet its own innate powers have recovered and still preserve it.

The king of England, besides his high court of parliament, has subordinate officers 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 requisite oaths, they become immediately privy-councillors during the life of the king that chooses them, but subject to removal at his pleasure.

The duty of a privy-councillor 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, need, 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 there 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. Upon great and urgent occasions, such as that of a famine, or the dread of one, 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.

The office of secretary of state was formerly divided into a southern and a northern department. The southern contained France, Spain, Portugal, Italy, the Swiss cantons, Constantinople, and, in short, all the states in the southern parts. The northern comprehended the different states of Germany, Prussia, Poland, Russia, Sweden, Denmark, Holland, Flanders, and the Hanseatic towns. This distinction is now abolished; and there is one secretary for foreign affairs, and another for the home department. During the American war, there was a third secretary of state, whose office was revived in 1794, by the title of secretary for the war department.

The cabinet-council is a committee of the privy-council, consisting of a select number of ministers and noblemen, according to the king's opinion of their integrity and abilities, or attachment to the views of the court; but though its operations are powerful and extensive, a cabinet-council is not essential to the constitution of England.

This observation naturally leads us 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 court give him sufficient employment. When the office of the first lord of the treasury is united with that of chancellor of the exchequer (offices which we shall 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. We 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 very ancient, and formerly was hereditary, or at least for life: but now, and for centuries past, it is exercised only occasionally; that is, at a coronation, or to sit as a judge on a peer or peeress, when tried for a capital crime. In coronations, it is held, for that day only, by some nobleman of the first rank. 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 in which the property of the sub-

ject is concerned; and he is to determine according to the dictates of equity and reason. He is an officer of the greatest weight and power of any now subsisting in the kingdom, and is superior in precedency to every temporal lord. He is a privy-councillor by his office; and, according to some, prolocutor of the house of lords by prescription. To him belongs the appointment of all justices of the peace; he is visitor, in right of the king, of all hospitals and colleges of the king's foundation, and patron of all the king's livings under the value of 20*l.* per annum in the king's books. He is the general guardian of all infants, idiots, and lunatics, and hath the superintendance of all charitable uses in the kingdom, over and above the extensive jurisdiction which he exercises in his judicial capacity in the court of chancery.

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.

The lord president of the council was an officer formerly of great power, and hath precedence next after the lord chancellor and lord treasurer. 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 convenience 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; 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 Ancaster'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; and of sitting up Westminster-hall for coronations, trials of peers, or impeachments.

The office of lord high constable has been disused since the attainder and execution of Stafford duke of Buckingham, in the year 1521, but is occasionally revived for a coronation.

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 a 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 precedency according to the archives kept in the herald's office, which is entirely within his jurisdiction. He directs all solemn processions, coronations, proclamations, general mournings, and the like.

The office of lord high admiral of England* is now likewise held by

* The last lord high admiral was George prince of Denmark and husband to queen Anne.

commission, and is equal in its importance to any of the preceding, especially since the increase 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. 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. The commissioners appoint vice-admirals under them: but an appeal from them lies to the high court of admiralty, which is of a civil nature. This court is held in London; 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, and its proceedings are according to the method 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.

COURTS OF LAW AND LAWS.] The court of chancery, which is the 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. 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 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—is, likewise, a kind of check upon all the inferior courts, their judges, and justices of the peace. Here preside four judges, the first of whom is styled lord chief justice of England, to express the great extent of his jurisdiction over the kingdom: for this court can grant prohibitions in any 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 suspicion of high crimes. The other three judges are called justices, or judges, of the king's bench.

The court of common pleas takes cognisance of all pleas debatable, and civil actions depending between subject and subject; and in it, besides 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. Besides these, there is a fifth, called cursitor baron, who has not a judicial capacity, but is only employed in administering the oath to sheriffs and other officers, and also to seve-

ral 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. Besides 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 processes against sheriffs, receivers of the revenue, and other officers.

For putting the laws effectually in execution, a high-sheriff is annually appointed for every county (except Westmorland and Middlesex) by the king*; whose office is both ministerial and judicial. He is to execute the king's mandate, 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 sentence, 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. He is likewise to decide the elections of knights of the shire, of coroners and verderers; to judge of the qualifications of voters, and to return such as he shall determine to be duly elected. It is also part of his office to collect all public fines, distresses, 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 tourn, was one, and the king's leet through all the county; for in this court inquiry 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. As the keeper of the king's peace, both by common law and special commission, he is the first man in the county, and superior in rank to any nobleman therein, during his office. He may command all the people of his county to attend him, which is called the *posse comitatus*, or power of the county.

Under the sheriff are various officers, as the under-sheriffs, clerks, stewards of courts, bailiffs (in London called serjeants), constables, jailers, beadles, &c.

The next officer to the sheriff is the *justice of peace*, several of whom are commissioned for each county: and to them is intrusted 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 inquire 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 jail 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

* Sheriffs were formerly chosen by the inhabitants of the several counties. In some counties the sheriffs were formerly hereditary, and still continue in the county of Westmorland. The city of London hath also the inheritance of the shrievalty of Middlesex vested in their body by charter.

a person of great good sense, sagacity, and integrity, and to be not without some knowledge of the law: for otherwise he may commit mistakes, or abuse his authority; for which, however, he is amenable to the court of King's Bench.

Each county contains two *coroners*, who are to inquire, 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. Another branch of their office is to inquire concerning shipwreck, and certify whether wreck or not, and who is in possession of the goods. In their ministerial office, they are the sheriff's substitutes.

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 burgesses, 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 choose 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 esquires.

The cinque-ports are five havens, formerly esteemed most important ones, that lie on the east part of England towards France, as Dover, Sandwich, Romney, Hastings, and Hythe, to which Winchelsea and Rye have been since added, with similar franchises in many respects. These cinque ports were endowed with particular privileges by our ancient kings, upon condition that they should provide a certain number of ships, at their own charge, to serve in the wars for forty days, as often as they were wanted.

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 prevent 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 descent or purchase.

A *constable* is a very ancient and respectable officer of the peace, under the English constitution. Every hundred has a high-constable, and every parish in that hundred a constable: and the latter are to attend the high-constable upon proper occasions. They are assisted by another ancient officer called the tithingman, who formerly superintended the tenth part of an hundred, or ten free burghs, as they were called in the time of the Saxons, each free burgh consisting of ten families. The business of 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 easy 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 in many parts of England, for the relief of the poor in the recovery of payment of small debts, not exceeding five pounds.

Among the peculiar usages of the country, derived to us from the venerable laws of our Saxon ancestors, the most remarkable, perhaps, are the customs of *gavel-kind* and *borough-English*, which still exist in Kent and some other counties. By the former of these all the sons inherit equally, and share the estate between them; and by the latter, the youngest son succeeds to the inheritance; it being presumed, say the old lawyers, that the elder sons have learned their father's occupation, and thus are provided for.

Of the private relations of persons, the first 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.

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 corporeal imbecility. The issue of such marriage, as it 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 the consideration of all the circumstances of the case, and the rank and quality of the parties.

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 some felonies, and other inferior crimes, committed by her through 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 intrust 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 mas-

ter 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 peace against her husband; or, in return, a husband against his wife: yet the lower ranks of people, who were always fond of the old common law, still claim and exert their ancient 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 with the laws of England.

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 at 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 guarded, 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. The king cannot take away the liberty of the meanest individual, unless he has, by some illegal act of which he is accused or suspected upon oath, 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 power of confining persons on such a suspicion of guilt; such as the case of a rebellion within the kingdom, when the legislature has sometimes thought proper to pass a temporary suspension of the Habeas-Corpus act. 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 or endanger the life of any subject, without trial, and the persons being first chargeable with a capital crime, as treason, 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 alleged to be committed, and not unless twelve of them agree 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. By the 28 Edward III. it is enacted, that where either party is an alien born, the jury shall be one half aliens, and the other denizens, if required, for the more impartial trial;—a privilege indulged to strangers in no other country in the world, but which is as ancient with us as the time of king Etheldred*. In some cases, the prisoner

* Statuta de Monticulis Walliæ.

(who is always supposed innocent till there be sufficient proof of his guilt) is allowed a copy of the indictment, in order to assist 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 approved of, who take the following oath, that they *shall well and truly try, and true deliverance make between the king and the prisoner, whom they shall have in charge, according to the evidence.* 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 judgement 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 vested with a solemn and awful trust: if he without evidence submit his opinion to that of any other of the jury, or yield in complaisance to the opinion of the judge; if he neglect to examine with the utmost care, if he question the veracity of the witnesses, who may be of an infamous character; or, after the most impartial hearing, have the least doubt upon his mind, and yet join 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 bring in guilty. Were not this the case, juries would be useless; for, far from being judges themselves, they would only be the tools of another, whose province 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.

Trial by jury is so capital a privilege, and so great a security to the liberty of the subject, that it is much to be regretted that persons of education and property are often too ready to evade serving the office. By this means juries frequently consist of ignorant and illiterate persons, who neither have knowledge enough to understand their rights and the privileges of Englishmen, nor spirit enough to maintain them. No man should be above serving so important an office, when regularly called upon; and those who, from indolence or pride, decline discharging this duty to their country, seem hardly to deserve that security and liberty which the inhabitants of England derive from this invaluable institution. Juries have, indeed, 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. Were it not for juries, the advice given by father Paul, in his maxims of the re-

* The party may challenge thirty-five, in case of treason.

public at 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 be not possible to be done, let him be chastised with greater noise than damage. If it be a subject that has affronted a nobleman, let him be punished with the utmost severity, that the subjects may not get too great a custom of laying their hands on the patrician order." In short, were 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 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 answer *Guilty*, his trial is at an end; but if he answer *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 refuse to plead, that is, if he will not say in court whether he is *guilty* or *not guilty*, he might, till lately, by the law of England, be pressed to death, with a load of iron upon his breast; but at present the same sentence is passed on him as in case of conviction.

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 the 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 arise amongst the jury, and the matter require 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 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 be found guilty, he is then asked what reason he can give why sentence of death should not be passed upon him? There is

now properly no benefit of clergy; it is changed to transportation, or burning in the hand. Upon a capital conviction, the sentence of death, after 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 be hanged 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 the 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.] 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 it has been usual to fix the head 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 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 the offender's being drawn on a sledge to the place of execution, and there hanged upon a gallows till dead. Women guilty of this crime, or of high treason, were sentenced to be burnt alive; but this law has been lately repealed, and the punishment of burning abolished.

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 generally condemned to hard labour upon the river, or transported for a term of years, or for life, to Botany Bay.

Other crimes punished by the laws are,

Manslaughter, 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

* 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.

† 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.

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 hard labour for a number of years, or burning in the hand.

Perjury is punished with the pillory and imprisonment.

Petty-larceny, or small theft, under the value of twelve-pence, is punished by whipping.

Labelling, using false weights and measures, and forestalling the market, are commonly punished with standing on the pillory.

For striking, so as to draw blood, in a king's court, the criminal is punished with losing his right hand.

For striking in Westminster-hall while the courts of justice are sitting, the punishment 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.

REVENUES OF THE BRITISH GOVERNMENT. } The king's ecclesiastical revenues consist in, 1. The custody of the temporalities of vacant bishoprics; from which he receives little or no advantage. 2. Corrodies and pensions, formerly arising from allowances of meat, drink, and clothing, due to the king from an abbey or monastery, and which he generally bestowed upon favourite servants; and his sending one of his chaplains to be maintained by the bishop, or to have a pension bestowed upon him till the bishop promoted him to a benefice. These corrodies are due of common right, but now, I believe, disused. 3. Extra-parochial tithes. 4. The first-fruits and tenths of benefices. But such has been the bounty of the crown to the church, that these four branches now afford little or no revenue.

The king's ordinary temporal revenue consists in, 1. The demesne lands of the crown, which at present are contracted within a narrow compass. 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 the duty on wine licenses; being the residue of the same consideration. 4. His forests. 5. His courts of justice, &c. In lieu of all which 900,000*l.* per annum is now granted for the support of his civil list.

The extraordinary grants are usually called by the synonymous names of aids, subsidies, and supplies, and are granted, as has been before hinted, by the commons of Great Britain in parliament assembled; who, when they have voted a supply to his majesty, and settled the *quantum* 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 moneyed man will scruple to advance to the government any quantity of ready cash, if the proposed terms be advantageous, on the credit of the 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 ancient subsidy raised

* This has lately been sold to the proprietors of the estates on which it is assessed, or other individuals, and thus rendered perpetual.

upon a new assessment. 2. The malt-tax, being an annual excise on malt, mum, cider, and perry.

The perpetual taxes are, 1. The customs, or tonnage and poundage of all merchandise 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 licenses for hackney coaches and chairs. 8. The duty on offices and pensions.

The gross receipt of the permanent revenue, after deducting the repayment of over-entries, drawbacks, &c. amounted, in the year ending the 5th of January 1804, according to a statement presented to the house of commons by Mr. Pitt, to 35,440,278*l.*; besides the war taxes imposed in 1803 and 1804, amounting to nearly 13,000,000*l.* 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 first be premised, that, after the Revolution, when our new connexions with Europe introduced a new system of foreign politics, the expenses 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; in-somuch that it was not thought advisable to raise all the expenses of any one year by taxes to be levied within that year, lest the unaccustomed weight of them should create murmurs among the people. It was therefore the bad policy of the times to anticipate the revenues of their posterity, by borrowing immense sums for the current service of the state, and to lay no more taxes upon the subject 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 person 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 60,000*l.* 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 since, that the total of all the sums borrowed, or the capital of the funded debt of Great Britain, amounted, on the 1st of February 1804, to 583,008,978*l.* of which 77,698,467*l.* had been purchased by the commissioners for the reduction of the national debt, and 21,147,188*l.* had been transferred to them on account of land-tax redeemed, leaving a funded debt unredeemed of 484,162,622*l.* The unfunded debt at the same time amounted to 16,305,607*l.*, making the whole of the NATIONAL DEBT 500,468,229*l.*, exclusive of 23,952,329*l.* on account of Ireland, and 7,042,805*l.* on account of the emperor of Germany.

To check, in some measure, the too rapid accumulation of a debt already so enormous, a part of the supplies for the years 1798 and 1799 were raised within the year. In 1798 a voluntary subscription was entered into for the service of government, which produced about a mil-

tion and a half; and the taxes called the assessed taxes were trebled, and in some instances quadrupled, with allowance of relief in certain cases: these produced about five millions. In the year 1799 an act passed for levying a tenth of all income upwards of 200*l.* per annum, with a tax, according to a certain scale, on all income from 200*l.* to 60*l.* per annum. The expected produce of this tax was estimated at ten millions, but amounted only to about six. In the year 1803 a similar tax was laid on all income arising from property, at the rate of five per cent. above 150*l.* per annum, and according to a certain scale below that sum to 60*l.* The produce of this tax remains to be ascertained.

The total sum to be raised for the expenditure of the year 1804, for the interest of the public debt, the civil list, the army, navy, pensions, bounties, extraordinary and secret services, &c. amounted, according to the statement of the chancellor of the exchequer (Mr. Pitt) to the house of commons, to 71,498,431*l.*; and the total of the ordinary revenue and extraordinary resources, including a lottery and a loan of fourteen millions, to 71,307,278*l.*

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 inconveniences. 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 account, they would, in time of war, have borne no greater burdens than they have bequeathed to and settled upon their posterity in the time of peace, that might have been eased the instant the exigence was over.

Different schemes have been formed for paying the public debts: but no method can be so expeditious and effectual as an unalienable sinking fund, as this money is improved at *compound interest*, and therefore in the most perfect manner; but money procured by a loan bears only simple interest. "A nation therefore, whenever it applies the income of such a fund to current expenses rather than the redemption of its debts, chooses to lose the benefit of compound interest in order to avoid paying simple interest, and the loss in this case is equal to the difference between the increase of money at compound and simple interest*."

* Dr. Price's calculation plainly shows what this difference is:—"One penny put out at our Saviour's birth, at 5 per cent. compound interest, would, in the year 1781, have increased to a greater sum than would be contained in 200,000,000 of earths, all solid gold; but if put out to simple interest, it at the same time would have amounted to no more than seven shillings and sixpence. All governments that alienate funds destined for reimbursements, choose to improve money

No permanent provision had ever been made for the progressive and certain payment of this immense debt, until 1786; when parliament had the wisdom and the firmness to pass an act for vesting unalienably, in commissioners, the sum of one million annually: in which act every possible precaution was taken that could be devised for preventing the surplus from being diverted, at any future time, and for carrying to the account of the commissioners, for the purposes of the act, the interest of such stock as should be purchased, and such temporary annuities as should fall in under the provisions of this act. On the 5th of January, 1801, the commissioners had purchased 77,698,467*l.* of the capital of the debt.

In the late reigns, the produce of certain branches of the excise and customs, the post-office, the duty on wine-licenses, the revenues of the remaining crown-lands, the profit arising from courts of justice (which articles include all the hereditary revenue 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 rise 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 accepted the limited sum of 800,000*l.* (now increased to 900,000*l.*) per annum, for the support of his civil list, the said hereditary and other revenues are now carried into and made part of the aggregate fund; and the aggregate fund is charged with the payment of the annuity to the crown. The expenses defrayed by the civil list are those that, in any shape, relate to civil government, as the expenses of the household, all salaries to officers of state, to the judges, and every one of the king's servants; the appointments to foreign ambassadors, the maintenance of the queen and royal family, the king's private expenses, 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, which is 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.

PUBLIC COMPANIES.] The company of the BANK OF ENGLAND was incorporated by parliament, in the 5th and 6th years of king William and queen Mary, by the name of the Governors 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, un-

in the *last* rather than the *first* of these ways." He adds: "A million borrowed annually, for twenty years, will pay off, in this time, 55 millions 3 per cent. stock, if discharged at 6*l.* in money for every 100*l.* stock; and in 40 years more, without any further aid from loans, 333 millions (that is, 388 millions in all) would be paid off.

"The addition of nineteen years to this period would pay off 1000 millions.

"A surplus of half a million per annum, made up to a million by borrowing half a million every year for twenty years, would discharge the same sums in the same periods."

less by act of parliament; they are not to trade, or suffer any person in trust for them to trade, in any goods or merchandise; but they may deal in bills of exchange, in buying or selling bullion, and foreign gold and silver coin.

By an act of parliament passed in the 8th and 9th years of William 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 the 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 empowered 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.*

Other loans were afterwards made, from time to time, by the company to government, till in 1746 the whole debt due to the Bank from the public was 11,686,800*l.*; and its divided capital had been raised by different calls and subscriptions to 10,780,000*l.* It had also been the constant practice of the company to assist government with money in anticipation of the land and malt taxes, and by making temporary advances on exchequer bills and other securities. In the year 1781 the sums thus lent to government amounted to upwards of eight millions, in addition to the permanent debt of 11,686,800*l.* An agreement was now entered into for the renewal of their charter, the term of which was extended to August 1802, on the company's engaging to advance 2,000,000*l.* on exchequer bills at 3 per cent. interest, to be paid off within three years out of the sinking fund. In order to enable them to make this advance; a call of 8 per cent. on their capital was thought necessary, by which their former capital stock of 10,780,000*l.* was increased to 11,642,000*l.* the sum on which they now divide. The dividend was also increased one half per cent., so that it became 6 per cent. In consequence of this agreement, the total of their advances to government on the land and malt taxes, exchequer bills, and treasury bills, was increased, on the 25th of February 1782, to 9,991,678*l.* The amount of the bank-notes in circulation must of course be augmented by the increase of advances to government.

In consequence of large advances to government, the great exportation of coin and bullion to Germany and Ireland, and several concurring circumstances, which at the commencement of the year 1797 produced an unusual demand of specie, from different parts of the country, on the metropolis, an order of the privy-council was issued on the 26th of February, prohibiting the directors of the Bank from issuing any cash in payment till the sense of parliament on the subject was obtained. This restriction was sanctioned by parliament, and a secret committee was appointed to examine the state of the outstanding demands on the Bank of England, and its funds for discharging the same. The statement of these demands and funds, to the 25th of February 1797, was as follows:

Outstanding demands	£ 13,770,390
Funds for discharging those demands, not including the permanent debt due from government, of 11,686,800 <i>l.</i> *, which bears an interest of three per cent.†	} 17,597,280
<hr/>	
Surplus of effects of the Bank, exclusive of the above- mentioned permanent debt of 11,686,800 <i>l.</i>	} £ 3,826,890

Soon after the meeting of parliament in November following, the committee of secrecy appointed to inquire into the expediency of continuing the restriction on the Bank, reported, that the total amount of the outstanding demands on the Bank on the 11th of November was 17,578,910*l.*, and of the funds for discharging the same, exclusively of the permanent debt, 21,418,640*l.*, leaving a balance in favour of the Bank at that time of 3,839,550*l.* The report stated, that the advances to government had been reduced to 4,258,140*l.* and that the cash and bullion in the Bank had increased to more than five times the value at which they stood on the 25th of February 1797, when it was about 1,272,000*l.*

By these statements (though the restriction by successive acts of parliament has been continued to the present time) the solvency and solidity of the Bank are satisfactorily evinced; and, indeed, its stability must be coeval with that of the British government. All that it has advanced to the public must be lost before its creditors can sustain any loss. No other banking company in England can be established by act of parliament, or can consist of more than six members. It acts not only as an ordinary Bank, but as a great engine of state. It receives and pays the greater part of the annuities that are due to the creditors of the public; it circulates exchequer bills; and it advances to government the annual amount of the land and malt taxes, which are frequently not paid up for some years. It likewise discounts the bills of merchants; and has, upon several occasions, supported the credit of the principal houses, not only of England, but of Hamburg and Holland.

This company is under the direction of a governor, deputy-governor, and twenty-four directors, who are annually elected by the general court of proprietors of Bank-stock. Thirteen, or more, compose a court of directors for managing the affairs of the company. The qualification of a director is 2000*l.*; of a deputy-governor 3000*l.*; and of a governor

* This debt arises and is formed by the following items:

The original sum at the time the charter was granted	£ 1,200,000
Further sum lent to government in 1709	400,000
Ditto, in 1742	1,600,000
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Now called the original fund	3,200,000
Residue of 2,000,000 <i>l.</i> exchequer bills cancelled in 1716	500,000
South-Sea stock purchased in 1722	4,000,000
Loan to government in 1728	1,750,000
Ditto, in 1729	1,250,000
Ditto, in 1716	986,800

£ 11,686,800

† Of the outstanding demands, the Bank-notes in circulation amounted to 8,640,250*l.* and the drawing account, unpaid dividends, exchequer bills, and other debts, to 5,150,140*l.* The funds for discharging these consisted of advances on government security, to the amount of 10,672,490*l.*; and cash, bullion, bills discounted, and other credits, to the amount of 6,924,790*l.*

4000*l.*;—500*l.* Bank-stock entitles the proprietor to vote at the general courts, provided he has been in possession of it six months.

EAST-INDIA COMPANY.] The first idea of this company was formed in queen Elizabeth's time; but it has since undergone great 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 1,703,102*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 Hindostan, damped the ardour of the people 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; in consequence of which, 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 considerable difficulty; but at last, after many parliamentary inquiries, 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 great 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 an 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 further 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, which then amounted to 3,190,000*l.*, was reduced to 3 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 1000*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 in turn, six a year, for four years successively. The chairman has a salary of 200*l.* a year, and each of the directors 150*l.* The meetings or courts 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 treasury, a house committee, a committee of warehouse, a committee of shipping, a committee of accounts, a committee of lawsuits, 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, computed to contain above 200,000 square miles, and thirty millions of people, must be necessarily attended with a proportionable increase of trade*; and this, joined to the dissensions among its managers both at home and abroad, has of late greatly engaged the attention of the legislature. A restriction has occasionally been laid on their dividends for a certain time. From the report of the committee, in 1773, appointed by parliament on Indian affairs, it appears that the India company, from the year 1708 to the year 1756, for the space of forty-seven years and a half, divided the sum of 12,000,000*l.*, or above 280,000*l.* per annum, which, on a capital of 3,190,000*l.*, amounted to above eight and a half per cent.; and that at the last-mentioned period it appeared, that, besides the above dividend, the capital stock of the company had been increased 180,000*l.* Considerable alterations were made in the affairs and constitution of the East-India company, by an act passed in 1773, intitled, "An act for establishing certain rules and orders for the future management of the affairs of the East-India company, as well in India as in Europe." It was thereby enacted, that the court of directors should, in future, be elected for four years; six members annually; but none to hold their seats longer than four years. That no persons should vote at the election of the directors who had not possessed their stock twelve months. That the stock of qualification should, instead of 500*l.* as it had formerly been, be 1000*l.* That the mayor's court of Calcutta should, for the future, be confined to small mercantile causes, to which only its jurisdiction extended before the territorial acquisition. That, in lieu of this court, thus taken away, a new one be established, consisting of a chief justice and three puisne judges, and that these judges be appointed by the crown. That a superiority be given to the presidency of Bengal, over the other presidencies in India. That the right of nominating the governor and council of Bengal should be vested in the crown. The salaries of the judges were also fixed at 8000*l.* to the chief justice, and 6000*l.* a year to each of the other three. The appointments of the governor-general and council were fixed, the first at 25,000*l.* and the four others at 10,000*l.* each annually.

In the month of November, 1783, Mr. Fox, then secretary of state, brought forward a bill for new-regulating the company, under the supposition of the incompetency of the directors, and the insolvent state of the company.

The bill passed the commons; but an opposition was made to it in the house of lords, as placing too dangerous a power in the hands of any men, and which would be sure to operate against the necessary power of the crown; and, after long debates, it was thrown out by a majority of

* According to lists laid before the house of commons, the company employed 110 ships, and 8170 men.

Between India and Europe, in carrying cargoes to and from	} 70 ships and 7130 men.
.	
.	6 packets . . . 320
In the country trade, and from China	34 crabs . . . 520

sixteen peers. The consequence of this was a change of the ministry, and a general revolution of the cabinet.

By the new bill, which passed at the close of the sessions, six persons are nominated by the king as commissioners for the affairs of India, of whom one of the secretaries of state, and the chancellor of the exchequer for the time being, shall be two; the president to have the casting vote, if equally divided. New commissioners to be appointed at the pleasure of the crown. This board is to superintend, direct, and control all acts, operations, and concerns, which in any wise relate to the civil and military government or revenues of the British territorial possessions in the East Indies. They are sworn to execute the several powers and trusts reposed in them, without favour or affection, prejudice or malice, to any person whatever. The court of directors of the company are to deliver to this board all minutes, orders, and resolutions of themselves, and of the courts of proprietors, and copies of all letters, orders, and instructions, proposed to be sent abroad, for their approbation or alteration; none to be sent until after such previous communication, on any pretence whatsoever. The directors are still to appoint the servants abroad; but the king has a power, by his secretary of state, to recall either of the governors or members of the councils, or any person holding any office under the company in their settlements, and make void their appointment. By this bill there is given to the governor and council of Bengal a control over the other presidencies, in all points which relate to any transactions with the country powers, to peace and war, or to the application of their forces or revenues; but the council of Bengal are subjected to the absolute direction of the company at home, and, in all cases, except those of immediate danger and necessity, restrained from acting without orders received from England.

Soon after the passing of this act, Mr. Dundas, who had long given unwearied application to the affairs of India, being placed at the head of the board of control, introduced the laudable practice of bringing annually before a committee of the house of commons a statement of the financial concerns of the company abroad, exhibiting the balance upon the comparison of the revenues and charges of the several settlements. As the company's right to their exclusive trade was, by an act passed in 1781, to terminate in March 1794, it became necessary to make provision for that event; which was effectually done by Mr. Dundas's bill, proposed the 25th of February 1793, which, meeting the approbation of parliament, had the singular good fortune of giving equal satisfaction to the public and the company: to the public, because, instead of 400,000*l.*, they were to receive 500,000*l.* per annum from the revenues of India; and to the company, because they were still to preserve their power and privileges, as far as they contributed to promote the interests of their commerce.

The information which preceded or accompanied this salutary bill gave the most favourable view of the company's affairs, and of the great national benefits which had already occurred, and which might be expected in future to flow in still greater abundance, from the Indian trade and territory. The revenues of the countries ceded to the company by Tippoo Sultan were stated at 390,000*l.*; and the future revenues of the British possessions in India were estimated at nearly 7,000,000*l.*; leaving a net surplus, after deducting the interest on the debts in India, and the civil, military, and commercial charges, of 1,059,000*l.* per annum. The annual sales of India goods in Europe were estimated at nearly 5,000,000*l.*, which exceeds the prime cost and charges by 743,000*l.*;

and the net surplus on the whole of the revenues and trade of the East-India company, after paying 8 per cent. dividend on the capital stock of 5,000,000*l.*, is estimated at 1,230,241*l.* per annum.

In July, 1797, Mr. Dundas stated the total amount of the foreign revenues at 8,154,872*l.*, and the charges upon them at 6,517,057*l.*, leaving a net surplus of 1,637,815*l.* He at the same time stated the amount of the receipts and sales of the company at home, at 7,316,910*l.*

[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 avaricious men, at a discount of 40*l.* and sometimes 50*l.* per cent. By this and other means, the debts of the nation, unprovided for by parliament, and which amounted to 9,471,321*l.*, fell into the hands of these usurers. On which Mr. Harley, at that time chancellor of the exchequer, and afterwards earl of Oxford, proposed a scheme to allow the proprietors of these debts and deficiencies 6*l.* 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 seemed formed for the sake of commerce, it is certain that the ministry never thought seriously, during the course of the war, about making any settlement 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 100,000*l.* in lieu of all claims upon Spain, 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 them to raise such sums for purchasing annuities, exchanging for ready money new exchequer bills, carrying on their trade, &c., they 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 public 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 triple the value 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 10,000*l.* 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-Sea, and purchasing annuities, &c. paid to the other companies: and proposals were printed and distributed, showing 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 that every 100*l.* original stock would yield 50*l.* per annum; which occasioned so great a rise of their stock, that a share of 100*l.* was sold for upwards of 800*l.* This was in the month of July; but before the end of September it fell to 150*l.*; by which multitudes were ruined, and such a scene of distress occasioned as is scarcely to be conceived. Most of the directors were severely fined, to the loss of nearly all their property; even those who had no share in the deception, because they ought to have opposed and prevented it.

By a statute of the 6th of George II. it was enacted, that, from and after the 24th of June, 1733, the capital stock of this company, which amounted to 14,651,103*l.* 8*s.* 1*d.* 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 always allowed for the charge of management, 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 further debt; provided that the company should not at any time divide more than 4 per cent. per annum until their debts were discharged; and the South-Sea company, and their trading stock, should, exclusively from the new joint stock of annuities, be liable to all 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 underwrite 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 3 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, 5000*l.* in the trading stock; the sub-governor is to have 4000*l.* the deputy-governor 3000*l.* and a director 2000*l.* in the same stock. In every general court, every member having, in his own

name and right, 500*l.* in trading stock, has one vote; if 2000*l.* two votes; if 3000*l.* three votes; and if 5000*l.* 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.

As every capital stock or fund of a company is raised for a particular purpose, and limited by government 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 spreading rumours and 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 it, 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 receive or 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 pounds to make contracts for the buying or selling 100,000 pounds stock. In the language of Exchange-alley, the buyer is, in this case, called the Bull, and the seller the Bear; one is for raising or tossing up, and the other for lowering or trampling upon, the stock.

Besides these, there is another set of men, who, though of a higher rank, may properly enough come under the same denomination. These are the great moneyed men, who are dealers in stock, and contractors with the government whenever any 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 before-mentioned set of men as their instruments, and other similar practices, they are enabled to raise or fall stocks one or two per cent. at pleasure.

While the annuities, and interest for money advanced, are 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 merchandise, 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 interest of both prince and people: which is the strongest security.

MILITARY AND MARINE FORCE } The MILITARY state includes the
OF GREAT BRITAIN. } whole of the soldiery, or such persons as are 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 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. Besides those who, by their military tenures, were 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 provisions 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 settled in parliament in the 5th Henry 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. 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. though 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 recognise 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 five years, and officered by the lord-lieutenant, the deputy-lieutenants, and other principal land-holders, under a commission from the crown. They

are not compellable to march out of their counties, unless in case of an invasion, or actual rebellion, nor in any case to be sent 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 in 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 mode of keeping standing armies has universally prevailed over all Europe of late years, 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, the East Indies, and America; but in time of war the number is much greater. The total number of troops on service in the year 1804, according to the statement of the secretary at war (Mr. Yorke), was 252,841 men, consisting of 20,324 regular cavalry; 133,267 regular infantry, including officers and men; 87,652 militia; and 26,000 of the army of reserve: there was besides, of artillery, 14,202, making the total number of our actual force 267,243 men. To govern this body of troops, 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 inn-keepers and victuallers throughout the kingdom; and establishes a law-martial for their government.

To this great and efficient force we are also now to add nearly 400,000 volunteers, who have bravely taken up arms to defend their country, should our inveterate foe attempt to carry into execution his haughty and insolent menace of invasion.

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 has 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 33 ships. The present condition of our marine is in a great measure owing to the salutary provisions of the statute called the Navigation Act; whereby a 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, partly with a narrow 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 act prohibited all ships of foreign nations from trading with any English plantations without license 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 merchandise 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 masters and three-fourths of the mariners shall also be English subjects.

The complement of seamen, in time of peace, usually has amounted to 12 or 15,000. In time of war, they formerly amounted to about 30,000 men; and after the commencement of the American war, to above 100,000, including marines. The vote of parliament for the service of the years 1798 and 1799 was for 120,000 seamen, including marines.

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 of Great Britain. Subject to each admiral is also a vice and 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 us 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 safely affirm, that the British navy is able to cope with all the other fleets of Europe. The brilliant victories of lords St. Vincent, Duncan, and Nelson, and the late surrender of the whole Dutch fleet lying in the Texel, have established the unrivalled superiority of Britain over all the maritime powers of Europe. In the course of the late war she took from her enemies, including the Dutch ships surrendered for the Stadtholder, 83 ships of the line, 111 frigates, 223 other ships of war, and 713 privateers, amounting in the whole to 1132 ships. At the beginning of the year 1800, the British naval force consisted of 144 ships of the line, in commission, 22 fifty-gun ships, 200 frigates, and 292 other ships of war: in the whole, 658 ships; and, including receiving ships, ships in ordinary and building, 902, of which 224 were of the line.

We 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 that is passed for the government of the army, yet neither of those bodies is 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. Those civil magistrates who understand the principles of the constitution are however extremely cautious in calling for the military on these occasions, or upon any commotion whatever; and, indeed, with good reason; for the frequent employment of the military power in a free government is exceedingly dangerous, and cannot be guarded against with too much caution.

ROYAL TITLES AND ARMS.] The title of the king of England, since the union with Ireland, is: in Latin, *Dei Gratia, Britanniarum Rex, Fidei Defensor*; and in English, By the Grace of God, of Great Britain 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. The title of Defender of the Faith, above mentioned, was given to Henry VIII. by the pope, on account of a book written by the king against Luther and the Reformation. Besides the titles already given, the king of Great Britain has others from his German dominions, as Elector of Hanover, Duke of Brunswick-Lunenburg, &c.

Since the union between Great Britain and Ireland in 1801, the royal achievement is marshalled as follows: quarterly, first and fourth, *Mars, three lions passant guardant in pale Sol*, for England: Second, *Sol, a lion rampant within a double tressure flory and counterflory Mars*, for Scotland: Third, *Jupiter, a harp Sol, stringed Luna*, for Ireland. On an escocheon of pretence, ensigned with the Electoral bonnet, and divided per pale and per cheveron, enarched into three compartments, the arms of his majesty's dominions in Germany, viz. First, *Mars, two lions passant guardant in pale Sol*, for Brunswick: Second, *Sol, semé of hearts, a lion rampant Jupiter*, for Lunenburg: Third, *Mars, a horse current Luna* for Saxony. In the centre, on an escocheon *Mars, the crown of Charlemagne, proper*, being the badge of the office of arch-treasurer of the Holy Roman Empire: 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 show 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 cognisance; 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 contradistinction, 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 provoke me unpunished."

The titles of the king's eldest son are, Prince of Wales, duke of Cornwall and Rothesay, 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.

ORDERS OF KNIGHTHOOD.] The order of the GARTER, the most honourable of any in the world, was instituted by Edward III. January 19, 1344. It consists of the sovereign, who is always king or queen of England, of 25 companions, called knights of the garter, who wear a medal of St. George killing the dragon, supposed to be the tutelar

saint of England, commonly enamelled on gold, suspended from a blue ribbon, which was formerly worn about their necks, but since the latter end of James I. now crosses their bodies from their shoulder. The garter, which is of blue velvet, bordered with gold, buckled under the left knee, and gives the name to the order, was designed as an ensign of unity and combination; on it are embroidered the words, *Honi soit qui mal y pense*, "Evil to him who evil thinks."

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 year 1399: but the order seems to be more ancient. For many reigns they were created at the coronation of a king or queen, or on other solemn occasions. They wear a scarlet ribbon hanging from the left shoulder, with an enamelled medal, the badge of the order, a rose issuing from the dexter side of a sceptre, and a thistle from the sinister, between three imperial crowns placed within the motto, *Tria juncta in uno*, "Three joined in one." This order being discontinued, was revived by king George I. on the 8th of May, 1725; and the month following, 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 instalment is Henry VII.'s chapel. Their robes are splendid and showy, and the number of knights is undeterminate. The bishop of Rochester is perpetual dean of the order, which has likewise a register and other officers.

The origin of the English peerage, or nobility, has been already mentioned. Their titles, and order of dignity, are dukes, marquises, earls, viscounts, and lords or barons.

Baronets can scarcely 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-councillors; 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 their number amounts to 700.

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 parties themselves to the appellation of *Sir*. Other knightships formerly took place in England; such as those of *bannerets*, bachelors, knights of the carpet, and the like; but they are now disused. Indeed, in the year 1773, at a review of the royal navy at Portsmouth, the king conferred the honour of Knights Bannerets on two admirals and three captains. They have no particular badge on their garments, but their arms are painted on a banner placed in the frames of the supporters.

It is somewhat difficult to account for the origin 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 designated by noble titles. The appellation of gentleman, though now bestowed so promiscuously, is the root of all English honour; for every nobleman is presumed to be a gentleman, though every gentleman is not a nobleman.

RELIGION.] Eusebius, and other ancient writers, positively assert, that Christianity was first preached in South Britain by the apostles and their disciples; and it is reasonable to suppose that the success of the Romans opened a way for the triumphs of the Gospel of peace. It is certain also, that many of the soldiers and officers in the Roman armies were Christians; and as their legions were repeatedly sent over to England to extend as well as preserve their conquests, it is probable that thus Christianity was diffused among the natives. If any of the apostles visited this country and our heathen ancestors, it was St. Paul, whose zeal, diligence, and fortitude, were abundant. But who was the first preacher, or when the precise year and period, is entirely uncertain, from the want of records; and all the traditions about Joseph of Arimathea and St. Peter's preaching the Gospel in Britain, and Simon Zelotes suffering martyrdom here, are romantic fables, and monkish legends. We have good authority to say, that, about the year 150, a great number of persons professed the Christian faith here: and, according to archbishop Usher, in the year 182 there was a school of learning to provide the British churches with proper teachers; and from that period it seems as if Christianity advanced its benign and salutary influences among the inhabitants in their several districts. It is unnecessary to repeat what has been said in the Introduction respecting the rise and fall of the church of Rome in Europe; we shall only observe in this place, that John Wickliffe, an Englishman, educated at Oxford in the reign of Edward III., has the honour of being the first person in Europe who publicly called in question, and boldly refuted, those doctrines which had passed for certain during so many ages.

The constitution of the church is episcopal, and it is governed 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 economy of the church of England has been accused for the inequality of its livings; some of them extending from three hundred to fourteen hundred a year; and many, particularly in Wales, being too small to maintain a clergyman, especially if he has a family, with any tolerable decency; but this seems not easily to be remedied, unless the dignified clergy would adopt and support the reforming scheme. The crown, as well as private persons, has done much towards the augmentation of poor livings.

The dignitaries of the church of England, such as deans, prebendaries, 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, or other living, are 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 increases with

the improvements of lands, which of late have been very great 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 economy of the church. The kings of England never intermeddle in ecclesiastical disputes, unless by preventing the convocation from sitting to agitate them 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 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 cognisable 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, Landaff, 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 prudently thought proper to raise to that dignity men of very moderate principles; but they have generally been men of considerable learning and abilities. This practice has been attended with excellent effects, with regard to the public tranquillity of the church, and consequently of the state.

* To the following list is subjoined the sum each see is charged in the king's books; as also their estimated real value at present.

ARCHBISHOPRICS.			
	Charged.	Value.	
Canterbury,	- £2682 12	2—8,000	York, - - - £1610 0 0—7,000
BISHOPRICS.			
London,	- - 2000 0	0—6,200	Chichester, - - 677 1 3—2,600
Durham,	- - 1821 1	3—8,700	St. Asaph, - - 187 11 8—1,500
Winchester,	- 3124 12	8—7,400	Salisbury, - - 1385 5 0—3,500
These three bishoprics take precedence of all others in England; and the others according to the seniority of their consecrations.			
Ely,	- - 2134 18	6—4,000	Bangor, - - - 131 16 3—1,200
Bath and Wells,	- 533 1	3—2,200	Norwich, - - - 854 11 7—3,000
Hereford, - - -	168 11	0—3,000	Gloucester, - - 515 7 3—2,000
Rochester, - - -	358 4	0—2,400	Lincoln, - - - 894 18 1—3,200
Litchfield and Coventry, } - 539 17	3—2,800	Landaff, - - - 154 14 2—1,600	
Chester, - - -	420 1	8—2,700	Bristol, - - - 294 11 0—1,500
Worcester,	- 929 13	3—3,400	Carlisle, - - - 531 4 9—2,800
			Exeter, - - - 500 0 0—2,700
			Peterborough, - - 414 17 8—1,700
			Oxford, - - - 381 11 3—2,800
			St. David's, - - - 426 2 1—1,400

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 by the appellation of Your Lordship, styled "Right reverend Fathers in God," and take precedence of all temporal barons. 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 confirmation. 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; to defend the liberties of the church; and to visit their own dioceses once in three years.

Deans and prebendaries of cathedrals have been already mentioned: but it would perhaps be difficult to assign their utility in the church, further than to add to the pomp of worship, and to make provision for clergymen of eminence and merit; but interest often prevails over merit in the appointment. 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 styled 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 body or synod, and answers pretty nearly 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 clergymen of an intolerant and persecuting spirit during the reign of queen Anne, and in the beginning of that of George I., raised the power of the convocation to a height that was inconsistent with the principles of religious toleration, 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 a time sufficient to enter into any discussions.

The court of arches is the most ancient consistory of the province of Canterbury; and all appeals in church matters, from the judgement 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 administration taken out. The courts 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 now, beyond any other national church, tolerant in its principles. Moderation is its governing character; and in England no religious sect is prevented from worshipping God in that manner which their consciences approve. Some severe laws were, indeed, lately in force against those protestant dissenters who did not assent to the doctrinal articles of the church of England; but these laws were not executed; and in 1779 religious liberty received a considerable augmentation, by an act which was then passed for granting a legal toleration to dissenting ministers and schoolmasters, without their subscribing any of the articles of the church of England. Not to enter upon the motives of the reformation under Henry VIII., it is certain that episcopal government, excepting the few years from the civil wars under Charles I. to the restoration of his son, 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—that is, a tenderness in matters that can affect either conscience or liberty. The bias which the clergy had towards popery in the reigns of Henry VIII. and Edward VI., and even so late as that of Elizabeth, occasioned an interposition of the civil power for a further reformation. Thence arose the *puritans*, so called from their maintaining 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; but their theological sentiments have undergone a considerable change. Their doctrine, like that of 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. But the modern English presbyterians, in their ideas of church government, differ very little from the independents, or congregationalists, who are so called from holding the independency of congregational churches, without any respect to doctrine; and, in this sense, almost all the *dissenters* in England are now become *independents*. As to points of doctrine, the presbyterians are generally Arminians. Many of their ministers have greatly distinguished themselves by their learning and abilities; and some of their writings are held in high estimation by many of the clergy, and other members of the established church. The same may be said of some of the independent and baptist ministers. The independents are generally Calvinists. The baptists do not believe that infants are proper subjects of baptism; and in the baptism of adults they practise immersion into water. They are divided into two classes, which are styled general baptists, and particular baptists. The general baptists are Arminians, and the particular baptists are Calvinists. The moderate clergy of the church of England treat the protestant dissenters with affection and friendship: and though the hierarchy of their church, and the character of bishops, are great 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. Several of them have contended, in their writings, that all subscriptions to religious

systems are repugnant to the spirit of Christianity, and to reformation. Some doctrines, which were formerly generally considered as too sacred to be opposed, or even examined, are now publicly controverted, particularly the doctrine of the Trinity. Places of worship have been established, in which that doctrine has been openly renounced: and several clergymen have thrown up valuable livings in the church, and assigned their disbelief of that doctrine as the motive of their conduct.

The *Methodists* are a sect of a late institution, of which the late Mr. George Whittfield and Mr. John Wesley are considered as the founders. They profess great fervour and devotion. Their teacher, Mr. Whitfield, thought that the form of ecclesiastical worship, and prayers, whether taken from a common-prayer book or poured forth extempore, were matters of indifference: he therefore made use of both these methods. His followers are rigid observers of the doctrinal articles of the church of England, and profess themselves to be Calvinists. Mr. Whitfield died in the year 1770; but the places of worship, erected by him near London, are still frequented by persons of the same principles; and they profess a great respect for his memory. Mr. Wesley and his followers separated from Mr. Whitfield in consequence of their rejection of the Calvinistic doctrine of predestination. He erected a very large place of public worship near Moorfields, and had under him a considerable number of subordinate preachers, who submitted to their leader very implicitly, propagated his opinions, and made proselytes throughout the kingdom with great industry. After a very long life, spent in the most strenuous endeavours to do good, and having been blest in reforming the morals of thousands of the lower ranks of society, he died in 1791.

There are also a variety of subordinate sects (some of whom are from Scotland, particularly the *Sandemanians*) who have their separate followers, but very few at London and other places in England.

Of late years a sect called *Swedenborgians* has arisen, who derive their name from baron Swedenborg, a native of Sweden, whose reveries they have adopted. They resolve the scriptures almost entirely into allegory, and deal in a mysticism not easily explained.

The *Quakers* are a religious sect which took its rise about the middle of the 17th century. They believe in the immediate influence of the Divine Spirit, and reject all forms in worship, even the sacraments of Baptism and the Lord's Supper. They declare against oaths and war, abiding literally by Christ's positive injunction, "Swear not at all." They disuse the names of the months and days of the week, as being given in honour of the false gods of the heathens; and the custom of speaking to a single person in the plural number, as having arisen from motives of adulation. They declare it their decided judgement that it is contrary to the Gospel so sue each other at law; and they enjoin all to end their differences by speedy and impartial arbitration according to rules laid down. If any refuse to adopt this mode, or, having adopted it, to submit to the award, it is the rule of the society that such be disowned.

It is well known that William Penn, one of this society, founded the province of Pennsylvania, and introduced therein a plan of civil and religious liberty, particularly of the latter, at that time unexampled. The government of the province was at first, and for many years, chiefly in the hands of the quakers; but as persons of other persuasions increased, and became partakers of power, they grew uneasy at the pacific plan of the quakers; and at length succeeding to establish such modes of defence for their country as did not accord with the principles of the latter,

these gradually withdrew themselves from active employments of the state. For some time previous to the late revolution, few of them were found in any other station than that of private citizens; and, during its progress, their refusing to arm exposed them to much suffering, by distraits levied on them, in order to procure their quota in support of the war.

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 either not executed, or with so much lenity that the Roman-catholic feels himself under few hardships. Legal evasions are found out for the double taxes upon their landed property; and as they are subject to none of the expenses and troubles (unless voluntary) attending public offices, parliamentary elections, and the like burdens, the English papists are in general in good circumstances as to their private fortunes. Some of the penal laws against them have also lately been repealed, much to the satisfaction of all liberal-minded men, though a vehement outcry was afterwards raised against the measure by ignorance and bigotry. The papists now seem to be convinced that a change of government, instead of bettering, would hurt their situation, because it would increase the jealousy of the legislature; which must undoubtedly expose them daily to greater burdens and heavier penalties. This sensible consideration has of late made the Roman-catholics to appear as dutiful and zealous subjects as any his majesty has. Scarcely any English papists, excepting those who were bred or had served abroad, were engaged in the rebellion of the year 1745; and though those at home were most carefully observed, few, or none of them, were found guilty of disloyal practices.

As England has been famous for the variety of its religious sects, so it has also for its *Free-thinkers*; but that term has been applied in very different senses. It has sometimes been used to denote opposers of religion in general, and in particular of revealed religion; but it has also been applied to those who have been far from disbelieving Christianity, and who have only opposed some of those doctrines which are to be found in public creeds and formularies, but which they conceive to be no part of the original Christian system. As to those who are truly *deists* or *infidels*, there is abundant reason to believe that this class of men is much more numerous in some popish countries than in England. Christianity is so much obscured and disfigured by the fopperies and superstitions of the Roman church, that men who think freely are naturally apt to be prejudiced against it, when they see it in so disadvantageous a form; and this appears to be in fact very much the case abroad. But in England, where men have every opportunity of seeing it exhibited in a more rational manner, they have less cause to be prejudiced against it; and therefore are more ready to enter into an examination of the evidence of its divine origin. Nor does it appear that the writings of the deists against Christianity have been of any real disservice to it: on the contrary, they have caused the arguments in its favour to be used with greater force and clearness, and have been the means of producing such defences of it, as all the acuteness of modern infidelity has been unable to overthrow.

[LITERATURE, AND THE ARTS.] England may be considered 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 suc-

cession 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.

Even in the dark ages, England produced 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 curious works written by this illustrious man, we find treatises upon grammar, mathematics, physics, the flux and reflux of the British sea, optics, geography, astronomy, chronology, chemistry, logic, metaphysics, ethics, medicine, theology, philology, and upon the impediments of knowledge. He lived under Henry III., and died at Oxford about the year 1294. The honourable Mr. Walpole (the late lord Orford) has preserved the memory of some noble and royal English authors, who have done honour to learning and the Muses; and to his work we 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 that both his example and encouragement laid the foundation of the polite arts, and greatly contributed to 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, greatly encouraged these foreigners, and showed 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 bigoted 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 as only secondary to their civil. In this she showed 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 Spenser's Muse, she suffered herself to be so much imposed upon by a tasteless minister, that the poet languished and died in obscurity. Though she relished the beauties of the divine Shakspeare, yet we know not that he was 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 liberal 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 considerable 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 forgotten, that the second Bacon, who has been 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 obligations to James I., though, as he had a very pedantic taste himself, he was the means of diffusing a similar taste among his subjects.

His son Charles I. cultivated the polite arts, especially sculpture,

* See the Biographia Britannica.

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 astonishing. His favourite, the duke of Buckingham, imitated him in that respect, and laid out the vast sum of 400,000*l.* upon his cabinet of paintings and curiosities.

The earl of Arundel was another Mæcenas of that age, and greatly distinguished himself by his collection of antiquities, particularly his famous marble inscriptions, called the Arundelian marbles, now preserved at Oxford. Charles and his court had little or no relish for poetry; but such was his generosity in encouraging genius and merit of every kind, that he increased the salary of his poet laureat, the famous Ben Jonson, from 100 marks to 100 pounds per annum, and a tierce of Spanish wine; which salary is continued to this day.

The public encouragement of learning and the arts suffered indeed an eclipse, during the time of the civil wars, and the succeeding interregnum. 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 great literary merit appeared even in those times of distraction. Usher, Walton, Willis, Harrington, Wilkins, and a prodigious number of other great names, were unmolested and even favoured by that usurper; and he would also 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 made in natural knowledge, especially by the institution of the Royal Society. The king was a good 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 was not read or attended to in proportion to its merit, though it was far from being disregarded so much as has been commonly apprehended. 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, Halley, Hooke, Sydenham, Harvey, Temple, Tillotson, Barrow, Butler, Cowley, Waller, Dryden, Wycherley, and Otway. The pulpit assumed more majesty, a better style, and truer energy, than it had ever 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 had ever been known before in architecture. Nor was sir Christopher Wren merely distinguished by his skill as an architect: his knowledge was very extensive; and his discoveries in philosophy, mechanics, &c. contributed much to the reputation of the newly-established Royal Society. Some excellent English painters (for Lely and Kneller were foreigners) also 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.,

and he had a particular esteem for the latter, as he had also for Tillotson and Burnet, though he was far from being liberal to men of genius. Learning flourished, however, in his reign, merely by the excellency of the soil in which it had been planted.

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 placed 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 sprang up in the republic of learning and the arts. Addison, Prior, Pope, Swift, lord Bolingbroke, lord Shaftesbury, Arbuthnot, Congreve, Steele, Rowe, and many other excellent writers both in verse and prose, need but to be mentioned to be admired; and the English were as triumphant in literature as in war. Natural and moral 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, and which has been found highly advantageous in the promotion of true and valuable knowledge.

The ministers of George I. were the patrons of erudition, and some of them were no mean proficient themselves. George II. was himself no Mæcenæ: yet his reign yielded to none of the preceding, in the number 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. In the present reign, a great progress has been made in the polite arts in England. The Royal Academy has been instituted, some very able artists have arisen, and the annual public exhibitions of painting and sculpture have been extremely favourable to the arts; by promoting a spirit of emulation, and exciting a greater attention to works of genius of this kind among the public in general. But, notwithstanding these favourable circumstances, the fine arts have been far from meeting with that public patronage to which they have so just a claim. Few of our public edifices are adorned with paintings or with statues. The sculptors meet with little employment; nor is the historical painter much patronised; though British artists of the present age have proved that their genius for the fine arts is equal to that of any other nation.

Medicine and surgery, botany, anatomy, chemistry, and all the arts or studies for preserving life, have been carried to a great degree of perfection by the English. The same may be said of music, and theatrical exhibitions. Even agriculture is now reduced in England to a science, and that, too, without any public encouragement but such as is given by private noblemen and gentlemen, who associate themselves for that purpose.

UNIVERSITIES.] The two universities of Oxford and Cambridge have produced more learned men than any in Europe. Their magnificent buildings, which in splendor 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 a civil jurisdiction over their students, the better to secure their independency.

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Their colleges, in their revenues and buildings, exceed those of many other universities.

In Oxford there are twenty colleges and five halls: the former are very liberally endowed, but in the latter the students chiefly maintain themselves. This university is of great antiquity: it is supposed to have been a considerable place even in the time of the Romans; and Camden says, that "wise antiquity did, even in the British age, consecrate this place to the Muses." It is said to have been styled an university before the time of king Alfred; and the best historians admit, that this most excellent prince was only a restorer of learning here. Alfred built three colleges at Oxford; one for divinity, another for philosophy, and a third for grammar. The present colleges are, however, of a more recent date, none being older than the 13th century. The number of officers, fellows, and students, maintained at present by this university, is about 1000; and the number of such scholars as live at their own charge, usually about 2000.

The university of Cambridge consists of twelve colleges, and four halls; but though they are distinguished by different names, the privileges of the colleges and halls are in every respect the same. The number of fellows at this university is 400, that of scholars 666, with 236 officers and servants of various kinds. All these are maintained on the foundation. They are not, however, all the students here: there are others called pensioners; the greater and the less. The greater pensioners are sons of the nobility, and of gentlemen of large fortunes, and are called fellow-commoners, because, though they are scholars, they dine with the fellows. The lesser pensioners dine with the scholars who are on the foundation, but live at their own expense. There are also a considerable number of poor scholars, called sizars, who wait upon the fellows and scholars, and pensioners of both ranks, by whom they are in a great degree maintained; but the number of pensioners and sizars cannot be ascertained with any accuracy, as it is in a state of perpetual fluctuation.

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

LANGUAGE.] The English language is principally a compound of the Saxon and the French; 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. A great number of words, especially scientific and technical terms, have been introduced from the Latin and Greek. A more minute account of this language would be superfluous to an English reader; but, relatively, it enjoys all the properties, without many 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, however, subject to some considerable provincialities in its accent, there being much difference in the pronunciation of the inhabitants of different counties: but this chiefly affects the lowest of the people; for, as to well-educated and well-bred persons, there is little difference in their pronunciation all over the kingdom. People of fortune and education in England, of both sexes, also 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 much disused in England, even by the learned professions.

ANTIQUITIES.] The antiquities of England are either British, Roman, Saxon, Danish, or Anglo-Normannic; but these, excepting the Roman, throw no great light upon ancient history. The chief British antiquities are those circles of stones, particularly that called Stonehenge in Wiltshire, which have been attributed to 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 the top by over-thwart stones, with tenons fitted to the mortises in the uprights, for keeping them in their due position. Some of these stones are extremely 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 chisel, and sometimes tapered; but the transoms, or over-thwart stones, are quite plain. The outside circle is nearly one hundred and eighty feet in diameter, between which and the next circle there is a walk of three hundred feet in circumference, which has a surprising and awful effect upon the beholders.

Monuments of the same kind 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 northern isles.

The Roman antiquities in England consist chiefly of altars and monumental inscriptions, which instruct us as to the legionary stations of the Romans in Britain, and the names of some of their commanders. The Roman military ways give us the highest idea of the civil as well as military policy of those conquerors. Their vestiges are numerous: 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-street, passed from London through Lincoln, where a branch of it, from Pontefract to Doncaster, strikes out to the westward, passing through Tadcaster to York, and from thence to Aldby, where it again joined Hermen-street. 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 Sussex and Surrey 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; one particularly, very little defaced, near Dorchester in Dorsetshire, where also is a Roman amphitheatre. 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 tessellated pavements, that have been found in different parts, that their chief officers or 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. The private cabinets of noblemen and gentlemen, as well as the public repositories, contain a vast number

of Roman arms, coins, fibulæ, trinkets, and the like, which have been found in England; but the most amazing monument of the Roman power in England is the præenture or wall of Severus, commonly called the Picts' wall, running through Northumberland and Cumberland: beginning at Tinmouth, and ending at Solway-Firth, being about eighty miles in length. The wall at first consisted only of stakes and turf, with a ditch; but Severus built it with stone forts and 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 highway to the south.

The Saxon antiquities in England consist chiefly in ecclesiastical edifices, and places of strength. At Winchester is shown the round table of king Arthur, with the names of his knights. The antiquity of this table has been disputed by Camden and later writers, perhaps with reason; but if it be 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 is round, and they are generally built upon eminences; but their forts are square.

All England is full of Anglo-Norman monuments, which we choose to call so, because, though the princes under whom they were raised were of Norman original, yet the expense 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. 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 Surrey 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 the wars of 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.

HISTORY.] It is generally agreed that the first inhabitants of Britain were a tribe of the Gauls, or Celtæ, that settled on the opposite shore; a supposition founded upon the evident conformity in their language, manners, government, religion, and complexion.

When Julius Cæsar, about fifty-two years before the birth of Christ, meditated the conquest of Britain, the natives, undoubtedly, had great connexions 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 admitted were accompanied with

great difficulties, but attended by such advantages over the islanders, that they agreed to pay tribute. It plainly appears, however, from contemporary and other authors, as well as Cæsar's own narrative, 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 the 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.

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 clothing was skins,—and their fortifications, beams of wood. They were incredibly dexterous in the management of their chariots; and they fought with lances, darts, and swords. Women sometimes led their armies to the field, and were recognised as sovereigns in their particular districts. They favoured the primogeniture or seniority 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 the 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.

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 Boadicea, 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. Boadicea 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 northwards into Scotland, 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 this island, they erected walls to protect the Britons from the invasions of the Caledonians, or Scots; and we are told that the Roman language, learning, and customs, became familiar in Britain. There seems to be no great foundation for this assertion; and it is more probable that the Romans considered Britain chiefly as a nursery for their armies abroad, 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. During the abode of the Romans in Britain, they introduced into it all the luxuries of Italy; and under them the South Britons were reduced to a state of great vassalage, while the genius of liberty retreated northwards, where the natives had made a brave resistance against these tyrants of the world. For though the Britons were unquestionably very

brave, when incorporated with the Roman legions abroad, yet we know of no struggle they made in later times, for their independency at home, notwithstanding the many favourable opportunities that presented themselves. The Roman emperors and generals, while in this island, assisted by the Britons, were frequently employed in repelling the attacks of the Caledonians: but they appear to have had no difficulty in maintaining their authority in the southern provinces.

Upon the mighty inundations of those barbarous nations, which, under the names of Goths and Vandals, invaded the Roman empire with infinite numbers, and with danger to Rome itself, the Roman legions were withdrawn out of Britain, with the flower of the British youth, for the defence of the capital and centre of the empire; and that they might leave the island with a good grace, they assisted the Britons in rebuilding with stone the wall of Severus between Newcastle and Carlisle, which they lined with forts and watch-towers; and, having done this good office, took their last farewell of Britain about the year 448, after having been masters of the most fertile parts of it, if we reckon from the invasion of Julius Cæsar, near 500 years.

The Picts and Scots, finding the island finally deserted by the Roman legions, now regarded the whole as their prize, and attacked the wall of Severus with redoubled forces, ravaging all before them with a fury peculiar to northern nations in those ages, and which a remembrance of former injuries could not fail to inspire. The poor Britons, like a helpless family deprived of their parent and protector, already subdued by their own fears, had again recourse to Rome, and sent over their miserable epistle for relief (still upon record), which was addressed in these words: *To Aëtius, thrice consul: The groans of the Britons;* and after other lamentable complaints, said, *That the barbarians drove them to the sea, and the sea back to the barbarians; and they had only the hard choice left of perishing by the sword or by the waves.* But having no hopes given them by the Roman general of any succours from that side, they began to consider what other nation they might call over to their relief. Gildas, who was himself a Briton, describes the degeneracy of his countrymen at this time in mournful strains, and gives some confused hints of their officers, and the names of some of their kings, particularly one Vortigern, chief of the *Danmonii*, by whose advice the Britons made an engagement with two Saxon chiefs, Hengist and Horsa, to protect them from the Scots and Picts. The Saxons were in those days masters of what is now called the English Channel; and their native countries, comprehending Scandinavia and the northern parts of Germany, being overstocked with inhabitants, they readily accepted the invitation of the Britons; whom they relieved, by checking the progress of the Scots and Picts, and had the island of Thanet allowed them for their residence. But their own country was so populous and barren, and the fertile lands of Britain so agreeable and alluring, that in a very little time Hengist and Horsa began to meditate a settlement for themselves; and fresh supplies of their countrymen arriving daily, the Saxons soon became formidable to the Britons, whom, after a violent struggle of near 150 years, they subdued, or drove into Wales, where their language and their 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 among the Britons were recorded only by their bards and poets, a species of men whom they held in great veneration.

It does not fall within the design of this work 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 monks, and that the popish clergy took care to keep their kings and laity in 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, who, 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 this 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, imposed an annual tax of a penny upon every house, which was afterwards known by the name of Peter's-pence, because paid on the holiday *St. Peter ad vincula*, August 1st*.

London was then a place of very considerable trade; and if we 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; 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.

In this state was the Saxon heptarchy in England, when, about the year 800, most of 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, one of the Saxon chiefs who first arrived in Britain. On the submission of the Northumbrians in the year 827, he became king of all England.

Charles the Great, otherwise Charlemagne, was then king of France, and emperor of Germany. 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 therefore soon united the Saxon heptarchy in his own person, but without subduing Wales. He changed the name of his kingdom into that of Engle-lond 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, 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, through the renewal of the Danish invasions; and 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, even the tithes of all his dominions, that they show his intellect to have been disturbed by his de-

* This tax was imposed at first for the support of a college at Rome, for the education of English youth, founded by Ina, king of Wessex, under the name of *Rome-School*; but in process of time the popes claimed it as a tribute due to St. Peter and his successors.

votion, or that he was guided by the arts of Swithin, bishop of Winchester. Upon his death, after his return from Rome, he divided his dominions between two of 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 Ethelred; in whose time, notwithstanding the courage and conduct of Alfred, the Danes became masters of the sea-coast, and the finest counties in England. Ethelred being killed, his brother Alfred mounted the throne in 871. 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, found resources that rendered him as formidable as before. He was, however, at one time reduced to a state of the greatest distress, being forced to live in the disguise of a cow-herd: but still he maintained a secret correspondence with his brave friends, whom he collected together; and by their assistance gave the Danes many signal overthrows, till at last he recovered the kingdom of England, and obliged the Danes, who had settled in it, to swear obedience to his government: even part of Wales courted his protection; so that he was probably more powerful than any monarch that had 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 tithings: 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 not only a scholar, but an author; and he tells us, 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 building into 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 of commerce and navigation may seem incredible to modern times; but he had merchants who traded in East-India jewels; and William of Malmsbury 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 coast 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 used 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. He was inexorable against his corrupt judges, whom he used to hang up in the public highways, as a terror to evil-doers. He died in the year 901; and his character is so completely amiable and heroic, that he is justly distinguished with the epithet of the Great.

Alfred was succeeded by his son Edward the Elder, under whom, though a brave prince, the Danes renewed their invasions. He died in the year 925, and was succeeded by his eldest son Athelstan. This prince greatly encouraged commerce, and made a law, that every merchant who had made three voyages on his own account to the Mediterranean, should be considered as the equal of a *thane* or *nobleman* of the first rank. He caused the Scriptures to be translated into the Saxon tongue. He encouraged coinage; and we find by his laws, that archbishops, bishops,

and even abbots, had then the privilege of coining money. He engaged in several wars with the Scots, in which he was generally successful, and died in 941. The reigns of his successors, Edmund, Edred, and Edwy, were weak and inglorious, they 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, and is said to have been rowed down the river Dee by eight kings, his vassals, he sitting at the helm; but, like his predecessors, he was the slave of priests, particularly St. Dunstan. His reign, however, was pacific and happy, though he was obliged to cede to the Scots all the territory to the north of the Tyne. He was succeeded in 975 by his eldest son Edward, who was barbarously murdered by his step-mother, whose son Ethelred, by the aid of priests, mounted the throne in 978. The English nation, at this time, was over-run with barbarians, and the Danes by degrees became possessed of the finest parts of the country, while their countrymen made sometimes dreadful descents in the western parts. To get rid of them, he agreed to pay them 30,000*l.*, which was levied by way of tax, and called *Danegeld*, and was the first land-tax in England. In the year 1002 they had made such settlements in England, that Ethelred consented to a general massacre of them by the English; but it is improbable that it was ever carried into execution. Some attempts of that kind 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, a province of France, at that time governed by its own princes, styled the dukes of Normandy. Swein being killed was succeeded by his son Canute the Great: but Ethelred returning to England forced Canute to retire to Denmark, from whence he invaded England with a vast army, and obliged Edmund Ironside (so called for his great bodily strength), Ethelred's son, to divide with him the kingdom. Edmund being assassinated, Canute succeeded to the undivided kingdom; and dying in 1035, 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 Atheling, by being descended from an elder branch, had the lineal right, and was alive. Upon the death of the Confessor, in the year 1066, Harold, son to Goodwin 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 made liberal promises to his followers, of lands and honours in England, to induce them 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 by the Danes, William landed in England without opposition. Harold, returning from the north, encountered William at the place now called Battle, which took its name from that event, near Hastings in Sussex, and a most bloody battle was fought between the two armies; but Harold being killed, the crown of England devolved upon William, in the year 1066.

We have very particular accounts of the value of provisions and manufactures in those days: a palfrey cost 1*s.*; an acre of land (according to bishop Fleetwood in his *Chronicon Pretiosum*) 1*s.*; a hide of land,

containing 120 acres, 100s.; a sheep was estimated at 1s., an ox was computed at 6s., a cow at 4s., a man at 3l.; but there is great difficulty in forming the proportion of value which those shillings bore to the present standard of money. 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, they were in general a rude uncultivated people, ignorant of letters, unskilful in the mechanical arts, and addicted to intemperance, riot, and disorder. But 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 the English subject.

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 made a considerable alteration in the constitution of England, by converting lands into knights' fees, which are said to have amounted to 62,000, and were held of the Norman and other 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. He gave, for instance, to one of his barons the whole county of Chester, which he erected into a palatinate, and rendered by his grant almost independent of the crown; and here, according to some historians, we have the rise of the feudal law in England. William found it no easy matter to keep possession of his crown. Edgar Atheling, 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. He, however, surmounted all difficulties, especially after he had made a peace with Malcolm king of Scotland, who married Atheling's sister; but not without exercising horrible cruelties upon the Anglo-Saxons. He introduced the Norman laws and language. He built the stone square tower at London, commonly called the White Tower; bridled the country with forts, and disarmed the old inhabitants; in short, he attempted every thing possible to obliterate every trace of the Anglo-Saxon constitution; though, at his coronation, he took the same oath that used to be taken by the ancient Saxon kings.

He caused a general survey of all the lands in 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 or servile tenants, slaves, and live-stock, upon each estate; all which were recorded in a book called Doomsday-book, which is now kept in the Exchequer. But the repose of this fortunate and victorious king was disturbed, in his old age, by the rebellion of his eldest son Robert, who had been appointed governor of Normandy, but assumed the government as sovereign of that province, in which he was favoured by the king of France. William, seeing a war inevitable, entered upon it with his usual vigour; and with incredible celerity transporting a brave English army, invaded France, where he was every where victorious; but died before he had finished the war, in the year 1087, the sixty-first year of his age, and twenty-first of his reign in England, and was buried in his own abbey at Caen in Normandy.

The succession to the crown of England was disputed between the Conqueror's sons Robert and William (commonly called Rufus, from his being red-haired), and 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, he was engaged in perpetual wars with his brothers and rebellious subjects. About this time the crusades of the Holy Land began; and 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 Atheling 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 Hampshire, in the year 1100, and the forty-fourth year of his age.

This prince built Westminster-hall, and added several works to the tower, which he surrounded with a wall and a ditch. In the year 1100 happened that inundation of the sea, which overflowed great part of earl Goodwin'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 then 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; secondly, by a charter, in which he restored his subjects to the rights and privileges they had enjoyed under the Anglo-Saxon kings; and, 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 duchy of Normandy; and, with the most ungenerous meanness, detained him a prisoner twenty-eight years, till the time of his death. 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 the crown dependent 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 until 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 scornfully 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, were an over-match for 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 obtaining his liberty found that his clergy and nobility had in fact excluded him from the government, by building 1100 castles, where each owner lived as an independent prince. We do not, however, find that this alleviated the feudal subjection of the inferior ranks. Stephen attempted to force them to declare his son Eustace heir-apparent to the kingdom; and this 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 suffered so much during the late civil wars, with great 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. He soon discovered extraordinary abilities for government; and had performed, in the sixteenth year of his age, actions that would have dignified the most experienced warriors. At his accession to the throne, he found the condition of the English boroughs greatly improved, by the privileges granted them in the struggles between their late kings and the nobility. Henry perceived the good policy of this, and still further extended the franchises of the boroughs, so 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 towns; 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 made by Stephen, which were represented as illegal. He demolished many of the castles that had been built by the barons; but, when he came to attack the clergy, he found their usurpations not to be shaken. He perceived that the root of all the enormous disorders lay in Rome, where the popes had exempted churchmen, not only from lay courts, but civil taxes. Unfortunately for Henry, the head of the English church, and chancellor of the kingdom, was the celebrated Thomas Becket. This man, powerful from his office, 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 at the same time 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. 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 in its meridian grandeur. Becket having been arraigned and convicted of robbing the public while he was chancellor, 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 laity 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 in 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, Reginald Fitzurse, William de Tracy, Hugh de Morville, and Richard Brito; who, without apprising Henry of their intentions, went over to England, where they beat out Becket's brains before the altar of his own church at Canterbury, in the year 1171. Henry was in no condition to support the act 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 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, to deliver himself from captivity, was obliged to pay liege homage to king Henry for his kingdom of Scotland, and for all his other dominions. It was also agreed, that liege homage should be done and fealty sworn to Henry, without reserve or exception, by all the earls and barons of the territories of the king of Scotland from whom Henry should desire it, in the same manner as by his other vassals. The heirs of the king of Scotland, and the heirs of his earls, barons, and tenants in chief, were likewise obliged to render liege homage to the heirs of the king of England.

Henry likewise distinguished his reign by the conquest of Ireland; and by marrying Eleanor, the divorced queen of France, but the heiress of Guienne and Poitou, he became almost as powerful in France as the French king himself, and the greatest prince in Christendom. In his last years he was unhappy, having embarrassed himself by intrigues with women, particularly the fair Rosamond. His infidelity was resented by his queen Eleanor, who even engaged her sons, Henry (whom his father had unadvisedly caused to be crowned in his own life-time), Richard, and John, in repeated rebellions, which affected their father so much as to throw him into a fever, and he died at Chinon, in France, in the year 1189, and fifty-seventh of his age. The sum he left in ready money at his death has perhaps been exaggerated; but the most moderate accounts make it amount to 200,000 pounds of our money.

Richard I., surnamed Cœur de Lion from his great courage, was the third but eldest surviving son of Henry II. He engaged in a most magnificent but ruinous crusade to the Holy Land, where he took Ascalon,

and displayed his valour by many heroic acts. After several glorious but fruitless campaigns, he concluded a truce of three years with Saladin emperor of the Saracens; and in his return to England was treacherously surprised by the duke of Austria, who, in 1193, sent him a prisoner to the emperor Henry VI. His ransom was fixed by the sordid emperor at 150,000 marks, about 300,000 pounds of our present money. On his return, he found his dominions in great disorder, through the practices of his brother John, whom, however, he pardoned; and by the invasions of the French, whom he repelled; but was slain while besieging the castle of Chalons, in the year 1199, the forty-second of his age, and tenth of his reign.

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 John's 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 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 1216, 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 Saxon princes, and which they claimed by the charters of Henry I. and Henry II. 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, became applicable to every English subject, as well as to the barons, knights, and burgesses. John had scarcely signed it, when he retracted, and called upon the pope for protection; on which the barons withdrew their allegiance from John, and transferred it to Lewis, the eldest son of Philip Augustus, king of France. This gave offence to the pope; and the barons, being apprehensive of their country becoming a province to France, returned to their allegiance to John: but he was unable to protect them, till the pope refused to confirm the title of Lewis. John died in 1216, in the eighteenth year of his reign, and the forty-ninth of his age.

The city of London owes some of her privileges to him. The office of mayor, before his reign, was for life; but he gave them a charter to choose 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 the 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 1219, and the regency devolved upon the bishop of Winchester. The king was of a feeble and pliable disposition, and had been persuaded to violate the Great Charter. Indeed he seemed always endeavouring to evade the privileges which he had been

compelled to grant and confirm. An association of the barons was formed against him and his government; and a civil war commencing, Henry seemed to be abandoned by all but his Gascons and foreign mercenaries. His profusion brought him into great difficulties; and the famous Stephen Montfort, who had married his sister, and was made earl of Leicester, being chosen general of the association, the king 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 Evesham, August 4th, 1265, 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 afterwards engaged in a crusade, Henry, during his absence, died in 1272, the sixty-fourth year of his age, and fifty-sixth of his reign, which was uncomfortable and inglorious; and, yet, to the struggles of this reign the people in a great measure owe the liberties of the present time. Interest had in that age mounted to an enormous height. There are instances of 50 per cent. being 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 oppressions you complain of? I am myself a beggar; I am despoiled; I am stripped of all my revenues; I owe above 200,000 marks—if I had said 300,000 I should not have exceeded 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 at 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. Trial by *ordeal* was now entirely disused, and that by *duel* discouraged. Bracton's famous law-treatise was published in this reign.

Edward 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*.) Alexander III., king of Scotland, was at the solemnity; and on the occasion 500 horses were let loose, for those that could catch them to keep them.

Edward was a brave and politic prince; and being perfectly well acquainted with the laws, interests, and constitution of his kingdom, his regulations, and reformation of the 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 granted certain privileges to 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 Welsh to pay him tribute, and annexed that principality to his crown; and was the first who gave the title of Prince of Wales to his eldest son.

His vast connexions 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. Windmills were erected in England about the same time, and the regulation of gold and silver workmanship was ascertained by an assay, and marks of the goldsmiths' company. Edward's continental wars were unfortunate both to himself and the English, by draining them of their wealth; and he was often embroiled with the pope, especially upon the affairs of Scotland. He died in 1307, in the sixty-ninth year of his age, and thirty-fifth of his reign, while he was engaged in a new expedition against Scotland. He ordered his heart to be sent to the Holy Land, with 32,000 pounds for the maintenance of the *Holy Sepulchre*.

His son and successor, Edward II., showed early dispositions for encouraging favourites; but Gaveston, his chief minion, a Gascon, 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 of the French king, who restored to him part of the territories which Edward I. had lost in France. The barons, however, obliged him once more to banish his favourite, and to confirm the Great Charter; while king Robert Bruce recovered all Scotland, excepting the castle of Stirling; near to which, at Bannockburn, Edward in person received the greatest defeat England ever suffered, in 1314. Gaveston being beheaded by the barons, they fixed upon young Hugh Spencer as a spy upon the king; but he soon became his favourite. He, through his pride, avarice, and ambition, was banished, together with his father, whom he had procured to be made earl of Winchester. The 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 anti-royalist lords. A breach between her and the Spencers soon followed; and going over to France with her lover, 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 Berkley-castle, by ruffians, supposed to be employed by her and her paramour Mortimer, in the year 1327. In this reign the Knights Templars were suppressed.

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 adopting many popular measures, and putting an end to all national differences with Scot-

land, for which Mortimer was created earl of March. Edward, young as he was, was soon sensible of their designs. He surprised them in person at the head of a few chosen friends in the castle of Nottingham. Mortimer was hanged as a traitor on the common gallows at Tyburn, and the queen shut up in confinement twenty-eight years, to her death. It was not long before Edward found means to quarrel with David, king of Scotland, though he had married his sister. David was driven to France by Edward Baliol, who acted as Edward's tributary, king of Scotland, and general, and did the same homage to Edward for Scotland as his father had done to Edward I. 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 armour, and submitting to military exercises and proper subordination in the field. The war, on the part of Edward, was therefore a continued scene of success and victory. In 1340 he took the title of king of France, using it in all public acts, and quartered the arms of France with his own, adding this motto, *Dieu et mon droit*, "God and my right." At Cressy, August 26th, 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 very superior advantage 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 Cressy was fought, and remained a prisoner eleven years. Thus Edward had the glory to see two crowned heads his captives at London. Both kings were afterwards ransomed; David for 100,000 marks, and John for three millions of gold crowns: 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 terrified 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, Alice Pierce. The prince of Wales, commonly called the Black Prince*, from his wearing black armour while he was making a glorious campaign in Spain, where he reinstated Peter the Cruel on the 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, at Shene in Surry, in the year 1377, the sixty-fifth of his age, and fifty-first of his reign.

No prince ever understood the balance and interests of Europe better than Edward did. He has the glory of inviting over and protecting fullers, dyers, weavers, and other artificers from Flanders, and of establishing the woollen manufacture among the English, who, till this time, generally exported the unwrought commodity. In his reign few of the English ships, even of war, exceeded forty or fifty tons. 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 of 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 great allurements to enter into the service. The wages of a master-carpenter were limited through the whole year to three-pence a day, those of a common carpenter to two-pence, money of that age.

Dr. 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 was a man of parts, learning, and piety, and has the honour of being the first person in Europe who publicly called in question those doctrines which had generally 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 inquiring age. He had many friends in the university of Oxford, and at court, and was powerfully protected against the evil designs of the pope and bishops by John of Gaunt, duke of Lancaster, one of the king's sons, and other great men. His disciples were distinguished by the name of Wickliffites or Lollards.

Richard II., son of the Black Prince, was only eleven years of age when he mounted the throne. The English arms were then unsuccessful both in France and Scotland; but the doctrines of Wickliffe took root under the influence of the duke of Lancaster, the king's uncle, and

* He was also the first in England that had the title of *Duke*, being created by his father duke of Cornwall; and, ever since, the eldest son of the king of England is by birth duke of Cornwall.

one of his guardians, and gave enlarged notions of liberty to the villains, and lower ranks of people. 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, Jack Straw, and others, the lowest of the people. The conduct of these insurgents was very violent; but it cannot be denied that the common people of England then laboured under many oppressions.

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 the Londoners, while Walworth the mayor, and Philpot an alderman, had the courage to put Tyler, the leader of the malecontents, to death, in the midst of his adherents. Richard then associated to himself a new set of favourites. His people and great lords again took up arms; and being headed by the duke of Gloucester, the king's uncle, they forced Richard once more into terms: but being insincere in all his compliances, he was upon the point of becoming more despotic than any king in 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 acts 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 formed in England, the natural result of his tyranny, who offered the duke of Lancaster the crown. The duke landed from France at Ravenspur in Yorkshire, and was soon at the head of 60,000 men, all of them English. Richard hurried back to England, where, his troops refusing to fight, and his subjects, whom he had affected to despise, generally deserting him, he was made prisoner with no more than twenty attendants; and being carried to London, was deposed in full parliament, upon a formal charge of tyranny and misconduct; and soon after is supposed to have been starved to death in prison, in the year 1399, the thirty-fourth of his age, and the twenty-third of his reign. He had no issue by either of his two marriages.

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 on 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 in his title would render him a dependent upon them. At first some conspiracies were formed against him by the dukes of Surry and Exeter, the earls of Gloucester and Salisbury, and the archbishop of York; but he crushed them by his activity and steadiness, and laid a plan for reducing their overgrown power. This was understood by the Percy family, the greatest in the north of England, who complained that Henry had deprived them of some Scotch prisoners, whom they had taken in battle; and a dangerous rebellion broke out under the old earl of Northumberland, and his son the famous Henry Percy, surnamed 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 insurrection of the Welch, under Owen Glendower; and by his prudent concessions to his parliament, to the commons particularly, he at last overcame 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 (afterwards James I. of that kingdom), 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, and thirteenth of his reign, he had the satisfaction to see his son and successor, the prince of Wales, disengage himself from many youthful follies, which till then had disgraced his conduct.

The English marine was now so greatly increased, that we find an English vessel of 200 tons in the Baltic, and many other ships of equal burthen, carrying on a great trade all over Europe, but with the Hanse towns in particular. With regard to public liberty, Henry IV., as has been already hinted, was the first prince who gave the different orders in parliament, especially that of the commons, their due weight. It is however somewhat surprising, that learning was at this time in a much lower state 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." By the influence of the court, and the intrigues of the clergy, an act was obtained in the sessions of parliament 1401, for the burning of heretics, occasioned by the great increase of the Wickliffites or Lollards; and immediately after, one Sawtree, parish-priest of St. Osithe in London, was burnt alive by the king's writ, directed to the mayor and sheriff's of London.

At the accession of Henry V., in 1413, the Lollards, or the followers of Wickliffe, were excessively numerous; and sir John Oldcastle lord Cobham having joined them, it was pretended that he had agreed to put himself at their head, with a design to overturn the government; but this appears to have been a groundless accusation by the clergy, though he was put to death in consequence of it. His only real crime seems to have been the spirit with which he opposed the superstition of the age; and he was the first of the nobility who suffered on account of religion. Henry was about this time engaged in a contest with France, which he had many incitements for invading. He demanded a restitution of Normandy, and other provinces that had been taken from England in the preceding reigns; also the payment of certain arrears due for king John's ransom since the reign of Edward III.; and availing himself of the distracted state of that kingdom by the Orleans and Burgundy factions, he invaded it, 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 exter-

minated, had not the Scots (though their king still continued Henry's captive) furnished the dauphin with vast supplies, and preserved to him the French crown. 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 Scottish auxiliaries. He probably would have been successful, had he not died of a pleuritic disorder, 1442, in the thirty-fourth year of his age, and the tenth of his reign.

Henry V.'s vast successes in France revived the trade of England, and at the same time increased and established the privileges and liberties of the English commonalty. By an authentic and exact account of the ordinary revenues of the crown during this reign, it appears that they amounted only to 55,714*l.* a year, which is nearly the same with the revenues in Henry III.'s time; and the kings of England had neither become much richer nor poorer in the course of 200 years. The ordinary expenses of the government amounted to 52,507*l.*; so that the king had of surplus only 3,207*l.* for the support of his household, for his wardrobe, for the expenses of embassies, and other articles. This sum was not nearly sufficient even in time of peace; and, to carry on his wars, this great conqueror was reduced to the greatest difficulties; he contracted many debts, and pawned his jewels, and sometimes the crown itself; he ran in arrears to his army; and he was often obliged to stop in the midst of his career of victory, and to grant a truce to the enemy.

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 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, she being born of the lowest extraction, and bred a cow-keeper, and some time a helper in stables in public inns. She must, notwithstanding, have possessed an amazing fund of sagacity as well as valour. After an unparalleled train of heroic actions, and placing the crown upon her sovereign's head, she was taken prisoner by the English in making a sally during the siege of Compiègne, who burnt her alive for a witch, at Rouen, May 30, 1431.

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, and the loss of all their fine provinces in that kingdom, notwithstanding the courage of Talbot the first earl of Shrewsbury, and their other officers. The principal 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 of Anjou, 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 that 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 professed 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 an insurrection of 20,000 Kentish men, headed by one Jack Cade, a man of low condition, who sent to the court a list of grievances; but he was defeated 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 the nobility his friends; but being considered as the fomentor of Cade's rebellion, he professed 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 assembled an army; but 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 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. The queen, however, refused to agree 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 remarkable 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 generous protection.

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 on either side were taken, 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 in Scotland, and 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 20th of June, fell in love with, and privately married, Elizabeth the widow of sir John Gray, though he had some time before sent the earl of Warwick to demand the king of France's sister in marriage, in which embassy he was successful, and nothing remained but the bringing over the princess into England. When the secret of Edward's marriage was known, the haughty earl, deeming himself affronted, returned to England inflamed with rage and indignation, and, from being Edward's best friend, became his most formidable enemy; and gaining over the duke of Clarence, 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 Warwick 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 appearance of probability) to have done his father Henry VI., then a prisoner in the tower of London, a few days after, in the year 1471.

Edward, partly to amuse the public, and partly to supply the vast expenses 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.

Notwithstanding the turbulence of the times, the trade and manufactures of England, particularly the woollen, increased during the reigns of Henry VI. and Edward IV. So early as 1440, a navigation act was proposed, as the only means to preserve to the English the benefit of being the sole carriers of their own merchandize; but foreign influence prevented Henry from passing the bill for that purpose. The invention of printing, which is generally supposed to have been imported into England by William Caxton, and which received some countenance from Edward, is the chief glory of his reign; but learning in general was then in a mean 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. The famous Littleton, judge of the

Common Pleas, and Fortescue, chancellor of England, flourished at this period.

Edward IV. left two sons by his queen, who had exercised her power with no great prudence, by having ennobled 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 nobility, found means to bastardise 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 the crown, which was offered him by the Londoners; having first put to death all the nobility and men of rank 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 well known by the name of Perkin Warbeck. Be this as it may, 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 astonishing acts of personal valour, was killed, having been first abandoned by a main division of his army, under lord Stanley and his brother, in the year 1485.

Though 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, which happily put an end to the long and bloody wars between the contending houses of York and Lancaster. Henry, however, rested his right upon conquest, and seemed to pay little regard to the advantages of his marriage. He was the first who instituted that guard called *Yeomen*, which still subsists; and, in imitation of his predecessors, 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, on assuming a nobleman's livery, and attending his person. 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; 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 licenses for the alienation.

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 duchess 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. 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, 200,000 crowns of gold, 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, the fifty-second year of his age, and twenty-fourth of his reign, 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. He was immoderately fond of replenishing his coffers, and often prevailed on his parliament to grant him subsidies for foreign alliances which he never intended to form.

The great alteration which happened in the constitution of England during Henry VII.'s reign has been already mentioned. His excessive love of money, and his avarice, were probably the reason why he did not become master of the West Indies, he having the first offer of the discovery from Columbus; whose proposals being rejected by Henry, that great man applied to the court of Spain, and he set out upon the discovery of a new world in the year 1492, which he effected after a passage of thirty-three days, and took possession of the country in the name of the king and queen of Spain. Henry, however, made some amends by encouraging Cabot, a Venetian, who discovered the main land of North America, in 1498; 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 enterprises which they had in view.

Perhaps no prince ever entered with greater advantages on the exercise of royalty than Henry VIII. Young, vigorous, and rich, without any rival, he held the balance of power in Europe; but it is certain that he neglected those 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 led him into incredible expenses. 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 these princes, was directed by Wolsey's views upon the papedom, which he hoped to gain by the interest of Charles;

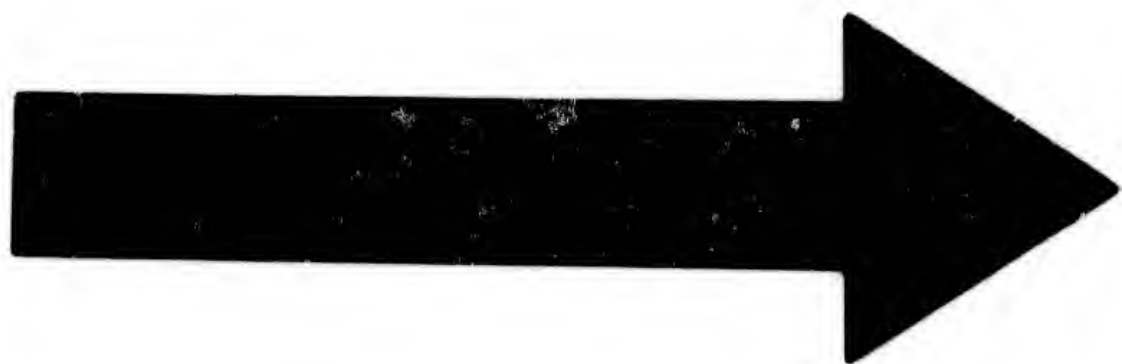
but finding himself twice deceived, he persuaded his master to declare himself for Francis, who had been taken prisoner at the battle of Pavia. Henry, however, continued to be the dupe of all parties, and to pay great part of their expenses, till at last he was forced to lay vast burthens upon his subjects.

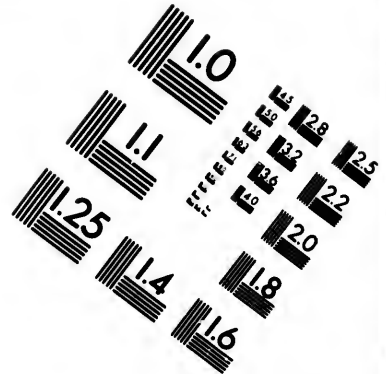
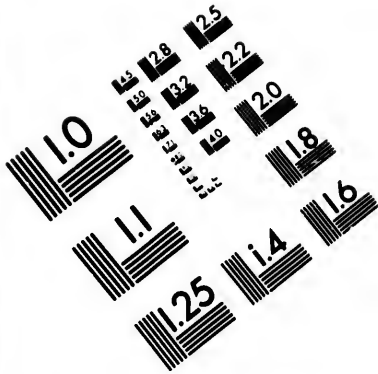
Henry continued all this time the great enemy of the reformation, and the champion of the popes and the Romish church. He wrote a book against Luther, "*Of the Seven Sacraments*," about the year 1521, for which the pope gave him the title of *Defender of the Faith*, which his successors retain to this day. But, about the year 1527, he began to have some scruple with regard to the validity of his marriage with his brother's widow. It may be difficult to say at present how far he might be influenced by scruples of his conscience, or aversion to the queen, or the charms of the famous Anne Boleyn, maid of honour to the queen, 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 Wolsey, who died heart-broken, after being stript of his immense power and possessions.

A variety of circumstances, it is well known, induced Henry at last to throw off all relation to, or dependence upon, the church of Rome, and to cause a reformation; in which, however, many of the Romish errors and superstitions were retained. Henry never could have effected this important change had it not been for his despotic disposition, which displayed itself on every occasion. Upon a slight suspicion of his queen's inconstancy, and after a mock trial, he cut off her head in the Tower, and put to death some of her nearest relations; and in many respects he acted in the most arbitrary manner; his wishes, however unreasonable, being too readily complied with, in consequence of the shameful servility of his parliaments. 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 shed on scaffolds, and seldom any long time passed without being marked with some illustrious victim of his tyranny.—Among others, was the aged countess of Salisbury, descended immediately from Edward IV., and mother to cardinal Pole; the marquis of Exeter, the lord Montague; and others of the blood royal, for holding a correspondence with that cardinal.

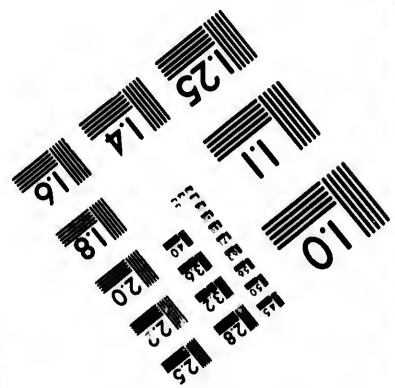
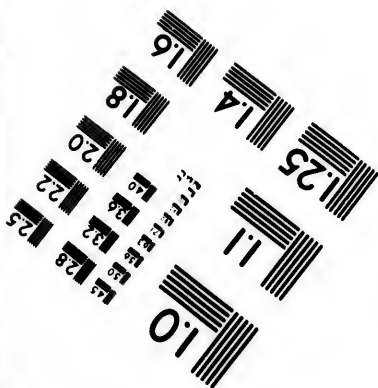
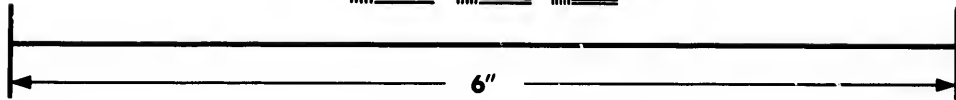
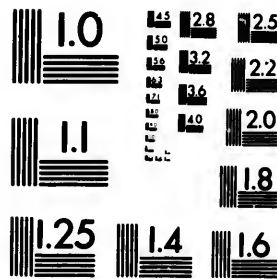
His third wife was Jane Seymour, daughter to a gentleman of fortune and family; but she died in bringing Edward VI. into the world. His fourth wife was Anne, sister to the duke of Cleves. He disliked her so much, that he soon obtained a divorce, though he suffered her to reside in England on a pension of 3000*l.* a year. His fifth wife was Catharine Howard, niece to the duke of Norfolk, whom he caused to be beheaded for ante-nuptial incontinency. His last wife was Catharine Par, in whose possession he died, after she had narrowly escaped being brought to the stake, for her religious opinions, which favoured the reformation. Henry's cruelty increased with his years, and was now exercised promiscuously on protestants and catholics. 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 the next day, had he not been saved by the death of Henry himself, 1547, in the 50th year of his age, and the 38th of his reign.

The state of England, during the reign of Henry VIII., is, by the means of printing, better known than that of his predecessors. His at-





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tion to the naval security of England was highly commendable; and it is certain that he employed the unjust and arbitrary power he frequently assumed, in many respects, for the glory and interest of his subjects. Without inquiring 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 property of the church among his courtiers and favourites, and thereby rescuing it from dead hands, undoubtedly promoted 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, the most learned man of his age. 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 erected into a kingdom, and Henry took the title of king instead of lord of Ireland.

Edward VI. was but nine years of age at the time of his father's death; and after some disputes 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 an implacable enemy to the see of Rome.

The reader is to observe in general, that the reformation was not effected without many public disturbances. The common people, during the reigns of Henry and Edward, being deprived of the last relief they had from abbeys 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.

The reformation, however, went on rapidly, through the zeal of Cranmer and others, 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, as Bridewell and St. Thomas's hospitals, and also several schools which still exist and flourish, show the goodness of his heart. He died of a consumption in 1553, in the 10th year of his age, and the 7th 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 17th year, was a prodigy of learning and virtue; but the bulk of the English nation recognised the claim of the princess Mary, and lady Jane was beheaded. Her husband, lord Guildford Dudley, son to the duke of Northumberland, also 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 instrumental in her cruelties, and lighted up the flames of persecution, in which archbishop Cramer, 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 the chief executioners of her bloody mandates: and had she lived, she would have endeavoured to exterminate all her protestant subjects.

Mary now married Philip II. 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, and which had been held ever since the reign of Edward III. This loss, which was chiefly owing to cardinal Pole's secret connexions with the French court, is said to have broken Mary's heart, who died in 1558, in the 42d year of her life, and 6th of her reign. "In the heat of her persecuting flames (says a contemporary writer of credit) were burnt to ashes, 1 archbishop, 4 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." Several also died in prison, and many were otherwise cruelly treated.

Elizabeth, daughter to Henry VIII. by Anne Boleyn, 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, grandchild 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 main support of the popish cause, both abroad and in England. Elizabeth was no more than 25 years of age at the time of her inauguration; but her sufferings under her bigoted sister, joined to the superiority of her genius, had taught her caution and policy; and she soon surmounted all difficulties.

In matters of religion she succeeded with surprising 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. And it is observed, that of 9400 beneficed clergymen in England, only about 120 refused to comply with the reformation. 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 Scottish malcontents, till Mary's unhappy marriage with lord Darnley, and then with Bothwell, the supposed murderer of the former, and her other misconduct and misfortunes, drove her to take refuge in Elizabeth's dominions, where she had often been promised a safe and honourable asylum. It is well known how unfaithful Elizabeth was to this profession of friendship, and that she detained the unhappy prisoner eighteen years in England, then brought her to a mock trial, pretending

that Mary aimed at the crown, and, without sufficient proof of her guilt, cut off her head—an action which greatly tarnished the glories of her reign.

The same Philip who had been the husband of her late sister, upon Elizabeth's accession to the throne, offered to marry her: but she dexterously avoided his addresses; and, by a train of skilful negotiations between her court and that of France, 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 supported the protestants of France against their persecuting princes and the papists, and gave the dukes of Anjou and Alençon, brothers of the French king, 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 showed no resentment when she beheaded queen Mary.

When Philip was no longer to be imposed upon by the arts of Elizabeth, which had amused and baffled him in every quarter, he employed the immense sums 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 general of that age, and procured a papal bull for absolving Elizabeth's subjects from their allegiance. The great size of the Spanish ships proved disadvantageous to them on the seas where they fought. The lord admiral Howard, and the brave sea-officers under him, engaged, beat, and chased the Spanish fleet for several days; and the waves and tempests finished the destruction which the English arms had begun, so that few of the Spanish ships recovered their ports. Next to the admiral, lord Howard of Effingham, sir Francis Drake, captain Hawkins, and captain Probisher, 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 them her favourite, the earl of Leicester, who acted as her viceroi and general in the Low Countries. Though Leicester behaved ill, yet her measures were so wise, that the Dutch established their independency; 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, whence they brought prodigious treasures, taken from the Spaniards, into England.

Elizabeth in her old age grew distrustful, peevish, and jealous. Though she undoubtedly loved the earl of Essex, she teased him by her capriciousness into the madness of taking arms, and then cut off his head. She complained that she had been betrayed into this sanguinary measure; and this occasioned a sinking of her spirits, which brought her to her grave in 1603, in the seventieth year of her age, and 45th of her reign, having previously named her kinsman James VI., king of Scotland, and son to Mary, for her successor.

Though the policy of Elizabeth, with respect to foreign nations, was very wise and beneficial to her subjects, her internal government was far from being friendly to personal liberty, and she was guilty of many stretches of power against the most sacred rights of Englishmen. The severe statutes against the puritans, debarring them of liberty of conscience, and by which many suffered death, must be condemned.

We can scarcely 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 occasionally exercised by Elizabeth and the house of Tudor, and which various causes had prevented the people from opposing with proper vigour. The nation had been wearied and exhausted by the long and destructive wars between the houses of Lancaster and York, in the course of which the ancient nobility were in great part cut off; and the people were inclined to endure much, rather than again involve themselves in the miseries of civil war. Neither did James make any allowance for the glories of Elizabeth, which, as has been observed, disguised her most arbitrary acts; and more for the free, liberal sentiments, which the improvement of knowledge and learning had diffused through England. It is needless 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 an union between England and Scotland; but though he failed in this through the aversion of the English to that measure, on account of his loading his Scottish courtiers with wealth and honours, he showed 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 gunpowder treason*.

James and his ministers were continually inventing new ways to raise money, as by monopolies, benevolences, loans, and other illegal methods. Among other expedients, he sold the titles of baron, viscount, and earl, at a certain price; made a number of knights of Nova Scotia, each to pay such a sum, and instituted a new order of knights-baronets, which was to be hereditary, for which each person paid 1095*l*.

His pacific reign was a series of theological contests with ecclesiastical

* This was a scheme of the Roman-catholics to cut off at one blow the king, lords, and commons, at the meeting of parliament; when it was also expected that the queen and prince of Wales would be present. The manner of enlisting any new conspirator was by oath, and administering the sacrament; and this dreadful secret, after being religiously kept near eighteen months, was happily discovered in the following manner: About ten days before the long-wished-for meeting of parliament, a Roman-catholic peer received a letter, which had been delivered to his servant by an unknown hand, earnestly advising him to put off his attendance in parliament at that time; but which contained no kind of explanation. The nobleman, though he considered the letter as a foolish attempt to frighten and ridicule him, thought proper to lay it before the king, who, studying the contents with more attention, began to suspect some dangerous contrivance by gunpowder; and it was judged advisable to inspect all the vaults below the houses of parliament; but the search was purposely delayed till the night immediately preceding the meeting, when a justice of peace was sent with proper attendants; and before the door of the vault, under the upper house, finding one Fawkes, who had just finished all his preparations, he immediately seized him, and at the same time discovered in the vault 36 barrels of powder, which had been carefully concealed under faggots and piles of wood. The match, with every thing proper for setting fire to the train, was found in Fawkes's pocket, whose countenance bespoke his savage disposition, and who, after regretting that he had lost the opportunity of destroying so many heretics, made a full discovery; and the conspirators, who never exceeded eighty in number, being seized by the country people, confessed their guilt, and were executed in different parts of England. Notwithstanding this horrid crime, the bigoted catholics were so devoted to Garnet, a Jesuit, one of the conspirators, that they fancied miracles to be wrought by his blood, and in Spain he was considered as a martyr.

casuists, in which he proved himself more a theologian than a prince; and in 1617 he attempted to establish episcopacy in Scotland; but the zeal of the people baffled his design.

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 re-instate him in that and his electorate, he probably would have stood single in the same, excepting the feeble and uncertain assistance he might have received from the elector's dependents and friends in Germany. It is certain, however, 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.

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. 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 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, on the death of his eldest son, Henry prince of Wales, 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 with 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; and at last he agreed that his son should marry the princess Henrietta Maria, sister to Lewis XIII. and daughter to Henry the Great of France. James 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 59th year of his age, after a reign over England of twenty-two years. 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; and in his reign poetical genius, though not much encouraged at court, shone with great lustre. Mr. Middleton also at this time projected the bringing water from Hertfordshire to London, and supplying the city with it by means of pipes. This canal is still called the *New River*.

Charles I. was unfortunate in his marriage with the princess Henrietta Maria. She had a high spirit, and despised whatever was incompatible with the prejudices of her arbitrary education. The spirit of the people had forced the late king into a rupture with Spain; and Charles early

gave such indications of his partiality for Buckingham, and his own despotic temper, that the parliament was remiss in furnishing him with money for carrying on the war. Buckingham persuaded Charles to espouse the cause of the French Hugonots in their quarrel with that crown. They were, however, so ill supported, though Charles was sincere in his intentions to serve 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 preparing to embark for the relief of Rochelle, which, soon after, surrendered to cardinal Richelieu.

The death of the duke of Buckingham did not deter Charles from his arbitrary proceedings, which the English patriots in that enlightened age justly 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 resented 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, who was as much distinguished by his love of liberty as by his uncommon erudition. They objected to the jurisdiction of the court; but their plea was over-ruled, and they were sent to prison during the king's pleasure.

Every thing now operated towards the destruction of Charles. The commons would vote no supplies without some redress of the national grievances; upon which, Charles, presuming on what had been practised in reigns when the principles of liberty were imperfectly or not at all understood, levied money upon monopolies of salt, soap, and such necessaries, and other obsolete claims, particularly for knighthood; and raised various taxes without authority of parliament. His government becoming every day more and more unpopular, Burton, a divine, Prynne, a lawyer, and Bastwick, a physician, men of no great eminence or abilities, but warm and resolute, published several pieces which gave offence to the court, and which contained some severe strictures against the ruling clergy. They were prosecuted for these pieces in the star-chamber in a very arbitrary and cruel manner; and punished with so much rigour, as excited an almost universal indignation against the authors of their sufferings. Thus was the government rendered still more odious; and 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 prosecute the puritans, and, in the year 1637, to introduce episcopacy into Scotland. The Scots upon this formed secret connexions with the discontented English, and invaded England in August 1640, 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, who made themselves masters of Newcastle and Durham; and being now openly befriended by the house of commons, they obliged the king to comply with their demands.

Charles had made Wentworth, earl of Strafford, a man of great ability,

ties, 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 a leading member of the opposition to the court; but he afterwards, in conjunction with Laud, exerted himself so vigorously in carrying the king's despotic schemes into execution, that he became an object of public detestation. As lord-president of the North, as lord-lieutenant of Ireland, and as a minister and privy-counsellor in England, he behaved in a very arbitrary manner, and was guilty of many acts of great injustice and oppression. He was, in consequence, at length, on the 22d of May 1641, brought to the block, though much against the inclinations of the king, who was in a manner forced by the parliament and people to sign the warrant for his execution. Archbishop Laud was also beheaded; but his execution did not take place till a considerable time after that of Strafford, the 10th of January, 1645. In the fourth year of his reign, Charles had passed the *petition of right* into a law, which was intended by the parliament as the future security of the liberty of the subject. It established particularly, "That no man hereafter be compelled to make or yield any gift, loan, benevolence, tax, or such like charge, without common consent by act of parliament;" but he afterwards violated it in numerous instances, so that an universal discontent at his administration prevailed throughout the nation. A rebellion also broke out in Ireland, on October 23, 1641, where the protestants, without distinction of age, sex, or condition, to the amount of many thousands, 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, on account of their constantly opposing the designs and bills of the other house; and the leaders of the English house of commons still maintained a correspondence with the discontented Scots. Charles was ill enough advised to go in person to the house of commons, January 4, 1642, and there demand that lord Kimbolton, Mr. Pym, Mr. Hampden, Mr. Hollis, sir Arthur Haselrig, and Mr. Stroud, should be apprehended; but they had previously made their escape. This act of Charles was represented as high treason against his people; and the commons rejected all the offers of satisfaction he could make them.

Notwithstanding the many acts of tyranny and oppression, of which the king and his ministers had been guilty, yet, when the civil war broke out, there were great numbers who repaired to the regal standard. Many of the nobility and gentry were much attached to the crown, and considered their own honours as connected with it; and a great part of the landed interest was joined to the royal party. The parliament, however, took upon themselves the executive power, and were favoured by most 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 royal army had the ascendancy; but in the progress of it, affairs took a very different turn. The earl of Essex was made general under the parliament, and the first battle was fought at Edgehill in Warwickshire, the 23d of October, 1642. 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 entered 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 were still sitting at Westminster, and continued to carry on the war against him with great animosity. The independent party, which had scarcely before been thought of, began now to increase and to figure at Westminster. They were averse to the presbyterians, who till then had conducted the war against the king, nearly as much as to 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, on the suggestion that they were not for bringing the war to a speedy end, or not for reducing the king too low; and for introducing Fairfax, who was an excellent officer, but more manageable, though a presbyterian, and some independent officers. In the mean while the war went on with resentment and loss on both sides. Two battles were fought at Newbury, one on September 20th, 1643, and the other October 27th, 1644, 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, 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, July 2d, 1644, 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 series 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 very little bounded the king's prerogative. They were outwitted and over-ruled by the independents; who were assisted by the stiffness, insincerity, 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 continually became more desperate; Charles successively lost all his towns and forts, and was defeated by Fairfax and Cromwell, at the decisive battle of Naseby, June 14, 1645, owing partly, as usual, to the misconduct of prince Rupert. This battle was followed with 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, and came to the Scotch army before Newark, on May 6, 1646, upon a promise of protection. The Scots, however, were so intimidated by the resolutions of the parliament at Westminster, that, in consideration of 400,000*l.* of their arrears being paid, they delivered the person of Charles into the hands of the parliament's commissioners, probably not suspecting the consequences.

The presbyterians were now more inclined than ever to make peace with the king; but they were no longer masters, being forced to receive laws from the army and the independents. The army now avowed their intentions. They first by force took Charles out of the hands of the

commissioners, June 4, 1647, and then, dreading that a treaty might still take place with the king, they imprisoned 41 of the presbyterian members, voted the house of peers to be useless, and reduced that of the commons to 150, most of them officers of the army. In the mean time, Charles, who unhappily promised himself relief from those dissensions, was carried from prison to prison, and sometimes cajoled by the independents with hopes of deliverance, but always narrowly watched. Several treaties were begun, but miscarried; and he had been imprudent enough, after his effecting an escape, to put himself into the hands of colonel Hammond, the parliament's governor of the Isle of Wight. A fresh negotiation was commenced, and almost finished, when the independents, dreading the general disposition of the people for peace, and strongly persuaded of the insincerity of the king, once more seised upon his person, brought him prisoner to London, carried him before a court of justice of their own erecting; and, after an extraordinary trial, his head was cut off, before his own palace at Whitehall, on the 30th of January, 1648-9, being the 49th year of his age, and the 24th of his reign.

Charles is allowed to have had many virtues; and notwithstanding the errors of his government, his death was exceedingly lamented by great numbers; and many, who, in the course of the civil war, had been his great opponents in parliament, became converts to his cause, in which they lost their lives and fortunes. 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 very extraordinary 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 made very successful exertions for retrieving the glory of England by sea. They were joined by many of the presbyterians, and both parties 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 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 by sea, they effectually humbled those republicans in repeated engagements.

By this time, Cromwell, who hated subordination to a parliament, had the address to procure himself to be 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, April 20, 1653, without any ceremony, with about 300 musketeers, and dissolved the parliament; opprobriously driving all the members, about a hundred, out

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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 140 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 time wished 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. No king ever acted, either in England or Scotland, more despotically in some respects 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 portraying the character of Cromwell, have been imposed upon by his amazing success, and dazzled by the lustre of his fortune; but when we consult his secretary Thurloe'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 on the 3d of September, 1658, in the 60th 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. 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 the socage 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 expense 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 appears that England, from the year 1648 to the year 1658, was improved equally in riches and in power. The legal interest of money was reduced from 8 to 6 per cent.—a sure symptom of increasing commerce. The famous and beneficial navigation act, that palladium of the English trade, was now planned and established, and 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 artisans to America and foreign countries. Cromwell maintained the honour of the nation, and in many instances interposed effectually in favour of the protestants abroad. Arts and sciences were not much patronised, and yet he had the good fortune to meet, in the person of Cooper, an excellent miniature painter; and his coins, done by Simon, exceed in beauty and workmanship any of that age. He certainly did many things worthy of praise;

and, as his genius and capacity led him to the choice of fit persons for the several parts of administration, so he showed some regard to men of learning, and particularly to those intrusted with the care of youth at the universities.

The fate of Richard Cromwell, who succeeded his father, Oliver, as protector, sufficiently proves the great difference there was between them, as to spirit and abilities, in the affairs of government. Richard was placed in his dignity by those who wanted to make him the tool of their own government; and he was soon after driven, without the least struggle or opposition, into obscurity. The restoration of Charles II. (who, with his mother and brothers, during the usurpation, had lived abroad on a very precarious subsistence) was effected by the general concurrence of the people, who seemed to have thought that neither peace nor protection were to be obtained, but by restoring the ancient constitution of the monarchy. General Monk, a man of military abilities, but of no principles, except 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 acted the principal part in restoring Charles II. For this he was created duke of Albemarle, confirmed in the command of the army, and loaded with honours and riches.

Charles II. being restored in 1660, in the first year of his reign seemed to have a real desire to promote 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 first mentioned. He 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 appeared to interest himself in the sufferings of his citizens, when London was burnt down in 1666; but there were no bounds to his love of pleasure, which led him to the most extravagant expenses. He has been severely 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. But, even in this, his conduct was more defensible than in his secret connexions with France, which were of the most scandalous nature, utterly repugnant to the welfare of the kingdom, and such as must ever reflect infamy on his memory.

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 destroying 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, 1668, it was called the *triple alliance*.

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; though 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; for 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

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Countries; and all Holland must have fallen into the hands of the French, had it not been for the vanity of their monarch, Lewis XIV., 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 at 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.

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 they were opened again. Great rigour and severity were exercised against the presbyterians, and all other nonconformists to episcopacy, which was again established with a high hand in Scotland as well as in England. His parliament addressed him, but in vain, to make war with France, in the year 1677; for he was entirely devoted to that crown, regularly received its money as a pensioner, and hoped, through its influence and power, to be absolute. It is not, however, to be denied, that the trade of England was now incredibly increased, and Charles entered into many vigorous measures for its protection and support.

In 1678, the famous Titus Oates, and some others, pretended to discover 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 some parts of their narrative, yet it was supported with the utmost zeal on the part of the parliament. The aged lord Stafford, Coleman, secretary to the duke of York, with many Jesuits, and other papists, were publicly executed on the testimony of evidences no doubt perjured. The queen herself escaped with difficulty; the duke of York was obliged to retire into foreign parts; and Charles, though convinced, as it is said, that the whole was an 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.

The duke of York and his party made a scandalous use of their victory. They fabricated on their side a pretended plot of the protestants for seizing and killing the king, and altering the government. This plot was as false as that with which the papists had been charged. The excellent lord Russel, who had been remarkable in his opposition to the popish succession, Algernon Sydney, and several other distinguished protestants, were tried, condemned, and suffered death. The duke of Monmouth and the earl of Shaftesbury were obliged to fly, and the duke of York returned in triumph to Whitehall.

Charles died, February 6th, 1685, in the 55th year of his age, and 25th of his reign. He had married Catharine, infant of Portugal, with whom he received a large fortune in ready money, besides the town and fortress of Tangier in Africa; but he left behind no lawful issue. The descendants of his natural sons and daughters are now amongst the most distinguished of the British nobility.

The reign of Charles has been celebrated for wit and gallantry, but both were coarse and indelicate. The court was a nursery of vice, and the stage exhibited scenes of impurity. Some readers 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 harmonised, refined, and rendered natural; and the day

of Charles may be called the Augustan age of mathematics and natural philosophy. Charles loved 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. If Charles II. be censured 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 knowledge of naval affairs and architecture.

All the opposition which, during the late reign, had shaken the throne, seemed 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. The army and people supported him in crushing an ill-concerted 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 being beheaded, July 15, 1685, and some hundreds of his followers hanged, drawn, and quartered, in the West of England—exhibiting a scene of barbarity scarcely ever known in this country, by the instrumentality of Jefferies and colonel Kirke—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 had recourse to the most offensive and at the same time most injudicious measure, 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 showed them more respect than was due to the ministers of a sovereign prince. He sent an embassy to Rome, and received at his court the pope's nuncio. The abrupt encroachments he made upon both the civil and religious liberties of his people were disapproved of even 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 for liberty of conscience, and their acquittal upon a legal trial, alarmed his most loyal protestant subjects.

In this extremity, many great men in England and Scotland, though they wished well to James, applied for relief to William prince of Orange, in Holland, a prince of great abilities, and the inveterate enemy of Louis XIV., who then threatened Europe with chains. The prince of Orange was the nephew and son-in-law of James, having married the princess Mary, that king's eldest daughter. He, in consequence, embarked with a fleet of 500 sail for England, avowing it to be his design to restore the church and state to their true rights. Upon his arrival in England, he was joined not only by the Whigs, but by many whom James had considered as his best friends; and even his daughter, the princess Anne, and her husband, George prince of Denmark, left him, and joined the prince of Orange. James might still have reigned; but he was surrounded with French emissaries and ignorant Jesuits, who wished him not to reign rather than not to restore popery. They secretly persuaded him to send his queen, and son, real or pretended, 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; which event in English history is termed *the Revolution*.

It is well known that king William's chief object was to humble the power of France, and his reign was passed in an almost uninterrupted course of hostilities with that power, which were supported by England,

at an expense she had never known before. The nation had grown cautious, through the experience of the two last reigns; and obtained his consent to the *bill of rights*, by which the liberties of the people were confirmed and secured; though the friends of liberty in general complained that the bill of rights was very inadequate to what ought to have been insisted on, at a period so favourable to the enlargement and security of liberty, as a crown bestowed by the free voice of the people. 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 now 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 of England had of their civil and religious rights alone that could provoke them to consent to the late revolution, for the nation had never before attained to so high a degree of wealth and prosperity as in the year 1688. The tonnage of their merchant ships, as appears from Dr. Davenant, was, that year, nearly double 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. The war with France, which, on the king's part, was far from being successful, required an enormous expense; and the Irish continued, in general, faithful to king James. But 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 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.

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 gave the highest valuations, and were the heaviest taxed; and this preposterous burden continues. But the greatest and boldest operation in finance that ever took place was established in that reign, which was the carrying on the war by borrowing money upon the parliamentary securities, and 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 principal 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 the weight of taxes would oblige the commercial people to be more industrious.

William, notwithstanding the great service he had rendered to the nation, and the public benefits which took place under his auspices, particularly in the establishment of the bank of England, and the re-coining 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. William had lost his queen, December 28, 1694, 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 inpolitic 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 was thought 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 12th of June, 1701. His death was hastened by a fall from his horse, soon after he had renewed the grand alliance against France, on the 8th of March, 1702, in the 52d year of his age, and the 14th of his reign in England.—This prince was not made by nature for popularity. His manners were cold and forbidding; he seemed also sometimes almost to lose sight of those principles of liberty, for the support of which he had been raised to the throne; and though he owed his royalty to the Whigs, yet he often favoured the Tories. The former had the mortification of seeing those who had acted the most inimical to their party, and the free principles of the constitution, as the marquis of Halifax, the earl of Danby, and lord Nottingham, taken into favour, and resume their places in the cabinet; and the whole influence of government extended to silence all inquiries into the guilt of those who had been the chief instruments in the cruel persecutions of the past reign, and to the obtaining such an act of indemnity as effectually screened every delinquent from the just retaliation of injured patriotism. The rescue and preservation of religion and public liberty were the chief glory 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 14,000,000*l*.

Anne, princess of Denmark, by virtue of the act of settlement, and being the next protestant heir to her father James II., succeeded to 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 statesman, for that earl excelled in both capacities. 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.

Charles II. of Spain, in consequence of the intrigues of France, and

at the same time resenting the partition treaty, to which his consent had not been asked, left his whole dominions by will to Philip, duke of Anjou, grandson of Lewis XIV.; and Philip was immediately proclaimed king of Spain; which laid the foundation of the family alliance between France and that nation. Philip's succession was disputed by the second son of the emperor of Germany, who took upon himself the title of Charles III., and his cause was favoured by the empire, England, Holland, and other powers who joined in a confederacy against the house of Bourbon, now become more dangerous than ever by the acquisition of the whole Spanish dominions.

In the course of the war, several glorious victories were obtained by the earl, who was soon made duke of Marlborough. Those of Blenheim and Ramillies gave the first effectual checks to the French power. By that of Blenheim, in 1704, 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 Rooke, reduced Gibraltar, which still remains in our possession. The battle of Ramillies, in 1706, 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 showed its importance.

After the battle of Ramillies, the states of Flanders assembled at Ghent, and recognised Charles 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 acknowledged the title of king Charles. The next great battle gained over the French was at Oudenarde, 1708, where they lost 3000 on the field, and about 7000 taken prisoners; and the year after, September 11, 1709, the allies forced the French lines at Malplaquet near Mons, after a bloody action, in which the French lost 15,000 men. These flattering successes of the English were balanced, however, by great misfortunes.

The queen had sent a very fine army to assist Charles III. in Spain, under the command of lord Gaiway; but in 1707, after he had been joined by the Portuguese, the English were defeated in the plains of Alvanza, 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 the disgrace, of England. Prince George of Denmark, husband to the queen, was then lord high-admiral. At the same time England felt severely the scarcity of hands in carrying on her trade and manufactures.

As Lewis XIV. professed a readiness for peace, and sued earnestly for it, the Whigs at last gave way to a treaty, and the conferences were held at Gertruydenburg, 1710. 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. But all the offers of the latter were rejected by the duke and his associates, as only designed to amuse and divide the allies; and the war was continued.

The unreasonable haughtiness of the English plenipotentiaries at Gertruydenburg (as some term it), and the then expected change of the mi-

nistry in England, saved France; and affairs from that day took a turn in its favour. Means were found to persuade the queen, who was 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 deluded 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 cause. 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, in 1712, 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. And, indeed, the removal of the duke of Marlborough from the command of the army, while the war continued, was an act of the greatest imprudence, and excited the astonishment of all Europe. So numerous had been his successes, and so great his reputation, that his very name was almost equivalent to an army. But the honour and interest of the nation were sacrificed to private court intrigues, managed by Mrs. Masham, a relation of the duchess of Marlborough, who had supplanted her benefactress, and by Mr. Harley.

Conferences were opened for peace at Utrecht, in January 1712, to which the queen and the French king sent plenipotentiaries; and the allies being defeated at Denain, they grew sensible they were no match for the French, now that they were abandoned by the English. A treaty was therefore concluded, by which it was agreed, that Philip should be established on the Spanish throne, but that he should renounce all claim to the crown of France; and the heirs to the French monarchy in like manner renounce all right to the crown of Spain. It was stipulated likewise that the fortifications of Dunkirk should be demolished, and the harbour filled up.

The rest of the queen's life was rendered uneasy by the jarring of parties, and the contentions among her ministers. It has been conjectured that she was inclined to call her brother to the succession. The Whigs demanded a writ for the electoral prince of Hanover, as duke of Cambridge, to come to England; and she was obliged hastily 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*.

* With her ended the line of the Stuarts, who, from the accession of James I., anno 1603, had swayed the sceptre of England 111 years, and that of Scotland 343 years, from the accession of Robert II. anno 1371. James, the late pretender, son of James II. and brother to queen Anne, upon his father's decease, anno 1701, was proclaimed king of England, by Lewis XIV., at St. Germain's, and for some time treated as such by the courts of Rome, France, Spain, and Turin. He resided at Rome, where he kept up the appearance of a court, and continued firm in the Romish faith till his death, which happened in 1765. He left two sons, viz. Charles Edward, born in 1720, who was defeated at Culloden in 1746, and upon his father's death repaired to Rome, where he continued for some time, and afterwards resided at Florence, under the title of count Albany, but died some years since. Henry, his second son, who died lately, enjoyed a dignified place in the church of Rome, and was known by the name of cardinal York.

Anne had no strength of mind, by herself, to carry any important resolve into execution; and upon her death, the succession took place in terms of the act of settlement, and George I. elector of Hanover, son of the princess Sophia, grand-daughter of James I., 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. This did not make any great alteration to his prejudice in England; but many of the Scots, by the influence of the earl of Mar, and other chiefs, were driven into rebellion in 1715, which was happily suppressed the beginning of the next year.

The nation was, however, 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. 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 that 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 connexions, which were very various and complicated. On account of these he entered into a dispute, with the czar or emperor of Russia; and had not Charles XII., king of Sweden, been killed so critically as he was, Great Britain probably would have been invaded by that northern conqueror, great preparations being made for that purpose,—he being incensed at George, as elector of Hanover, for purchasing Bremen and Verden of the Danes, which had been a part of his dominions.

In 1718, a war commenced with Spain on account of the quadruple alliance that had been formed between Great Britain, France, Germany, and the States-General; and sir George Byng destroyed the Spanish fleet at Syracuse. But this war was soon ended by the Spaniards delivering up Sardinia and Sicily, the former to the duke of Savoy, and the latter to the emperor.

The year 1720 was rendered remarkable by the fraud practised on the nation in the sudden rise of South-Sea stock, of which an account has already been given under the article PUBLIC COMPANIES.

The Jacobites thought to avail themselves of the national discontent at the South-Sea scheme, and the new connexions with the continent, which every day increased. One Lyster, a lawyer, was tried and executed for high treason. Several persons of great quality and distinction 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. There was some irregularity in the proceedings against him; and therefore the justice of the bishop's sentence has been questioned, though there is little or no reason to doubt there was sufficient proof of his guilt.

So fluctuating was the state of Europe at this time, that, in September 1725, a new 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, to prevent the Russians from attacking Swe-

den, 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 nearly 10,000 men in the siege of Gibraltar, which they were obliged to raise.

A quarrel with the emperor was the most dangerous to Hanover of any that could happen; and 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 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 11th of June, 1727, at Osnaburg, in the sixty-eighth year of his age, and the thirteenth of his reign.

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 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 it-self, with his own creatures; but peace was his darling object, because he thought that war must be fatal to his power. 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.

Queen Caroline, consort to George II., had been always a firm friend to the minister: but she died November 20th, 1737, 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 Walpole's power was drawing to a crisis. Admiral Vernon, who hated the minister, was sent, in 1739, with a squadron of six ships to the West Indies, where he took and demolished Porto Bello; but being a hot, intractable man, he miscarried in his other attempts, especially that upon Carthagena, in which some thousands of British lives were wantonly thrown away. The opposition exulted in Vernon's success, and afterwards 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: on the 9th of February, 1742, he was created earl of Orford, and on the 11th resigned all his employments.

George II. bore the loss of his minister with the greatest equanimity, and even conferred titles of honour, and posts of distinction, upon the

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heads of the opposition. At the same time, the death of the emperor Charles VI., the danger of the pragmatic sanction (which meant the succession of his daughter to all 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 Granville, an able but head-strong 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, June 16, 1743; but would not suffer his general, the earl of Stair, to improve the blow, which was thought to proceed from tenderness for his electoral dominions.

Great Britain was then engaged in a very expensive war both against the French and Spaniards; and her enemies thought to avail themselves of the general discontent that had prevailed in England on account of Hanover. This naturally suggested to them the idea of applying to the Pretender, who resided at Rome; and he agreed that his eldest son Charles 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 Sky, where he discovered himself, assembled his followers, and published a manifesto exciting the nation to a rebellion. But, before we relate the occurrences of this enterprise, it will be proper to give a brief account of some preceding events.

The war of 1741 proved unfortunate in the West Indies, through the fatal divisions between the admiral Vernon, and general Wentworth, who commanded the land troops; and it was thought that about 20,000 British soldiers and seamen perished in the impracticable attempt on Carthagena, and by the inclemency of the air and climate during other idle expeditions. The year 1742 had been spent in negotiations with 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 given an opportunity to the Spanish and French fleets to escape out of Toulon with but little loss; and soon after, the French, who had before only acted as allies to the Spaniards, declared war against Great Britain, who, in her turn, declared war against the French. 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 had been wretchedly commanded for one or two campaigns, they did it in such a manner, 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 of the Netherlands, and were besieging Tournay. The duke attempted to raise the siege; but, by the coldness of the Austrians, and the cowardice of the Dutch, whose government all along held a secret correspondence with France, 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 (about a million ster-

ling), which he had taken from the Spaniards in his voyage round the world; and commodore Warren, with colonel Pepperel, took from the French the important town and fortress of Louisburg, 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, surprised and disarmed a party of the king's troops in the western Highlands, and advanced with great rapidity to Perth. 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 of 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, in the year 1746, 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 Maestricht, and the duke of Cumberland was in danger of being made prisoner. Bergen-op-Zoom was taken. 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 command 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 ministers turned their thoughts to peace.

The 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 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.

A new treaty of commerce was signed at Madrid, between Great Britain and Spain, by which, in consideration of 100,000*l.*, the South-Sea company gave up all their future claims to the assiento contract, by virtue of which that company had supplied the Spanish West Indies with negroes. 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 style was abolished, and the new style established, to the vast conveniency of the subjects. This was done by sinking eleven days in September 1752, and from that time beginning the year on the first of January. In 1753 the famous act passed for preventing clandestine marriages.

In consequence of the 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, admiral Boscawen was ordered, in April 1755, to sail with eleven ships of the line, besides a frigate and two regiments, 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. Orders were also 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 1755, above 500 of the richest French merchant ships, and above 8000 of their best sailors, were brought into the kingdom.

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 Quêne (now called Fort Pitt, or Pittsburg) : but major-general Johnson defeated a body of French near Crown Point, of whom he killed about 1000.

In proportion as the spirits of the public were elevated by the formidable armaments which were prepared for carrying on the war, they were depressed by the intelligence that the French had landed 11,000 men in Minorca, to attack Fort St. Philip; 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 Gallissoniere; and that at last Minorca was surrendered by general Blakeney. The public outcry was such, that the king gave up Byng to public justice, and he was shot at Portsmouth for not doing all that was in his power against the enemy.

About this time Mr. Pitt was placed, as secretary of state, at the head of administration. He had long been known to be a bold, eloquent, and energetic 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 success 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 Jaffier Ally Cawn in the ancient seat of the nabobs of those provinces. Suraja Dowla, who was in the French interest, a few days after his being defeated, was taken by the new nabob, Jaffier Ally Cawn's son, and put to death. This event laid the foundation of the great extent of 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 sailed on the 8th of September 1757; but admiral Hawke brought both the sea and land forces back on the 6th of October, to St. Helen's, without any attempt having been made to land on the coast of France.

The French having attacked the electorate of Hanover with a most powerful army, the English parliament 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 was so powerfully pressed by a superior army, that he found himself 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 threatened 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 large sums, amounting in the whole to nearly two millions a year, for the payment of 50,000 of the troops of Hanover, Hesse-Cassel, Saxe-Gotha, Wolfenbuttle, and Buckeburg. This treaty, which proved afterwards so burthensome to England, was intended to unite the protestant interest in Germany.

George II., with the consent of his Prussian majesty, declaring 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 Brunswick, a Prussian general, who instantly drove the French 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. Malo and Cherbourg, marched into Germany, and joined prince Ferdinand with 12,000 British troops, which were afterwards increased to 25,000. The English everywhere performed wonders, and were everywhere 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, contributed nothing to the conclusion of the war, or towards weakening the French in Germany.

The expenses of the war were borne with cheerfulness, and the activity and spirit of Mr. Pitt's administration were greatly applauded. Admiral Boscawen and general Amherst, in August 1758, reduced and demolished Louisburg in North America, which had been restored to the French by the treaty at Aix-la-Chapelle, and was become the scourge of the British trade, and took five or six French ships of the line. Frontenac and Fort du Quêne, in the same quarter, fell also into the hands of the English; acquisitions that far overbalanced a check which the English received at Ticonderoga, and the loss of above 300 of the English guards, as they were returning under general Bligh from the coast of France.

The English affairs this year proved equally fortunate in the East Indies, where admiral Pococke gained considerable advantages over the French fleet; and general Lally, having besieged Madras, was obliged to raise the siege, and retire with precipitation, leaving behind him forty pieces of cannon.

The year 1759 was introduced by the taking of the island of Gorée, on the coast of Africa, by commodore Keppel. Three great expeditions had been planned for this year in America, 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 was against Quebec, the capital of 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 force, by Montcalme, 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 Montcalme never relaxed in his vigilance. Wolfe's courage and perseverance, however, surmounted incredible difficulties: he gained the heights of Abraham, near Quebec, where he fought and defeated the

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French army, but was himself killed, as was Montcalme. 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 (afterwards lord viscount) Townshend.

General Amherst, who was the first English general in 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. Lawrence. By the success of these expeditions the French empire in North America became subject to Great Britain.

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 8th of August, 1759, admiral Boscawen attacked the Toulon squadron, commanded by M. de la Clue, near the Straits of Gibraltar, took three ships of the line and burnt two. The rest of the fleet, consisting of seven ships of the line and three frigates, made their escape in the night; and on Nov. 20, sir Edward Hawke entirely defeated the Brest fleet, commanded by admiral Conflans, off the island of Dumet, in the bay of Biscay. After this engagement, the French gave over all thoughts of their 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 captain Elliot, the commodore of three ships, inferior in force to the Frenchman's squadron. In short, Great Britain now reigned as sole mistress of the main, and 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 showed 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 minister to listen to their proposals: A negotiation was accordingly entered upon, which proved abortive, as did many other projects for accommodation; but on the 25th of October 1760, George II. died suddenly (from a rupture in the right ventricle of the heart) full of years and glory, in the 77th year of his age, and 34th of his reign, 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 admit 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 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 with great indifference, and showed very little concern at the subsequent revolutions among his servants. 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 the ordinary course of justice: and though his reign was distracted by party, the courts of justice were never better filled than under him.

King George III. ascended the throne with great advantages. He was a native of England, in the bloom of youth, in his person tall and comely, and, at the time of his accession, Great Britain was in the highest degree of power and prosperity, and the most salutary unanimity and harmony prevailed among the people. The first acts of his reign seemed also calculated to convince the public that the death of his predecessor should not relax the operations of the war. In 1761, the island of Belleisle, on the coast of France, surrendered to his majesty's ships and forces under commodore Keppel and general Hodgson; as did the important fortress of Pondicherry, in the East Indies, to colonel Coote and admiral Stevens. In 1762, the island of Martinico, hitherto deemed impregnable, with the islands of Grenada, St. Lucia, Grenadillas, St. Vincent, and others of less note, were subdued by the British arms with inconceivable rapidity.

As his majesty could not espouse a Roman catholic, he was prevented from intermarrying into any of the great families of Europe; he therefore chose a wife from the house of Mecklenburg Strelitz, the head of a small but sovereign state in the north-west of Germany; and the conduct of his excellent consort has constantly been such as most highly to justify his choice. She was conveyed to England in great pomp, and the nuptials were celebrated on the very night of her arrival, viz. Sept. 8, 1761; and on the 22d of the same month the ceremony of the coronation was performed with great magnificence in Westminster-abbey.

In the mean time, Mr. Pitt, who had conducted the war against France with such eminent ability, and who had received the best information of the hostile intentions and private intrigues of the court of Spain, proposed in council an immediate declaration of war against that kingdom. But he was over-ruled in the council, all the members of which declared themselves of a contrary opinion, excepting his brother-in-law, earl Temple. Mr. Pitt now found the decline of his influence; and it was supposed that the earl of Bute, who had a considerable share in directing the education of the king, had acquired an ascendancy in the royal favour*. Mr. Pitt, however, said, "that, as he was called to the ministry by the voice of the people, to whom he considered himself as accountable for his conduct, he would no longer remain in a situation which made him responsible for measures that he was not allowed to guide." He therefore resigned the seals, and lord Temple also gave up the post which he held in the administration. But the next day the king settled a pension of three thousand pounds a year upon Mr. Pitt, and at the same time a title was conferred upon his lady and her issue; and the pension was to be continued for three lives.

The war still continued to be carried on with vigour after the resignation of Mr. Pitt, and the plans were pursued that he had previously concerted. Lord Egremont was appointed to succeed him, as secretary for the southern department. It was at length also found indispensably necessary to engage in a war with Spain; the famous family compact among all the different branches of the Bourbon family being generally known; and accordingly war was declared against that kingdom, on the 4th of January, 1762. A respectable armament was fitted out under admiral Pococke, having the earl of Albemarle on board to command the land forces; and the vitals of the Spanish monarchy were struck at by the reduction of the Havannah, the strongest and most im-

* It was on the 25th of March, 1761, that the earl of Bute was appointed one of the principal secretaries of state; and on the 5th of October following Mr. Pitt resigned the seals.

portant fort which his catholic majesty held in the West Indies, after a siege of two months and eight days. The capture of the *Hermione*, a large Spanish register ship, bound from Lima to Cadiz, 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 in 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 and the Philippine islands in the East Indies, under 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 employed 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 easy 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 enemy at last offered such terms as the British ministry thought admissible and adequate on the occasion. The defection of the Russians from the confederacy against the king of Prussia, and his consequent successes, produced a cessation of arms in Germany, and in all other quarters; and on the 10th of February, 1763, the definitive treaty of peace between his Britannic majesty, the king of France, and the king of Spain, was 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 Westminster and London; and the treaty having on the 18th been laid before the parliament, it met the approbation of a majority of both houses.

By this treaty the extensive province of Canada, with the islands of Newfoundland, Cape Breton, and St. John, were confirmed to Great-Britain; also the two Floridas, containing 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), were surrendered to us by France and Spain, in consideration of restoring to Spain the island of Cuba; and to France the islands of Martinico, Guadaloupe, Mariegalante, and Desirade; and in consideration of our granting to the French the two small islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon 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 Grenadillas, and quitted their pretensions to the neutral islands of St. Vincent, Dominica, and Tobago. In Africa we retained the settlement of Senegal, by which we nearly engrossed the whole gum-trade of that country; but we returned Gorée, a small island of little value. The article that relates to the East Indies was dictated by the directors of the English company, and restored to the French all the places they had at the beginning of the war, on condition that they should maintain neither forts nor forces in the province of Bengal; and the city of Manilla was restored to the Spaniards; but they confirmed to us the liberty of cutting logwood in the bay of Honduras in America. In Europe, likewise, the French restored to us the island of Minorca, and we restored to them the island of Belleisle. In Germany, after six years spent in marches and counter-marches, numerous skirmishes and bloody battles, Great Britain acquired much military fame, but at the expense of thirty millions sterling! As to the objects of that war, it was agreed that a mutual restitution and oblivion should take place, and each party sit

down at the end of the war in the same situation in which they began it. Peace was also restored between Portugal and Spain, both sides to be upon the same footing as before the war.

The war to which a period was now put was the most brilliant, and distinguished with the most glorious events, in the British annals. No national prejudices or party disputes then existed. The same truly British spirit by which the minister was animated, fired the breast of the soldier and seaman. The nation had then arrived at a degree of wealth unknown to former ages: and the moneyed man, pleased with the aspect of the times, confiding in the abilities of the minister, and courage of the people, cheerfully opened his purse. The sums of 18, 19, and 22 millions, raised by a few citizens of London, upon a short notice, for the service of the years 1759, 1760, and 1761, were no less astonishing to Europe, than the success which attended the British fleets and armies in every quarter of the world.

But the peace, though it received the sanction of a majority of both houses of parliament, was far from giving universal satisfaction to the people. And from this period, various causes contributed to occasion a great discontent to prevail throughout the nation.

On the 30th of April, 1763, three of the king's messengers entered the house of John Wilkes, esq. member of parliament for Aylesbury, and seized his person, by virtue of a warrant from the secretary of state, which directed them to seize "the authors, printers, and publishers of a seditious and treasonable paper, entitled the North Briton, N^o 45." The papers published under this title severely arraigned the conduct of the administration, and represented the earl of Bute as the favourite of the king, and the person from whom measures of government of a very pernicious tendency originated. The 45th number contained strictures on the king's speech. Mr. Wilkes was suspected to be the author, but his name was not mentioned in the warrant by which he was apprehended. He objected to being taken into custody by such a warrant, alleging that it was illegal. However, he was forcibly carried before the secretaries of state for examination, and they committed him close prisoner to the Tower, his papers being also seized. He was likewise deprived of his commission as colonel of the Buckinghamshire militia. A writ of habeas corpus being procured by his friends, he was brought up to the court of Common-Pleas; and the matter being there argued, he was ordered to be discharged. This affair excited great attention; people of all ranks interested themselves in it; and Westminster-hall resounded with acclamations when he was set at liberty. An information, however, was filed against him in the court of King's-Bench, at his majesty's suit, as author of the North Briton, N^o 45. On the first day of the meeting of parliament after these transactions, Mr. Wilkes stood up in his place, and made a speech, in which he complained to the house, that in his person, the rights of all the commons of England, and the privileges of parliament, had been violated by his imprisonment, the plundering of his house, and the seizure of his papers. The same day a message was sent to acquaint the house of commons with the information his majesty had received, that John Wilkes, esq. a member of that house, was the author of a most seditious and dangerous libel, and the measures that had been taken thereupon. The next day a duel was fought in Hyde Park, between Mr. Wilkes and Mr. Martyn, another member of parliament, and secretary of the treasury, in which Mr. Wilkes received a dangerous wound in the belly with a pistol bullet. Both houses of parliament soon concurred in voting the North Briton,

N^o 45, to be a false, scandalous, and seditious libel, and ordered it to be burnt by the common hangman. This order was accordingly executed, though not without great opposition from the populace; and Mr. Harley, one of the sheriffs who attended, was wounded, and obliged to take shelter in the Mansion-house. Another prosecution was commenced against Mr. Wilkes, for having caused an obscene and profane poem to be printed, entitled "An Essay on Woman." Of this, only twelve copies had been privately printed: and it did not appear to have been intended for publication. Finding, however, that he should continue to be prosecuted with the utmost rigour, when his wound was in some degree healed, he thought proper to quit the kingdom. He was soon after expelled the house of commons; verdicts were also given against him, both on account of the North Briton and the Essay on Woman; and towards the end of the year 1764 he was outlawed. Sundry other persons had been taken up for being concerned in printing and publishing the North Briton; but some of them obtained verdicts against the king's messengers for false imprisonment.

In the mean time, the earl of Bute, who had been made first lord of the treasury, resigned that office, and was succeeded by Mr. George Grenville; and under this gentleman's administration an act was passed, said to have been framed by him, which was productive of the most pernicious consequences to Great Britain; "an act for laying a *stamp duty* in the British colonies of North America," which received the royal assent on the 22d of March, 1765. Some other injudicious previous regulations had also been made, under pretence of preventing smuggling in America, but which in effect so cramped the trade of the colonies, as to be prejudicial both to them and the mother country.

As soon as it was known in North America that the *stamp-act* was passed, the whole continent was kindled into a flame; and when the act, printed by royal authority, reached the colonies, it was treated with every mark of indignation and contempt. Several acts of violence were likewise committed, with a view of preventing the operations of the stamp-act; and associations were also formed in the different colonies, by which the people bound themselves not to import or purchase any British manufactures, till that act should be repealed. The inhabitants of the different colonies also established committees from every colony to correspond with each other, concerning the general affairs of the whole, and even appointed deputies from these committees to meet in CONGRESS at New York. They assembled together in that city, in October 1765; and this was the first congress held on the American continent.

These commotions in America occasioned so great an alarm in England, that the king thought proper to dismiss his ministers. The marquis of Rockingham was appointed first lord of the treasury; and some of his lordship's friends succeeded to the vacant places. In March, 1766, an act was passed for repealing the American stamp act. This was countenanced and supported by the new ministry; and Mr. Pitt, though not connected with them, yet spoke with great force in favour of the repeal.

At the time that the stamp-act was repealed, an act was also passed for securing the dependence of the American colonies on Great Britain.

The marquis of Rockingham, and his friends, continued in administration but a short time; though, during their continuance in power, several public measures were adopted, tending to relieve the burthens of the people, and to the security of their liberties. But on the 30th of

July, 1766, the duke of Grafton was appointed first lord of the treasury, in the room of the marquis of Rockingham; the earl of Shelburne, secretary of state, in the room of the duke of Richmond; Charles Townshend, chancellor of the exchequer; and Mr. Pitt, afterwards created earl of Chatham, was appointed lord privy seal; but that eminent statesman's acceptance of a peerage, as it removed him from the house of commons, greatly lessened his weight and influence. Indeed, this political arrangement was not of any long continuance, and sundry changes followed. Mr. C. Townshend, who was a gentleman of great abilities and eloquence, made for some time a considerable figure both in the cabinet and in parliament; but on his death, the place of chancellor of the exchequer was supplied by lord North, who afterwards became first lord of the treasury, and obtained a great ascendancy in the administration.

In the year 1768, Mr. Wilkes, who had for a considerable time resided in France, came over to England, and again became an object of public attention. His outlawry was reversed; but, on account of the verdicts found against him as the author of the *North Briton*, and the indecent poem, "*Essay on Woman*," he was sentenced to two years' imprisonment, and to pay two fines of 500*l.* each. On the 28th of March, 1768, he was chosen member for the county of Middlesex; but was again expelled the house of commons for being the author of some prefatory remarks on a letter which he published, written by one of the secretaries of state to the chairman of the quarter sessions at Lambeth, in which the secretary had recommended to the magistrates, previous to the unhappy affair of St. George's Fields, their calling in the assistance of the military, and employing them *effectually*, if there should be occasion. In the vote for his expulsion, his former offences, for which he was now suffering imprisonment, were complicated with this charge; and a new writ was ordered to be issued for the election of a member for the county of Middlesex.

The rigour with which Mr. Wilkes was prosecuted only increased his popularity, which was also much augmented by the spirit and firmness which on every occasion he displayed. Before his expulsion he had been chosen an alderman of London: and on the 16th of February, 1769, he was re-elected at Brentford, member for the county of Middlesex, without opposition. The return having been made to the house, it was resolved, that Mr. Wilkes, having been expelled that session, was incapable of being elected a member of that parliament. The late election, therefore, was again declared void, and a new writ issued for another. He was once more unanimously re-elected by the freeholders, and the election was again declared void by the house of commons. After this, a new election being ordered, colonel Luttrell, in order to recommend himself to the court, vacated the seat which he already had in parliament, by the acceptance of a nominal place, and declared himself a candidate for the county of Middlesex. Though the whole weight of court interest was thrown into the scale in this gentleman's favour, yet a majority of near four to one appeared against him on the day of election; the numbers for Wilkes being 1143, and for Luttrell only 236. Notwithstanding this, two days after the election, it was resolved in the house of commons, that Mr. Luttrell ought to have been returned a knight of the shire for the county of Middlesex; and the deputy clerk of the crown was ordered to amend the return, by erasing the name of Mr. Wilkes, and inserting that of colonel Luttrell in its place. The latter accordingly took his seat in parliament; but this was thought so

gross a violation of the rights of the electors, that it excited a very general discontent, and loud complaints were made against it in every part of the kingdom.

After the term of Mr. Wilkes's imprisonment was expired, in the year 1771, he was chosen one of the sheriffs for London and Middlesex; and was afterwards again chosen member of the county of Middlesex in the subsequent parliament, and permitted quietly to take his seat there. In the year 1775, he executed the office of lord-mayor of the city of London; and was afterwards elected to the lucrative office of chamberlain of that city. In the year 1783, after the change of lord North's administration, on Mr. Wilkes's motion, all the declarations, orders, and resolutions of the house of commons respecting his election for the county of Middlesex were ordered to be expunged from the journals of that house, "as being subversive of the rights of the whole body of electors of this kingdom." And it should be remembered, that, in consequence of his contests with the government, general warrants were declared to be illegal, and an end was put to such warrants, and to the unlawful seizure of an Englishman's papers by state messengers.

After the repeal of the stamp act, which was received with great joy in America, tranquillity was restored in the colonies: but unhappily new attempts were made to tax them in the British parliament.

In 1767 an act was passed, laying certain duties on paper, glass, tea, &c. imported into America, to be paid by the colonies, for the purpose of raising a revenue to the government. About two years after, it was thought proper to repeal these duties, excepting that on tea; but as it was not the *amount* of the duties, but the *right* of the parliament of Great Britain to impose taxes in America, which was the subject of dispute, the repealing the other duties answered no purpose while that on tea remained; which accordingly became a fresh subject of contest between the mother-country and the colonies.

In order to induce the East-India company to become instrumental in enforcing the tea-duty in America, an act was passed, by which they were enabled to export their teas, duty free, to all places whatsoever. Several ships were accordingly freighted with teas for the different colonies by the company, who also appointed agents there for the disposal of that commodity. This was considered by the Americans as a scheme calculated merely to circumvent them into a compliance with the revenue law, and thereby pave the way to an unlimited taxation. For it was easily comprehended, that if the tea were once landed, and in the custody of the consignees, no associations, or other measures, would be sufficient to prevent its sale and consumption: and it was not to be supposed, that, when taxation was established in one instance, it would be restrained in others. These ideas being generally prevalent in America, it was resolved by the colonists to prevent the landing of tea-cargoes amongst them, at whatever hazard. Accordingly, three ships laden with tea having arrived in the port of Boston, in December 1773, a number of armed men, under the disguise of Mohawk Indians, boarded these ships, and in a few hours discharged their whole cargoes of tea into the sea, without doing any other damage, or offering any injury to the captains or crews. Some smaller quantities of tea met afterwards with a similar fate at Boston, and a few other places; but in general, the commissioners for the sale of that commodity were obliged to relinquish their employments; and the masters of the tea-vessels, from an apprehension of danger, returned again to England with their cargoes. At New York, indeed, the tea was landed under the cannon of a man

of war; but the persons in the service of government there were obliged to consent to its being locked up from use. In South Carolina some was thrown into the river, as at Boston, and the rest put into damp warehouses, where it perished.

These proceedings in America excited so much indignation in the government of England, that, on the 31st of March, 1774, an act was passed for removing the custom-house officers from the town of Boston, and shutting up the port. Another act was soon after passed "for better regulating the government in the province of Massachusetts Bay." The design of this act was to alter the constitution of that province as it stood by the charter of king William; to take the whole executive power out of the hands of the people, and to vest the nomination of the counsellors, judges, and magistrates of all kinds, including sheriffs, in the crown, and in some cases in the king's governor, and all to be removeable at the pleasure of the crown. Another act was also passed, which was considered as highly injurious, cruel, and unconstitutional, empowering the governor of Massachusetts Bay to send persons accused of crimes there to be tried in England for such offences. Some time after, an act was likewise passed "for making more effectual provision for the government of the province of Quebec," which excited a great alarm both in England and America. By this act, a legislative council was to be established for all the affairs of the province of Quebec, except taxation; which council was to be appointed by the crown, the office to be held during pleasure; and his majesty's Canadian Roman-catholic subjects were entitled to a place in it. The French laws, and a trial without jury, were also established in civil cases, and the English laws, with a trial by jury, in criminal; and the popish clergy were invested with a legal right to their tithes from all who were of their own religion. No assembly of the people, as in other British colonies, was appointed,—it being said in the act, that it was then inexpedient:—but the king was to erect such courts of criminal, civil, and ecclesiastical jurisdiction as he should think proper. The boundaries of the province of Quebec were likewise extended, by the act, thousands of miles at the back of the other colonies, whereby, it was said, a government little better than despotic was established throughout an extensive country.

The measures of government respecting America had so universally exasperated the colonists, that provincial or town meetings were held in every part of the continent, in which they avowed their intentions of opposing, in the most vigorous manner, the measures of administration. Agreements were entered into in the different colonies, whereby the subscribers bound themselves, in the most solemn manner, and in the presence of God, to suspend all commercial intercourse with Great Britain from the last day of the month of August, 1774, until the Boston port bill, and the other late obnoxious laws, should be repealed, and the colony of Massachusetts Bay fully restored to its chartered rights. Other transactions succeeded; and the flame continued to increase and extend in America, till at length twelve of the colonies, including the whole extent of country which stretches from Nova Scotia to Georgia, had appointed deputies to attend a general congress, which was held at Philadelphia, and opened the 5th of September 1774. The number of delegates amounted to fifty-one, who represented the several English colonies; of New Hampshire (2 delegates), Massachusetts Bay (4), Rhode Island and Providence plantations (2), Connecticut (3), New York (7), New Jersey (4), Pennsylvania (7), the lower counties on Delaware (3), Maryland (4), Virginia (7), North Carolina (3), and

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South Carolina (5 delegates); Georgia afterwards acceded to the confederacy, and sent deputies to the congress.

They drew up a petition to the king, in which they enumerated their several grievances, and solicited his majesty to grant them peace, liberty, and safety. They likewise published an address to the people of Great Britain, another to the colonies in general, and another to the inhabitants of the province of Quebec. The congress broke up on the 26th of October, having resolved, that another congress should be held in the same place on the 10th of May following, unless the grievances of which they complained should be redressed before that time; and they recommended to all the colonies to choose deputies, as soon as possible, for that purpose.

Shortly after these events, some measures were proposed in the parliament of Great Britain, for putting a stop to the commotions which unhappily subsisted in America. The earl of Chatham, who had been long in an infirm state of health, appeared in the house of lords, and expressed in the strongest terms his disapprobation of the whole system of American measures. He also made a motion for immediately recalling the troops from Boston; but this motion was rejected by a large majority, as was also a bill which he brought in soon after for settling the American troubles. The methods proposed in the house of commons for promoting an accommodation met also with a similar fate. The number of his majesty's troops was ordered to be augmented; and an act was passed for restraining the commerce of the New England colonies, and to prohibit their fishery on the banks of Newfoundland. A motion was, indeed, afterwards made in the house of commons, by lord North, first lord of the treasury, for suspending the exercise of the right of taxation in America, claimed by the British parliament, in such of the colonies as should, in their general assemblies, raise such contributions as were approved of by the king in parliament. This motion was carried, and afterwards communicated to some provincial assemblies: but it was rejected by them as delusive and unsatisfactory, and only calculated to disunite them. The petition from the congress to the king was ordered by his majesty to be laid before the parliament; whereupon Dr. Franklin, and two other American agents, solicited to be heard at the bar of the house of commons, on behalf of the colonies, in support of that petition: but their application was rejected; it being said, that the American congress was no legal assembly, and that therefore no petition could be received from it by the parliament with propriety.

It was on the 19th of April, 1775, that the first blood was drawn in this unhappy civil war, at Lexington and Concord in New England. This was occasioned by general Gage sending a body of troops to destroy some military stores that were at Concord. They succeeded in their design, but were extremely harassed, and forced to a quick retreat; 95 of them were killed, 170 wounded, and about 20 made prisoners. The Americans were computed not to have lost more than 60, including killed and wounded. Immediately after, numerous bodies of the American militia invested the town of Boston, in which general Gage and his troops were. In all the colonies they prepared for war with the utmost dispatch; and a stop was almost every-where put to the exportation of provisions. The continental congress met at Philadelphia on the 10th of May 1775, as proposed, and soon adopted such measures as confirmed the people in their resolutions to oppose the British government to the utmost. Among their first acts, were resolutions for the raising of an army, and the establishment of a large paper currency for

its payment. They assumed the appellation of "The United Colonies of America," who were securities for realizing the nominal value of this currency. They also strictly prohibited the supplying of the British fisheries with any kind of provisions; and, to render this order the more effectual, stopped all exportation to those colonies, islands, and places, which still retained their obedience.

In the mean time, a body of provincial adventurers, amounting to about 240 men, surprised the garrisons of Ticonderoga and Crown Point. These fortresses were taken without the loss of a man on either side: and the provincials found in the forts a considerable number of pieces of cannon, besides mortars, and sundry kinds of military stores. The force of Great Britain in America was now augmented, by the arrival at Boston from England of the generals Howe, Burgoyne, and Clinton, with considerable reinforcements. But the continental congress were so little intimidated by this, that they voted, a few days after, that the compact between the crown and the people of Massachusetts Bay was dissolved, by the violation of the charter of William and Mary; and therefore recommended to the people of that province, to proceed to the establishment of a new government, by electing a governor, assistants, and house of assembly, according to the powers contained in their original charter.

Our limits will not permit us to relate all the particulars of this fatal war. We can only mention some of the most important transactions. On the 17th of June, 1775, a bloody action took place at Bunkers Hill, near Boston, in which the king's troops had the advantage, but with the loss of 226 killed, and more than 800 wounded, including many officers. After this action, the Americans immediately threw up works upon another hill, opposite to it, on their side of Charlestown neck; so that the troops were as closely invested in that peninsula as they had been in Boston. About this time the congress appointed George Washington, esq. a gentleman of large fortune in Virginia, of great military talents, and who had acquired considerable experience in the command of different bodies of provincials during the preceding war with France, to be general and commander in chief of all the American forces. They also published a declaration, in which they styled themselves "The Representatives of the United Colonies of North America," and assigned their reasons for taking up arms. A second petition to the king was likewise voted by the congress, which petition was presented by Mr. Penn, late governor, and one of the proprietors of Pennsylvania, through the hands of lord Dartmouth, secretary of state for the American department: but Mr. Penn was soon after informed, that no answer would be given to it. An address now also was published, by the congress, to the inhabitants of Great Britain, and to the people of Ireland.

But as no conciliatory measures were adopted, hostilities still continued; and an expedition was set on foot by the Americans against Canada, to which they were induced by a commission given to general Carleton, the governor of Canada; by which he was empowered to embody and arm the Canadians, to march out of the country for the subjugation of the other colonies, and to proceed even to capital punishments against all those whom he should deem rebels and opposers of the laws. The American expedition against Canada was chiefly conducted by Richard Montgomery, a gentleman of considerable military skill, on whom the congress conferred the rank of brigadier-general. On the 31st of December Montgomery attempted to gain possession of Quebec by storm, but was killed in the first fire from a battery, as advancing in

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the front of his men : Arnold was also dangerously wounded ; about 60 of their men were killed or wounded, and 300 taken prisoners. The besiegers immediately quitted their camp, and retired about three miles from the city, and the siege was for some months converted into a blockade. On general Carleton's receiving considerable reinforcements and supplies of provisions from England, in May 1776, Arnold was obliged to make a precipitate retreat : Montreal, Chambée, and St. John's, were retaken, and all Canada recovered by the king's troops.

During these transactions, the royal army at Boston was reduced to great distress for want of provisions ; the town was bombarded by the Americans ; and general Howe, who now commanded the king's troops, which amounted to upwards of seven thousand men, was obliged to quit Boston, and embark for Halifax, leaving a considerable quantity of artillery and some stores behind. The town was evacuated on the 17th of March, 1776, and general Washington immediately took possession of it. On the 4th of July following, the congress published a solemn declaration, in which they assigned their reasons for withdrawing their allegiance from the king of Great Britain. In the name and by the authority of the inhabitants of the united colonies, they declared that they then were, and of right ought to be, " free and independent states ;" that they were absolved from all allegiance to the British crown, and that all political connection between them and the kingdom of Great Britain was totally dissolved ; and also that, as free and independent states, they had full power to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, establish commerce, and do all other acts and things which independent states may of right do." They likewise published articles of confederation and perpetual union between the united colonies, in which they assumed the title of " The United States of America."

In July 1776, an attempt was made by commodore sir Peter Parker, and lieutenant-general Clinton, upon Charlestown in South Carolina. But this place was so ably defended by the Americans, under general Lee, that the British commodore and general were obliged to retire, the king's ships having sustained considerable loss ; and a twenty-eight gun ship, which ran a-ground, was obliged to be burnt by the officers and seamen. However, a much more important and successful attack against the Americans was soon after made under the command of general Howe, then joined by a large body of Hessians, and a considerable number of Highlanders, so that his whole force was now extremely formidable. The fleet was commanded by his brother, vice-admiral lord Howe ; and both the general and the admiral were invested with a power, under the title of " Commissioners for granting peace to the colonies," of granting pardon to those who would lay down their arms. But their offers of this kind were treated by the Americans with contempt. An attack upon the town of New York seems to have been expected by the provincials, and therefore they had fortified it in the best manner they were able. On Long Island, near New York, the Americans had also a large body of troops encamped, and several works thrown up. On the 22d of August fifteen thousand British troops landed on that island. Various actions and skirmishes took place during several successive days, and the Americans suffered exceedingly. Finding themselves overpowered, the American troops withdrew from the island in the night, and retired to New York, which city they likewise soon after abandoned. The royal army also obtained some other considerable advantages over the Americans, at the White Plains,

taking Fort Washington, with a garrison of 2500 men, and Fort Lee with a great quantity of stores; which losses obliged the American general to retreat through the Jerseys to the river Delaware, a distance of ninety miles. On the 8th of December, general Clinton and sir Peter Parker obtained possession of Rhode Island: and the British troops covered the Jerseys. This was the crisis of American danger. All their forts were taken, the lime of the greatest part of their army to serve was expired, and the few that remained with their officers were in a destitute state, with a well-clothed and disciplined army pursuing. Had general Howe pushed on at that time to Philadelphia, after Washington, it has been maintained there would have been an end to the contest; but this delay gave time for numerous volunteer reinforcements to join general Washington, who, in the night of the 25th of December, amidst snow, storms, and ice, with a small detachment, crossed the Delaware, and surprised a brigade of the Hessian troops at Trenton. He took upwards of 900 of them prisoners, with whom he repassed the river; having also taken three standards, six pieces of brass cannon, and near one thousand stand of arms. Immediately after this surprise of the Hessians, and depositing them in safety, Washington recrossed the river to resume his former posts at Trenton. The British troops collected in force to attack him, and only waited for the morning; but the Americans, by a happy stroke of generalship, defeated the plan. Washington, to disguise his retreat in the night, ordered a line of fires in front of his camp, as an indication of their going to rest, and to conceal what was acting behind them. He then moved completely from the ground with his baggage and artillery, and, by a circuitous march of eighteen miles, reached Prince-town early in the morning, carried the British post at that place, and set off with near 300 prisoners on his return to Delaware, just as the British troops at Trenton were under arms, and proceeding to attack him, supposing him in his former position.

In the month of September 1777, two actions of some importance happened between the armies of general Howe and general Washington, in both of which the former had the advantage; and soon after, the city of Philadelphia surrendered to the king's troops. But an expedition, that had for some time been concerted, of invading the northern colonies by way of Canada, proved extremely unsuccessful. The command of this expedition had been given to lieutenant-general Burgoyne, a very experienced officer. He set out from Quebec with an army of near 10,000 men, and an extraordinary fine train of artillery, and was joined by a considerable body of Indians. For some time he drove the Americans before him, and made himself master of Ticonderoga; but at length he encountered such difficulties, and was so vigorously opposed by the Americans, under Gates and Arnold, that, after two severe actions, in which great numbers fell, general Burgoyne, and his army of 5000 men, were obliged to lay down their arms, October 17, 1777.

About the same time, sir Henry Clinton and general Vaughan made a successful expedition against the Americans up the North River; and made themselves masters of several forts. General Howe soon after returned to England, and the command of the British army in America devolved upon general Clinton: but it was now found necessary to evacuate Philadelphia; and accordingly general Clinton retreated with the army to New York, in June 1778. The British troops were attacked on their march by the Americans; but the retreat was so ably conducted, that their loss did not amount to 300, killed and 1 wounded.

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lonies, the latter received considerable supplies of arms and ammunition from France; and the French court thought this a favourable opportunity for lessening the power of Great Britain. Some French officers also entered into the American service; and on the 6th of February, 1778, a treaty of alliance was concluded at Paris between the French king and the thirteen united colonies; and in this treaty it was declared, that the essential and direct end of it was "to maintain effectually the liberty, sovereignty, and independence, absolute and unlimited, of the United States of North America, as well in matters of government as of commerce."

The parliament and people of Great Britain now began to be in general alarmed at the fatal tendency of the American war: and in June, 1778, the earl of Carlisle, William Eden, and George Johnstone, esqrs. arrived at Philadelphia, as commissioners from his majesty, to settle the disputes between the mother country and the colonies. But it was now too late: the terms which, at an earlier period of the contest, would have been accepted with gratitude, were now rejected with disdain; and the congress positively refused to enter into any treaty with the British commissioners, if the independency of the united states of America were not previously acknowledged, or the British fleets and armies withdrawn from America. Neither of these requisitions being complied with, the war continued to be carried on with mutual animosity.

The conduct of France towards Great Britain, in taking part with the revolted colonies, occasioned hostilities to be commenced between the two nations, though without any formal declaration of war on either side. On the 27th of June, 1778, the *Licorne* and *La Belle Poule*, two French frigates, were taken by admiral Keppel. Orders were immediately issued by the French court for making reprisals on the ships of Great Britain; and on the 27th of July a battle was fought off Brest, between the English fleet, under the command of admiral Keppel, and the French fleet, under the command of count d'Orvilliers. The English fleet consisted of 30 ships of the line, and the French of 32, besides frigates: they engaged for about three hours; but the action was not decisive, no ship being taken on either side, and the French fleet at length retreated into the harbour of Brest. Of the English 133 were killed in the action, and 373 wounded; and the loss of the French is supposed to have been very great. After the engagement, there was much murmuring throughout the English fleet, because a decisive victory had not been obtained over the French; and the blame was thrown upon sir Hugh Palliser, vice-admiral of the blue, who soon after preferred a charge against admiral Keppel, upon whom a court-martial was held. Admiral Keppel was honourably acquitted, and afterwards sir Hugh Palliser was tried by a court martial. He likewise was acquitted, though a slight censure was passed on him for not making the state of his ship known to the admiral: his conduct in other respects was declared to have been meritorious.

In the East Indies also an engagement happened between some English ships of war, under the command of sir Edward Vernon, and some French ships under the command of mons. de Tronjolly, on the 10th of August, in which the former obliged the latter to retire; and on the 17th of October following, Pondicherry surrendered to the arms of Great Britain. In the course of the same year, the island of St. Lucia, in the West Indies, was taken from the French; but the latter made themselves masters of Dominica, and the following year they obtained

possession of the islands of St. Vincent and Grenada. In September, 1779, the count D'Estaing arrived at the mouth of the river Savannah, with a large fleet, and a considerable body of French troops, to the assistance of the Americans. The French and Americans soon made an united attack upon the British troops at Savannah, under the command of general Prevost; but the latter defended themselves so well, that the French and Americans were driven off with great loss, and D'Estaing soon after totally abandoned the coast of America. At the close of the year 1779, several French ships of war, and merchant ships, were taken in the West Indies, by a fleet under the command of sir Hyde Parker.

By the intrigues of the French court, Spain was at length brought to engage with France in the war against England. One of the first enterprises in which the Spaniards engaged, was the siege of Gibraltar, which was defended by the garrison with great vigour. The naval force of Spain was also added to that of France, now become extremely formidable, and their combined fleets seemed for a time to ride almost triumphant in the British Channel. So great were their armaments, that the nation was under no inconsiderable apprehensions of an invasion; but they did not venture to make an experiment of that kind, and, after parading for some time in the Channel, thought proper to retire to their own ports, without effecting any thing. On the 8th of January, 1780, sir George Brydges Rodney, who had a large fleet under his command, captured seven Spanish ships and vessels of war belonging to the royal company of Caraccas, with a number of trading vessels under their convoy; and in a few days after, the same admiral engaged, near Cape St. Vincent, a Spanish fleet, consisting of eleven ships of the line and two frigates, under Don Juan de Langara. Four of the largest Spanish ships were taken, and carried into Gibraltar, and two others driven on shore, one of which was afterwards recovered by the English. A Spanish 70 gun ship, with 600 men, was also blown up in the action. In April and May three actions likewise happened in the West Indies, between the English fleet under admiral Rodney, who was now arrived in that part of the world (having previously thrown supplies into Gibraltar), and the French fleet under the count de Guichen; but none of these actions were decisive, nor was any ship taken on either side. In July following, admiral Geary took twelve valuable French merchant ships from Port au Prince; but on the 8th of August, the combined fleets of France and Spain took five English East-Indiamen, and fifty English merchant ships bound for the West Indies, which was one of the most complete naval captures ever made, and a very severe stroke to the commerce of Great Britain. Such a prize never before entered the harbour of Cadiz.

On the 4th of May, 1780, sir Henry Clinton made himself master of Charlestown, South Carolina; and on the 16th of August earl Cornwallis obtained a very signal victory over general Gates in that province, in which about a thousand American prisoners were taken.

Soon after, major-general Arnold deserted the service of the congress, made his escape to New York, and was made a brigadier-general in the royal service. Major André, who negotiated this desertion, and was concerting measures with him for betraying the important post of West Point into the hands of the English, was taken in the American lines, in his return to New York, and, being considered as a spy, suffered death accordingly, much regretted for his amiable qualities.

The great expenses of the American war, and the burthens which

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were thereby laid upon the people, naturally occasioned much discontent in the nation, and seemed to convince persons of all ranks of the necessity of public economy. Meetings were therefore held in various counties of the kingdom, at the close of the year 1779, and the beginning of the year 1780, at which great numbers of freeholders were present, who agreed to present petitions to the house of commons, stating the evils which the profuse expenditure of the public money occasioned, &c.

Some trivial attempts were made in parliament to remedy the grievances stated in the petitions; but nothing important was effected: the ministry soon found means to maintain their influence in parliament; a diversity of sentiment occasioned some disunion among the popular leaders; the spirit which had appeared among the people, by degrees subsided; and various causes at length conspired to bring the greatest part of the nation to a patient acquiescence in the measures of administration.

The middle of the year 1780 was distinguished by one of the most disgraceful exhibitions of religious bigotry that had ever appeared in this country; especially if it be considered as happening in an age in which the principles of toleration were well understood, and very prevalent. An act of parliament had been lately passed "for relieving his majesty's subjects, professing the Romish religion, from certain penalties and disabilities imposed upon them in the 11th and 12th years of the reign of king William III." This act was generally approved by men of sense and of liberal sentiments, by whom the laws against papists were justly deemed too severe. The act at first seemed to give little offence to persons of any class in England; but in Scotland it excited much indignation, though it did not extend to that kingdom. Resolutions were formed to oppose any law for granting indulgencies to papists in Scotland; and a Romish chapel was burned, and the houses of several papists demolished in the city of Edinburgh. The contagion of bigotry at length reached England; a number of persons assembled themselves together, with a view of promoting a petition to parliament, for a repeal of the late act in favour of the papists, and they assumed the title of the Protestant Association. It was then resolved, in order to give the more weight to their petition, that it should be attended by great numbers of petitioners in person; and a public advertisement was issued for that purpose, signed by lord George Gordon.

Fifty thousand persons are supposed to have assembled with this view, on Friday the 2d of June, in St. George's Fields; from whence they proceeded, with blue cockades in their hats, to the house of commons, where their petition was presented by their president. In the course of the day several members of both houses of parliament were grossly insulted and ill-treated by the populace; and a mob assembled the same evening, by which the Sardinian chapel in Lincoln's-inn Fields, and another Romish chapel in Warwick-street, Golden-square, were entirely demolished. On the Sunday following, another mob assembled, and destroyed a popish chapel in Rope-maker's alley, Moorfields. On Monday they demolished several other houses, and destroyed all the household furniture of sir George Saville, one of the most respectable men of the kingdom, because he had brought in the bill in favour of the papists. On Tuesday great numbers again assembled about the parliament-house, and behaved so tumultuously, that both houses thought proper to adjourn. In the evening, a most daring and violent attempt was made to force open the gates of Newgate, in order to re-

lease the rioters who were confined there; and the keeper having refused to deliver the keys, his house was set on fire, the prison was soon in flames, and great part of it consumed, though a new stone edifice of uncommon strength; and more than three hundred prisoners made their escape, many of whom joined the mob. A committee of the protestant association now circulated hand-bills, requesting all true protestants to show their attachment to their best interest, by a legal and peaceable deportment: but none of them stepped forth, notwithstanding their boasted numbers, to extinguish the flames they had occasioned: violence, tumult, and devastation, still continued. The Protestant Association, as they thought proper to style themselves, had been chiefly actuated by ignorance and bigotry; and their new confederates were animated by the love of mischief, and the hope of plunder. Two other prisons, the houses of lord Mansfield and sir John Fielding, and several other private houses, were destroyed the same evening. The following day, the King's Bench prison, the New Bridewell in St. George's Fields, some popish chapels, several private houses of the papists, and other buildings, were destroyed by the rioters; some were pulled down, and others set on fire; and every part of the metropolis exhibited violence and disorder, tumults and conflagrations.

During these extraordinary scenes, there was a shameful inactivity in the lord-mayor of London, and in most of the other magistrates of the metropolis, and its neighbourhood; and even the ministry appeared to be panic-struck, and to be only attentive to the preservation of their own houses, and of the royal palace. The magistrates, at the beginning of the riots, declined giving any orders to the military to fire upon the insurgents; but at length, as all property began to be insecure, men of all classes began to see the necessity of vigorous opposition to the rioters: large bodies of troops were brought to the metropolis from many miles round it; and an order was issued, by the authority of the king in council, "for the military to act without waiting for directions from the civil magistrates, and to use force for dispersing the illegal and tumultuous assemblies of the people." The troops exerted themselves with diligence in the suppression of these alarming tumults, great numbers of the rioters were killed, many were apprehended, who were afterwards tried and executed for felony*, and the metropolis was at length restored to order and tranquillity.

About the close of this year a war with Holland commenced in consequence of the clandestine commerce carried on between the Dutch and the Americans; it was prosecuted with great vigour; and that republic soon suffered a very severe blow in the loss of the island of St. Eustatius, which was taken by the English on the 2d of February, 1781.

On the 5th of August the same year, an engagement was fought between an English squadron of ships of war, under the command of admiral Hyde Parker, and a Dutch squadron under the command of admiral Zoutman, off the Dogger Bank. Both the contending squadrons fought with great gallantry, and by both the victory was claimed.

The war continued to be prosecuted with various success; the French made themselves masters of the island of Tobago; and the Spaniards of Pensacola, and the whole province of West Florida, with little effectual resistance. Earl Cornwallis obtained a victory over the Americans under general Greene, at Guildford, in North Carolina, March 15, 1781;

* Lord George Gordon was himself committed to the Tower, and tried for high treason,—but acquitted.

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but it was a hard fought battle, and the loss on both sides considerable. Indeed the victory was productive of all the consequences of a defeat; for, three days after, lord Cornwallis was obliged to leave part of his sick and wounded behind him to the care of his enemy, and to make a circuitous retreat of 200 miles to Wilmington before he could find shelter, and so left South Carolina entirely exposed to the American general. By different reinforcements, lord Cornwallis's force amounted to about 7000 excellent troops; but his situation became at length very critical. Sir Henry Clinton, the commander in chief, was prevented from sending those succours to him which he otherwise would have done, by his fears for New York, against which he apprehended Washington meditated a formidable attack. The American general played a game of great address. As many of his dispatches had been intercepted, and the letters published with great parade and triumph in the New York papers, to expose the poverty, weakness, and disunion of the Americans; he wrote letters to the southern officers and others, informing them of his total inability to relieve Virginia, unless by a direct attack with the French troops on New York. He asserted it was absolutely determined on, and would soon be executed. These letters were intercepted (as it was intended they should be), with others of the like kind from the French officers; and the project was successful. Sir Henry Clinton was thus amused and deceived, and kept from forming any suspicion of the real design of the enemy.

By a variety of judicious military manœuvres, Washington kept New York and its dependencies in a continual state of alarm for about six weeks, and then suddenly marched across the Jerseys, and through Pennsylvania, to the head of Elk, at the bottom of the Chesapeak, from which the light troops were conveyed by shipping down the bay; and the bulk of the army, after reaching Maryland by forced marches, was also there embarked, and soon joined the other body under the marquis de la Fayette. Sir Henry Clinton, receiving information that the count de Grasse was expected every moment in the Chesapeak, with a large French fleet to co-operate with Washington, now seriously attempted to reinforce lord Cornwallis, but without success; for on the 5th of September, after a partial action of a few hours between the British fleet under admiral Graves, and that of the French under De Grasse, Graves returned to New York to refit, and left the French masters of the navigation of the Chesapeak. Presently the most effectual measures were adopted by general Washington for surrounding lord Cornwallis's army; and on the last of September it was closely invested in York Town, and at Gloucester on the opposite side of the river, with a considerable body of troops on one side, and a large naval force on the other. The trenches were opened in the night between the 5th and 7th of October, with a large train of artillery. The works which had been raised by the British sunk under the weight of the enemies' batteries; the troops were much diminished by the sword and sickness, and worn down by constant watching and fatigue; and all hope of relief failing, on the 19th of October lord Cornwallis surrendered himself, and his whole army, by capitulation to general Washington as prisoners of war. Fifteen hundred seamen underwent the fate of the garrison; but these, with the *Guadaloupe* frigate of 24 guns, and a number of transports, were assigned to M. de Grasse, as a return for the French naval assistance.

Such was the issue of the Virginian war. The capture of this army, under lord Cornwallis, was too heavy a blow to be soon or easily reco-

vered; it threw a gloom over the whole court and cabinet at home, and put a total period to the hopes of those who had flattered themselves with the subjugation of the colonies by arms. The surrender of this second British army may be considered as the closing scene of the continental war in America; for the immense expense of carrying it on, so distant from the seat of preparations and power; the great accumulation of public debt it had brought upon the nation; the plentiful effusion of human blood it had occasioned; the diminution of trade, and the vast increase of taxes—these were evils of such a magnitude, arising from this ever-to-be-lamented contest, as could scarcely be overlooked even by the most insensible and stupid. Accordingly, on the first of March 1782, after repeated struggles in the house of commons, the house addressed the king, requesting him to put a stop to any further prosecution of the war against the American colonies. This was a most important event: it rendered a change of measures and of councils absolutely necessary, and diffused universal joy throughout the kingdom. Those country gentlemen who had generally voted with the ministry saw the dangers to which the nation was exposed in an expensive war with France, Spain, and Holland, without a single ally; and feeling the pressure of the public burthens, they at length deserted the standard of administration, and a complete revolution in the cabinet was effected, March 27th, 1782, under the auspices of the marquis of Rockingham, who was appointed first lord of the treasury.

The first business of the new ministry was the taking measures for effectuating a general peace. Mr. Grenville was invested with full powers to treat at Paris with all the parties at war, and was also directed to propose the independency of the Thirteen United Provinces of America in the first instance, instead of making it a condition of a general treaty. The commanders in chief in America were also directed to acquaint the congress with the pacific views of the British court, and with the offer to acknowledge the independency of the United States.

Peace every day became more desirable to the nation. A series of losses agitated the minds of the people. January 14th, 1782, the French took Nevis. On the 5th of February the island of Minorca surrendered to the Spaniards; and on the 13th of the same month the island of St. Christopher's was given up to the French. The valuable island of Jamaica would soon probably have shared the same fate, had not the British fleet, under admiral Rodney, fallen in with that of the French under the count de Grasse, in their way to join the Spanish fleet at St. Domingo. The van of the French was too far advanced to support the centre, and a signal victory was obtained over them. The French admiral, in the *Ville de Paris* of 110 guns (a present from the city of Paris to the French king), was taken, with two seventy-fours, and one of 64 guns; a 74 gun ship blew up by accident soon after she was in our possession, and another 74 sunk during the engagement. A few days after, two more of the same fleet, of 64 guns each, were captured. By this victory of the 12th of April the design against Jamaica was frustrated. The new ministry had superseded admiral Rodney, and intended to have prosecuted the inquiry into his transactions at St. Eustatius; but this victory silenced all complaints, and procured him the dignity of an English peer.

May 18, the Bahama islands surrendered to the Spaniards; but the credit of the British arms was well sustained at Gibraltar, under general Elliot, the governor; and the formidable attack, on the 13th of Septem-

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ber, with floating batteries of 212 brass cannon, &c. in ships from 1400 to 600 tons burthen, ended in disappointment, and the destruction of all the ships and most of the assailants in them. The garrison was relieved by lord Howe in the month of October, who offered battle to the combined force of France and Spain, though twelve sail of the line inferior. The military operations after this were few, and of little consequence. Negapatnam, a settlement in the East-Indies, and Trincomalé on the island of Ceylon, were taken from the Dutch by the British forces; but the French, soon receiving considerable succours from Europe, took Cuddalore, retook Trincomalé, forced the British fleet in several actions, but none decisive, and enabled Hyder Ally to withstand, with various success, all the efforts of sir Eyre Coote and his troops.

The death of the marquis of Rockingham, on the 1st of July, occasioned a violent commotion in the cabinet, and lessened the hopes which had been formed of important national benefits from the new administration. Lord Shelburne succeeded the marquis as first lord of the treasury, and, it is said, without the knowledge of his colleagues.

By the treaty of peace between Great Britain and France, the preliminaries of which were signed January 20, 1763, Great Britain ceded to France all her possessions before the war, the islands of Tobago, St. Lucia, St. Pierre, Miquelon, and Gorée; with Pondicherry, Karical, Mahe, Chandernagore, and Surat, in the East Indies, which had been conquered from the French during the war. France, on the other hand, restored to Great Britain the islands of Grenada, and the Grenadines, St. Christopher's, St. Vincent, Dominica, Nevis, and Montserrat.

By the treaty with Spain, Great Britain gave up to that power East Florida, and also ceded West Florida and Minorca, which Spain had taken during the war. Spain agreed to restore the islands of Providence and the Bahamas to Great Britain; but they had been retaken before the peace was signed.

By the treaty with Holland it was stipulated that Great Britain should restore Trincomalé in the island of Ceylon, but the French had already taken it; and that the Dutch should give up to England the town of Negapatnam and its dependencies.

In the treaty with the United States of America, the king of Great Britain acknowledged New Hampshire, Massachusetts Bay, Rhode Island and Providence Plantations, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia, to be *free, sovereign, and independent states*; and for himself, his heirs and successors, relinquished all claims to the government, property, and territorial rights of the same, and every part thereof.

Thus a period was put to a most calamitous war, in which Great Britain lost the best part of her American colonies, and many thousand valuable lives, and expended or squandered nearly 150 millions of money. The terms of peace were strongly objected to by many; and the address in approbation of the treaty, though carried in the house of lords by a majority of 72 to 59, was lost in the house of commons by a majority of 224 to 208.

The majority of the commons thus enlisting under the banners of the *famous coalition leaders*, Mr. Fox and lord North, plainly indicated ministerial revolution to be near at hand, unless the cabinet would call a new parliament. As they did not, the peace-makers were obliged to withdraw from power. The two gentlemen just mentioned were made secretaries of state, and the duke of Portland first lord of the treasury, on April the 2d, 1763. Mr. Fox soon after brought into parliament his

his bill for new regulating the government of the East-India company, and their commercial affairs and territories. This bill being rejected in the house of lords, on December 17, by a majority of 19, occasioned a great ferment in the cabinet, and in both houses of parliament.

A royal message was sent between twelve and one of the morning of the 19th of December, to desire the two secretaries to send the seals of their office immediately; and Mr. Pitt succeeded the duke of Portland as first lord of the treasury, bringing in his friends into the respective departments.

Strong and repeated contests ensued between the two parties, which were at length terminated by a dissolution of the parliament. On the 18th of May a new parliament assembled; and Mr. Pitt, on the 5th of July, brought in his famous East-India bill, of the principal provisions or regulations introduced by which we have given an account, under the article PUBLIC COMPANIES.

The business of parliamentary reform having been taken up by Mr. Pitt, he accordingly introduced a specific plan for that purpose on the 18th of April, 1785. The plan was to give one hundred members to the popular interest of the kingdom, and to extend the right of election to above one hundred thousand persons, who, by the existing provisions of law, were excluded from it. This accession to the popular interest was to be obtained principally by the suppression of decayed boroughs, and the transfer of their representatives to the counties; so that the number of the house of commons would remain the same.—After a debate of considerable length, it was rejected by a majority of 74; the yeas being 248, and the nays 174.

In 1786 the plan for establishing a sinking fund, and employing a million annually for reducing the national debt, was proposed, and received the sanction of parliament.

We come now to a very important transaction of the present times, the impeachment of Mr. Warren Hastings, late governor-general of Bengal. On the 17th of February, 1786, Mr. Burke, who took the lead in this tedious and expensive business, explained the mode of proceeding he was desirous to adopt; and, in the course of the session, moved for a multitude of papers to ground and substantiate his charges upon. These were produced, and Mr. Hastings heard at the bar of the house of commons in his defence. The debates which arose on the subject terminated in resolutions, that certain of the charges contained matter of impeachment against the late governor-general of Bengal. Mr. Hastings was therefore impeached by the commons at the bar of the house of peers. His trial occupied a considerable portion of eight sessions of parliament; and on the 25th of April 1795 the lord chancellor pronounced the decision of the peers in the following words:—"Mr. Hastings, the house of lords, after a very minute investigation, have acquitted you of all the charges of high crimes and misdemeanors preferred against you by the commons, and every article thereof; and you and your bail are discharged, upon paying your fees."

Thus ended a trial, which, for length of time, exceeded any in the history of the world, having lasted seven years and three months.

The trade carried on by this country, and other European nations, upon the coast of Africa, for the purpose of purchasing negro slaves, to be employed in the cultivation of the West-India islands and certain parts of the continent of America, does not appear, till of late years, to have been considered with that general attention which such a practice might have been expected to excite; a practice so abhorrent in its nature

to the mild principles of modern policy and manners. The first public attempt, we believe, that was made to put a stop to this traffic, was by the Quakers of the southern provinces of America. In Great Britain the same society appears also to have taken the lead, and, after the example of their American brethren, presented a similar petition to the parliament of this kingdom.

The cause soon after became extremely popular. A great number of pamphlets were published upon this subject: several eminent divines recommended it from the pulpit, and in printed discourses; and petitions were presented to the legislature from the two universities, and from several of the most considerable towns and corporations in the kingdom.

His majesty's ministers thought it proper to institute an inquiry, before a committee of the privy-council, into the facts and allegations contained in the representations of both parties. The first public notice that was taken of the subject was an information communicated by Mr. Wilberforce, soon after the meeting of parliament, of his intention to bring forward a measure respecting the slave-trade. That gentleman being much indisposed, Mr. Pitt came forward on the 9th of May, 1788, in the name of his friend, and moved the following resolution: "That this house will, early in the next session of parliament, proceed to take into consideration the circumstances of the slave-trade, complained of in the petitions presented to the house, and what may be fit to be done thereupon;" which was unanimously carried. After this, on the 21st of May, sir William Dolben moved the house for leave to bring in a bill to regulate the transportation of the natives of Africa to the British colonies in the West Indies*.

By the bill now proposed, the number of slaves to be transported in any ship was to be regulated according to its bulk or tonnage, allowing nearly one ton to each man. This was only intended as a temporary relief, till some more permanent expedient could be devised by the legislature. Having passed through the commons, it was carried up to the lords, where it also passed, after having received several amendments; some of which being thought to interfere with the privileges of the lower house, a new bill was brought in, which passed both houses, and received the royal assent.

In the autumn of 1788, the nation was suddenly alarmed by the reports of his majesty being attacked with an unexpected and dangerous illness. The precise nature of it was for several days unascertained and unexplained; but at length it was known to have fallen upon the brain, and to have produced a temporary privation of reason. A species of interregnum took place; though unaccompanied by any of those circum-

* That there was a necessity for adopting this proposition, will most clearly appear from the facts which were proved in the course of the debate. It appeared that five feet six inches in length, and sixteen inches in breadth, was the share of room allowed on an average to each slave. The lower deck of the vessels was entirely covered with bodies, and the space between the floor of that deck and the roof above, which seldom amounted to five feet eight inches, was divided by a platform also covered with bodies. Five persons in every hundred perished, at the lowest computation, in a voyage of six weeks' continuance; which, according to the most accurate estimates of human life, was seventeen times the usual rate of mortality. It was indeed much more, because, in the estimate of mortality, persons of every age were included, while in an African voyage the aged were entirely excluded, and few infants were admitted. Such was the ruinous nature of the trade in the most favourable circumstances; but, in the voyage to the more distant parts of Africa, the mortality was stated to be twice as great; and, consequently, thirty-four persons perished at the lowest estimation, for one that would have died in the ordinary course of nature.

stances which usually characterize and accompany that unfortunate state. The kingdom, anxious, and with eyes directed towards their sovereign, betrayed no symptoms of confusion, anarchy, or civil commotion. Yet, as it was necessary to provide for the due exercise of the royal functions, thus unhappily suspended, parliament, after having adjourned for some time, decided that the prince of Wales should be invited and requested to accept the regency under certain limitations.

A very short period, probably not exceeding three days, must have completed the bill, which was to declare the incapacity of the sovereign to conduct the national affairs, and to transfer the sceptre, though with diminished influence, to his son; when the disorder, under which the king had suffered during three months, and whose violence had hitherto appeared to baffle all medical skill and exertion, gradually, but rapidly, subsided. Sanity of mind and reason resumed their seat, and left no trace of their temporary subversion. Time confirmed the cure, and restored to his subjects a prince, rendered supremely and peculiarly dear to them by the recent prospect and apprehension of his loss. The demonstrations of national joy on this occasion far exceeded any recorded in the English annals, and were probably more real and unfeigned than ever were offered on similar occasions. No efforts of despotism; or mandates of arbitrary power, could have produced the illuminations which not only the capital, but almost every town and village throughout the kingdom, exhibited in testimony of its loyalty; and these proofs of attachment were renewed, and even augmented, on the occasion of his majesty's first appearance in public, and his solemn procession to St. Paul's (on the 23d of April, 1789) to return thanks to heaven for his recovery.

Whilst the ancient government of France was entirely overthrown, and a revolution the most unexpected was effected, it is difficult to imagine a picture of more complete serenity than England presented. At peace with all the world, in the bosom of repose, she saw her commerce and manufactures extend, her credit augment, and her name excite respect among the most distant nations; while many of the great surrounding European kingdoms were either involved in foreign war, or desolated by domestic troubles. This tranquillity, however, now appeared to be endangered by a dispute with Spain. Some English merchants having engaged in speculations in the fur trade, had established a factory at Nootka Sound, on the north-west coast of America, after having taken possession of the country, in the name of the sovereign and crown of England. The Spaniards, ever jealous of settlements on that side of America, soon after sent some armed vessels from Mexico, seized all the ships on the coast, and obliged the English to abandon the settlement.

No sooner was this act of violence made known to the English government, than spirited remonstrances were made to the court of Spain, and a considerable armament prepared to enforce redress. The Spanish cabinet, however, thought it expedient to concede the point in dispute, and an amicable convention was signed at the Escorial, by the plenipotentiaries of the two nations, on the 28th of October, 1790.

But though Great Britain was thus happily rescued from war in this quarter of the globe, accident or ambition involved our Indian possessions in contest and in blood. At so remote a distance, it is difficult to judge accurately of causes and effects; but, as nearly as a diligent inquiry has enabled us to collect the truth, we shall give it in our historical narrative of that country, under which it will more naturally fall.

On the 25th of May, in this year, Mr. Fox presented his bill for re-

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moving doubts with respect to the rights of juries in criminal cases. The bill sets forth that juries, in cases of libels, should have a power of judging the whole matter, and of finding a general verdict of guilty or not guilty. With a slight opposition from the legal profession, it completed its progress through the house of commons. In the house of lords, where the influence of the law is more predominant, it experienced a very different reception, and was strongly opposed. However, in the following year, this great constitutional point was at last decided by the lords and commons, that JURIES ARE JUDGES OF BOTH THE LAW AND THE FACT.

In the beginning of the year 1791, a large naval armament was prepared, the object of which was to support the Turks against the Russians; but the proposed Russian war being found to be extremely unpopular, the design of interfering between these two remote contending powers was abandoned by the minister.

Soon after the rising of parliament this year, the nation was disgraced by the devastations committed by a riotous mob at Birmingham.—In the beginning of the French revolution, and previous to the usurpation of power by that furious party which brought the unfortunate monarch to the scaffold, many persons equally respectable for their learning, strength of mind, and liberality of sentiment, though not possessing the gift of prophecy, rejoiced in the emancipation of a neighbouring nation, and flattered themselves that they saw, in the establishment of the first French constitution, not only the annihilation of despotism in that country, but the commencement of a new system of politics in Europe, the basis of which was peace, happiness, and mutual concord. They formed associations therefore for the celebration of that event, by anniversary dinners on the 14th of July. In consequence of a meeting of this kind at Birmingham, a mob, influenced by handbills distributed by a violent party, assembled and demolished the house of the late celebrated Dr. Priestley (though he was not present at the dinner, but dined at home). The whole of the doctor's library, his valuable philosophical apparatus, his manuscripts and papers were destroyed by the mob. The meeting-houses were likewise demolished, as were also the houses of Mr. Ryland, Mr. Taylor, Mr. Hutton (the ingenious historian of Birmingham), Mr. Humphrey, Mr. Russel, and several others. Of the unfortunate and infatuated wretches who were taken in the act of rioting, five were tried at Worcester, and one was found guilty and executed. At Warwick twelve were tried, and three executed.

The marriage of the duke of York with the princess-royal of Prussia took place on the 29th of September, this year, at Berlin; and on the 25th of October they arrived in England, and were received with public joy and applause.

The royal proclamation on the 21st of May, 1792, against seditious writings, which was followed by orders for the embodying the militia of the kingdom, engaged a considerable share of the public attention. It had the intended effect, and excited numerous addresses testifying the loyalty of the people.

In the beginning of the year 1793, numerous associations were formed throughout the kingdom against republican principles and theories, or, as the phrase usually adopted by such associations was, against republicans and levellers. To say that there were no persons who had embraced republican principles, and would have been willing to concur in changing the form of the government of this country, would be absurd; but there appears no reason to suppose that the cause for alarm was so

great as many imagined, and others at least affected to believe. The truth lies between the two extremes. The controversies occasioned by the pamphlets of Messrs. Burke and Calonne, and particularly the writings of Mr. Paine, writings well adapted to the comprehension of the lower class of people, and pregnant with pointed remarks on some existing abuses, though, perhaps, with little of sound policy or principle to recommend them, had undoubtedly contributed to render the example of the French revolution in some degree contagious. But the disaffected party was neither numerous nor respectable. The church, the aristocracy, and all the most opulent of the community, were averse to any change or innovation whatever. It was among the lower part of the middle class of society that democratical opinions were chiefly entertained, and among them more probably as a matter of conversation than as a project to be reduced to practice. The violent proceedings of the French, however, had terrified the well-disposed part of the people, and almost disgusted them with the very name of reform. From the period of the fatal 10th of August, the converts from the French system were numerous: the proscription and persecution of the emigrants rapidly increased the number; and the premeditated ill-treatment and unjust death of the king almost entirely annihilated the spirit of republicanism in this country. The public wanted only to be excited to give the most forcible proofs of its attachment to a constitution which had so wisely provided against the intolerable persecutions of tyranny, and the no less deplorable mischiefs of faction.

The first disposition manifested by Great Britain to break with France regarded the navigation of the Scheldt, which the French had determined to open for the benefit of Antwerp and the Netherlands. This impediment however might perhaps have been removed, from the little disposition which was evinced by Holland to assert its right to the exclusive navigation, and from the readiness of the French to refer the whole affair to a negotiation.

The next exception which was taken by the English ministry was to the decree of fraternity, which was offered by the French convention to the revolting subjects of any monarchical (or, as they said, tyrannical) government, and which was construed into a direct affront to this country, and a plot against her peace.

The alien bill, which the French complained was an infraction of the commercial treaty, was the next cause of dispute; and this offence was augmented by the prohibition to export corn to France, while it was freely allowed to the powers at war with that country.

At length, towards the end of January, M. Chauvelin was officially informed by the English court, that his character and functions, so long suspended, had entirely terminated by the fatal death of the king of France; that he had no more any public character here, where his further residence was forbidden. Eight days were allowed for his departure; and this notification was published in the Gazette. M. Maret had been sent by the executive council of France with enlarged powers, and, it was said, with very advantageous proposals to Great Britain; but arriving in England exactly at the period of M. Chauvelin's dismissal, he thought it prudent immediately to return home.

Mr. secretary Dundas, on the 28th of January, presented to the house of commons a message from the king, in which his majesty expressed the necessity of making a further augmentation of his forces by sea and land, for maintaining the security and rights of his own dominions, for supporting his allies, and for opposing views of aggrandisement and am-

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bition on the part of France. The question in relation to this subject was carried by a great majority in favour of ministers.

On the 25th of March, 1794, lord Grenville and count Woronzow signed a convention at London, on behalf of his Britannic majesty and the empress of Russia, in which their majesties agreed to employ their respective forces in carrying on the "just and necessary war" in which they were engaged against France; and they reciprocally promised *not to lay down their arms* but by common consent. Notwithstanding this solemn treaty, Catharine took no active part whatever in the war. Another treaty was concluded between his Britannic majesty and the king of Sardinia, signed at London the 25th of April, by which Great Britain engaged to pay 200,000*l.* per annum to the king of Sardinia, and three months in advance. A treaty was likewise concluded between his highness the prince of Hesse-Cassel and his Britannic majesty; the former was to furnish 8,000 men for the war, during three years; in return for which, England was to pay 100,000*l.* levy-money, and 50,000*l.* sterling per annum for six years.

For the military operations of the war, we must refer our readers to our account of France, to the history of which country they most properly appertain.

On the 12th of May, 1794, a message from his majesty was brought down to the house by Mr. secretary Dundas, in which he informed them "that the seditious practices which had been for some time carried on by certain societies in London, in correspondence with societies in different parts of the country, had lately been pursued with increased activity and boldness, and had been avowedly directed to the object of assembling a pretended general convention of the people, in contempt and defiance of the authority of parliament; that his majesty had given orders for seizing the books and papers of these societies, which were to be laid before the house; and that it was recommended to the house to consider them, and to pursue such measures as were necessary in order to prevent their pernicious tendency."

The same day Thomas Hardy, a shoemaker in Piccadilly, who had acted as secretary to the London Corresponding Society, and Daniel Adams, the secretary to the Society for Constitutional Information, were apprehended, by a warrant from Mr. Dundas, for treasonable practices, and their books and papers seized. Mr. Horne Tooke, Mr. Jeremiah Joyce, preceptor to lord Mahon, and Mr. Thelwall, who had for some time read political lectures, were afterwards, in the course of the week, arrested and committed to the Tower, on a charge of high treason.

On the day following the seizure of the papers of these societies, they were brought down sealed to the house of commons by Mr. Dundas, and referred to a committee of secrecy, consisting of twenty-one members; in consequence of the report of which committee, a suspension of the *Habeas Corpus* act was voted by a considerable majority.

On the first of June, 1794, the British fleet under the command of admiral lord Howe obtained a signal victory over that of the French, in which two ships were sunk, one burnt, and six brought into Portsmouth harbour.

On the 10th of September a special commission of oyer and terminer was issued for the trial of the prisoners confined on a charge of high treason in the Tower of London; and on the second of October it was opened at the sessions-house, Clerkenwell, by the lord chief justice Eyre, in an elaborate charge to the grand jury; and in the course of their proceedings the jury found a bill of indictment against Thomas Hardy, John Horne

Tooke, and ten others; and on the 25th of October, Thomas Hardy, the late secretary to the London Corresponding Society, was put on his trial at the Old-Bailey. The trial lasted eight days, the jury retiring every night, and during the intervening Sunday, under the care of the sheriffs, to the Hummums in Covent-garden, where beds were provided for them. At length, on Wednesday, November 5, the proceedings being finished, the jury left the court, and after two hours and a half returned and delivered their verdict—Not guilty.

On Monday, November 17, the court again met, and proceeded on the trial of John Horne Tooke, esq. on the same charge of high-treason. This trial was conducted in the same manner as the preceding, and ended on the Saturday following about eight in the evening, when the jury retired, and in a few minutes returned with their verdict—Not guilty.

On Monday the 6th of December, the court again met, and John Augustus Bonney, Jeremiah Joyce, Stewart Kyd, and Thomas Holcroft (who much to his honour, though not in custody, had surrendered himself as soon as the bill was found against him by the grand jury), were arraigned; and a jury was sworn in; when the attorney-general informed the court that he should decline going into the evidence against the prisoners, as it was the same that had been adduced on the two late trials, and on which, after the most mature consideration, a verdict of acquittal had been given. The prisoners were of course acquitted and discharged.

Mr. Thelwall was then put to the bar, and, after a trial of five days, acquitted.

Thus ended these memorable trials, the issue of which the country awaited with the utmost agitation and anxious suspense, until the just and temperate verdict of an honest jury had defended the law of the land against the dangerous innovation of constructive treasons.

On the 8th of April, 1793, were celebrated the nuptials of his royal highness the prince of Wales with her highness the princess Caroline of Brunswick: on which occasion a bill was passed for enabling his majesty to grant a suitable establishment to his royal highness, and for regulating the liquidation of his debts. Another bill was likewise passed for preventing future princes of Wales from incurring debts.

On the 8th of December, a message from his majesty was brought down to the house of commons, signifying a disposition to enter into a negotiation with France, the government of that country having at length assumed such a form as to render a treaty with it practicable. Mr. Wickham, the British plenipotentiary to the Swiss Cantons, was appointed, in consequence, to make some overtures, through the medium of Mr. Barthelemi, the French envoy at Basle; but this feeble attempt at negotiation soon terminated without effect.

An apparently much more serious offer of this nature was made the following year. About the latter end of the month of September, 1796, through the intervention of the Danish minister at Paris, a passport was applied for and obtained for a confidential person to be sent to Paris from the court of London, commissioned to discuss with the French government the means most proper for conducing to the re-establishment of peace. Lord Malmesbury was the person appointed by the British court to undertake this mission. His lordship accordingly repaired to Paris, where he continued about two months. It was proposed, on the part of England, as the basis of the treaty, that France should restore the Netherlands to the emperor, and evacuate Italy; in which case En-

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gland engaged to restore all the conquests made on that power in the East and West Indies. The French directory replied, that they could not consent to proposals contrary to the constitution, to the laws, and to the treaties which bind the republic. Thus ended this negotiation.

The beginning of the year 1797 was distinguished by as extraordinary an event as perhaps ever occurred in this or any other war—the invasion of Great Britain by a force of 1200 men, without artillery, and almost without accoutrements. The alarm at first was general, and great, throughout the whole of Pembrokeshire, on the coast of which the landing was made; but the men surrendered on the approach of a very inadequate force, and almost without resistance. On inquiry, it appeared that they consisted entirely of galley-slaves, and other criminals, from Brest; and the object was supposed to be at once to create an alarm on the British coast, and to rid the French republic of a number of desperate persons: but whatever the intentions of the enemy might be, they met, on the whole, with a complete disappointment; for not only the expedition proved entirely fruitless, but, as two of the ships which disembarked the men were returning into Brest harbour, they were captured by the *St. Fiorenzo* and *Nymph* frigates.

The apprehensions excited by this circumstance had scarcely subsided, when a more serious cause of alarm occurred to agitate the minds of the public. The bank of England discontinued the issuing of specie in their customary payments. A run (to speak in the commercial phraseology) had taken place upon some of the country banks; and the great demand for specie from the bank of England induced the directors to lay the state of their company before the minister; in consequence of which an order of council was made on the 26th of February, prohibiting the further issue of specie from the bank. This order was afterwards sanctioned and ratified by an act of parliament, by which the restriction was continued to midsummer, and it has since been continued by other acts to the present time.

On the third of March, government received intelligence of an important advantage obtained by the British fleet, under the command of sir John Jervis, over a Spanish fleet of much superior force, on the 14th of February, off Cape St. Vincent. The English admiral, by a successful manœuvre, separated the rear of the enemy's fleet from the main body, and captured two ships of 112 guns, one of 84, and one of 74.

The seamen of England, however, who had so long been the defence and glory of the nation, seemed suddenly to conspire its overthrow. In the middle of April a most alarming mutiny broke out on board the grand Channel fleet at Spithead, under the command of lord Bridport. The sailors required an advance of their pay, and certain regulations to be adopted relative to the allowance of provisions. They appointed delegates, two for each ship, who for several days had the entire command of the whole fleet, over which no officer had the least authority. In this critical situation, government deemed it most expedient to promise a full compliance with all their demands; on which they cheerfully returned to their duty. But in a week or two afterwards, no act of indemnity having been offered in parliament for the security of those concerned in the mutiny, they again rose, deprived their officers of their authority, and the dispute seemed to wear a more gloomy aspect than before. A bill, securing to the seamen what they had been promised, was therefore hastily passed through both houses, and lord Howe went down to Portsmouth to act as mediator. The delegates of the fleet de-

clared themselves satisfied, and harmony and good order were immediately restored.

The ferment, however, still remained in other parts of the navy; and soon after, the seamen of some ships lying at Sheerness began to mutiny, and behaved riotously; and so contagious was the spirit of insurrection now become among the seamen, that almost all the ships of admiral Duncan's fleet at Yarmouth appointed delegates, and sailed away to the Nore, to join the ships from Sheerness. New grievances were required to be redressed, and new and extravagant demands to be complied with. Government was now convinced that to yield would only be to encourage a repetition of similar proceedings; and every disposition was therefore made to force these ships to submission. All communication between them and the shore was cut off, and no provisions or water suffered to go to them. The mutineers, to supply themselves with these, detained all vessels coming up the river, and took out of them whatever they chose; for which their delegates, the principal of whom was one Richard Parker, a man of strong natural abilities, gave draughts on the treasury, as taken for the use of the navy of England. At length, being reduced to great want of water, and dissensions and distrust prevailing among themselves, several ships left the mutinous fleet, and surrendered themselves at Sheerness. Some of these were fired upon by the others; but at length they all came in, and gave up their delegates, who, with a number of others that were considered as principals in the mutiny, were tried by a court-martial. Some of them were executed, others sentenced to different punishments, and the rest pardoned. Richard Parker, who had acted as commander of the fleet while in a state of mutiny, was the first who was tried and executed. He displayed great presence of mind, and suffered with the utmost firmness and fortitude.

As if to erase this stain from the annals of the British navy, the fleet of admiral Duncan, consisting principally of the ships which had been engaged in this unhappy and disgraceful mutiny, sailed soon after to watch the motions of the Dutch fleet in the Texel, where it remained for some time blockaded, till, on its venturing out, an engagement ensued, in which the English fleet obtained a complete victory, taking the Dutch admiral De Winter, the vice-admiral, and nine ships.

In consequence of this signal victory, admiral Duncan was created viscount Duncan; and on account of this and the other naval successes of the war, the 19th of December was appointed to be observed as a thanksgiving day, on which day his majesty and both houses of parliament went in solemn procession to St. Paul's, to return thanks to heaven for the victories gained by his fleets.

In the course of this year, another attempt was made by the British cabinet to negotiate a treaty of peace with France. The preliminaries of a peace between the French republic and the emperor of Germany having been signed at Leoben, in the month of April, by which the Netherlands were given up to France, the difficulty which had broken off the last negotiation appeared to be in some measure removed, and applications were again made to the French government for passports for a person who might enter into discussions relative to the basis of a future treaty. Lord Malmesbury was again appointed to this mission; but the French directory objected to his coming to Paris, and appointed Lisle for the place of the conference with commissioners they sent thither for that purpose. What the Netherlands, however, had been in the former attempt to treat, the Cape of Good Hope and Ceylon proved in the pre-

sent; and, after a stay of nearly three months, lord Malmesbury, not being able to declare himself empowered to consent to the surrender of all the conquests made from France or her allies, was abruptly ordered to depart, and, on the 20th of September, returned as before, not having effected the object of his mission.

In the following month, the definitive treaty between the French republic and the emperor was concluded and ratified; and the French, having little other employment for their armies, began to talk loudly of an immediate invasion of England. The directory assembled a large army along the coasts opposite to Great Britain, which they called the army of England: and a variety of idle reports were propagated relative to preparations said to be making in the ports of France; among others, that rafts of an enormous size and peculiar construction were building for the conveyance of troops. The British minister did not suffer these ridiculous exaggerations, nor even the evident absurdity and rashness of any attempt at an invasion of England, in the face of a fleet so decidedly superior to that of every enemy united, to produce an improper security, but took such measures of precaution as were most proper for the general defense of the kingdom, and to guard the different parts of the country from the mischievous consequences of a sudden attack. But the threats of the enemy were not even attempted to be carried into execution; and the directory soon after turned their views towards another quarter of the globe, by fitting out, at Toulon, a formidable expedition, which, about the latter end of May, sailed for Egypt, under the command of Buonaparte, probably with a view to prepare the way, by the conquest of that country, for an attack on the British settlements in India.

In the course of the preparations made for the invasion of England, a number of transports had been fitted out at Flushing, and some other of the ports of Holland, which were to come round by the canals to Dunkirk and Ostend, in order to avoid the British cruizers. An expedition was therefore fitted out in May 1798, under the command of captain Home Popham, and major-general Coote, which landed a body of troops at Ostend, who blew up and entirely destroyed the sluice-gates and works of the canal at that place, and burnt several vessels that were intended for transports. Unfortunately, when the troops were ready to reembark, the wind had changed, and the sea ran so high, that it was found to be impossible; and the enemy, in the mean time, collected round them in such force, that general Coote, and those who had landed with him, amounting to nearly a thousand men, were obliged to surrender themselves prisoners.

Towards the latter end of this year, intelligence was received of the most brilliant victory ever gained at sea, even by the British navy, which has obtained such unequalled glory, on so many occasions, in the course of the present war. On the first of August, admiral sir Horatio Nelson, who had been detached by earl St. Vincent in pursuit of the French fleet, which, as was mentioned above, sailed from Toulon in May; having received a reinforcement of ten sail of the line, arrived off the mouth of the Nile, where he found the enemy, and immediately made dispositions for an attack. The French fleet was at anchor in the bay of Aboukir. The admiral's ship carried a hundred and twenty guns, and above a thousand men; three had eighty guns each, and nine had seventy-four. They were drawn up near the shore in a strong and compact line of battle, flanked by four frigates and many gun-boats, and protected in the van by a battery planted in a small island. Their situation, therefore, was extremely advantageous for defence: but the great

danger of an attack did not deter the British admiral from making the attempt. He was desirous to break the line of the French, and surround a part of the fleet, and he ably executed his purpose. At sun-set the engagement commenced; and both parties fought with the utmost fury. While the victory was yet undecided, the French admiral Brueys received two wounds, and, having changed his situation, was, soon after, deprived of life by a cannon shot. When the action had continued for two hours, two of the French ships were captured; a third struck soon after; and the whole van was in the power of the English, who eagerly proceeded to a completion of their victory. About nine at night, a fire was observed on board L'Orient, the French admiral's ship, which increased with great rapidity till about ten o'clock, when she blew up with a dreadful explosion. An awful pause and silence for about three minutes succeeded, when the wreck of the masts and yards, which had been carried to a vast height, fell down into the water, and on board the surrounding ships. After this awful scene, the engagement was prosecuted at intervals till day-break; and only two of the French ships of the line, and two frigates, escaped capture or destruction. Nine sail of the line were taken, and one, besides L'Orient, was burned, her own captain setting fire to her. A frigate also was burned by her commander. Captain Hood, in the *Zealous*, pursued the retiring vessels; but he was soon recalled by the admiral, as none of the ships could support him in the chace.

This signal victory not only gave the British fleet the entire command of the Mediterranean, but appeared to infuse fresh courage into all the powers on the continent to renew their exertions against France. The Turks declared war with the republic, and the king of Naples attacked and took possession of Rome, then in the power of the French. But the reverse he afterwards experienced, and the other events of the campaign in Italy, will be related in our summary of the affairs of France.

About the same time that intelligence of this glorious victory was received, sir John Borlase Warren defeated, off the coast of Ireland, a French squadron consisting of one ship of the line, the *Hoche*, and eight frigates, with troops and ammunition on board. On the 11th of October they were descried by the British squadron. At half past seven on the morning of the 12th the action commenced; and at eleven the *Hoche*, after a gallant defence, struck: the frigates then made sail away, and the signal for a general chace was immediately made by the admiral. After a running fight of five hours, three of the frigates were captured; and three others afterwards became prizes. Thus the whole squadron, two frigates excepted, fell into the hands of the British; and the hopes of the French, as well as of the malcontents in Ireland, were completely defeated.

To complete the successes of the year, the fortress of Ciudadella, and the island of Minorca, surrendered on the 15th of November to general Stuart and commodore Duckworth. This acquisition was made without the loss of a man.

In the beginning of May, 1799, a new war having taken place in India with Tippoo Saib, Seringapatam, his capital, was taken, and himself killed in the assault, by the British troops under the command of lieutenant-general Harris. Of the capture of this important place, and the consequent addition of the greater part of the Mysore country to the territory of the East-India company, a further account will be found in our history of the British transactions and conquests in Hindoostan.

In the month of August following, an expedition was fitted out in the

West Indies under the command of lieutenant-general Trigge, and vice-admiral lord Hugh Seymour, consisting of two ships of the line, five frigates, and several transports carrying stores and provisions: it arrived on the 16th of that month off the mouth of the river Surinam: when the fort New Amsterdam, and the town of Paramaribo, the capital of the Dutch colony of Surinam, surrendered by capitulation to the British commanders without attempting resistance.

But the principal military operation undertaken by Great Britain, in this year, was the expedition fitted out to rescue Holland from the yoke of the French, in which about 30,000 British troops were employed, who were joined in Holland by 17,000 Russians, taken into the pay of England. The first division of this armament, under sir Ralph Abercrombie, sailed from Deal and Margate on the 13th of August for the Helder-point, at the mouth of the Texel; but encountered such unfavourable and violent gales, that the troops could not effect a landing at the place of their destination till the morning of the 27th. A hotly contested action then took place between the British and the French and Dutch troops: but the valour of the former ultimately triumphed; and the enemy evacuated the batteries and works of the Helder, and seven Dutch men of war and thirteen Indiamen surrendered to the fleet under admiral Mitchell, who immediately after stood down into the Texel, and offered battle to the Dutch fleet lying there, the whole of which, consisting of twelve ships of war, surrendered to the English admiral, the Dutch sailors refusing to fight, and compelling their officers to give up their ships for the service of the prince of Orange.

On the 13th the duke of York arrived in Holland, with the second division, and took upon him the command of the army; and on the 19th an engagement took place between the British and Russians and the French, in which the former failed in their attack, in consequence of the Russians suffering themselves to be thrown into disorder by their impetuosity and haste, which occasioned them to suffer severely—their loss amounting to 1500 men, and their general, who was taken prisoner. The army, however, soon recovered from the effects of this check, and on the 2d of October, after a hard-fought battle of twelve hours, compelled the enemy to retreat, and took possession of the town of Alkmaar. But here the success of the expedition terminated. The enemy had received a reinforcement of about 6000 men, and occupied a strongly fortified position, which it would be necessary to carry before the army could advance; besides which, the state of the weather, the ruined condition of the roads, and the consequent total want of the supplies necessary for the army, presented such insurmountable difficulties, that in two days afterwards it was judged expedient to withdraw the troops from their advanced position: and as it now appeared that there could be no hope of success in any attempt to prosecute further the object of the expedition, the duke, in conjunction with vice-admiral Mitchell, concluded an armistice with general Brune, who commanded the French and Batavian armies, the principal conditions of which were, that eight thousand French and Batavian prisoners, taken before that campaign, should be restored to their respective countries; that the combined English and Russian army should evacuate the territory, coasts, islands, and internal navigation of the Dutch republic, by the 30th of November 1799, without committing any devastation by inundations, cutting the dykes, or otherwise injuring the sources of navigation; and that the mounted batteries taken possession of at the Helder, or at other positions, should be restored in the state in which they were taken, or, in case of

improvement, in the state in which they then were, together with all the Dutch artillery taken in them.

Such was the termination of an expedition, the failure of which, when it was planned, was considered as almost impossible; and which, in fact, commenced with such brilliant advantages, and so fair a prospect of complete success. Yet it must not be forgotten, that the capture of the Dutch fleet nearly annihilated the naval power of the new Batavian republic, and secured still more to Britain the sovereignty of the seas, which is her only protection, the source of all her wealth and all her glory.

In the month of November, a new revolution took place in the government of France. The celebrated Buonaparte having returned from Egypt, displaced the directory, and assumed a kind of dictatorial power, under the title of *First Consul*, according to a new constitution which he procured to be framed and accepted. In order to induce the people to consent to this change, by which he was invested with the supreme authority, he promised them that he would take effectual measures to put an end to the miseries and destruction of war. In pursuance of this promise, on the very day on which he entered on his new dignity, he addressed a note immediately to the king of Great Britain, in which he expressed a wish to contribute effectually to a general pacification; and in a second note, afterwards transmitted by M. Talleyrand, to the English ministry, proposed "an immediate suspension of arms, and that plenipotentiaries on each side should repair to Dunkirk, or any other town as advantageously situated, for the quickness of the respective communications, and who should apply themselves, without any delay, to effect the re-establishment of peace and a good understanding between the French republic and England."—The British ministry, however, showed no disposition to accede to the overture, probably conceiving the new government of France not to have as yet acquired sufficient stability to be treated with, and encouraged, by the success which had attended the arms of the allies in the preceding campaign, to hope that they should be able still more effectually to humble and weaken France by a continuance of the war.

But this expectation was not verified by the event. The emperor of Russia, influenced, perhaps, by French intrigues, recalled his troops from Italy and Switzerland; and Buonaparte, raising a new and well-appointed army, and passing the Alps by a route thought impracticable; defeated the Austrians (who seemed not to suppose that he could have entered Italy till he had taken Milan) at the fatal battle of Marengo; the consequence of which was, that the Austrian general, Melas, proposed an armistice, and surrendered the whole of Piedmont and Genoa to the French. General Moreau having at the same time prosecuted the war with great success in Germany, where he had made himself master of the capital and the greater part of Bavaria, the Austrian government thought it advisable to consent to an armistice likewise in that quarter; and propositions were made for peace. Count St. Julian went to Paris to conduct the negotiations, and preliminaries were signed; but, some delay occurring in the ratification of them, hostilities recommenced, and Moreau gained the decisive battle of Hohenlinden; after which an armistice was again agreed to, the negotiations were renewed, and a peace between France and Austria, on the basis of the treaty of Campo Formio, was concluded at Luneville on the 3d of February 1801.

In the mean time a serious dispute had taken place between England and the northern powers, relative to the right of search of neutral ships,

and some other demands of those powers, which were judged incompatible with the honour and interests of Great Britain. The emperor of Russia, so lately the determined foe of France, had now become her ally, and the enemy of England, and had incited and supported this coalition of the maritime powers of the north against the naval superiority of Britain. To suppress this dangerous combination, before it had attained maturity, an armament was fitted out in the British ports, consisting of seventeen sail of the line, three frigates, and about twenty bomb-ketches and gun-brigs, under the command of sir Hyde Parker and lord Nelson. This fleet sailed from Yarmouth on the 12th of March, and triumphantly passed the Sound, which was deemed impossible, and reached the capital of Denmark. The Danes had made very formidable dispositions. Before the city was stationed an armed flotilla consisting of ships of the line, galleys, fire-ships, and gun-boats. These were flanked and supported by extensive batteries, on the two islands called the Crowns, the largest of which mounted from fifty to seventy pieces of cannon. The attack was made on the 2d of April by a division of the English fleet under lord Nelson, consisting of twelve ships of the line and four frigates. After a very severe engagement, an end was put to the contest by lord Nelson spontaneously offering a cessation of arms. The Danes lost in the battle eighteen ships, among which were seven men of war of the line fitted up for that particular occasion. Lord Nelson had proceeded to approach Copenhagen, into which some bombs were thrown; but an attack on the city was prevented by a flag of truce, which was sent on board lord Nelson's ship, and an armistice was soon after concluded with sir Hyde Parker by the Danish court.

On the 19th of April the British fleet appeared off Carlsrona, and the admiral acquainted the governor that the court of Denmark, having concluded an armistice by which the unfortunate dispute with the court of St. James's had been accommodated, he was directed to require an explicit answer from his Swedish majesty, relative to his intention of adhering to or abandoning the hostile measures he had taken in conjunction with Russia. An official answer to this demand was communicated from the king of Sweden to sir Hyde Parker, intimating that his Swedish majesty would not fail to fulfil the engagements entered into with his allies; but that he would not refuse to listen to equitable proposals made by deputies furnished with proper authority to regulate the matters in dispute.

The termination of the contest, however, at that time, was, perhaps, not so much to be attributed either to the battle of Copenhagen, or to the victorious progress of the British fleet, as to the death of the emperor Paul of Russia, who on the 23d of March expired *suddenly*, and was succeeded by his son Alexander, who soon after his accession entered into negotiations for a pacific accommodation with England, in consequence of which a convention was at length signed at St. Petersburg, by which the principal claims of Great Britain were recognised and ratified.

Previous to these transactions the administration of Mr. Pitt, which had continued eighteen years, unexpectedly terminated by the resignation of that statesman on the 11th of Jan. 1801; which was immediately followed by that of Mr. Dundas and the other principal members of the cabinet who had acted with him. What his reasons were for withdrawing from power do not appear to have been very satisfactorily explained. By some it was alleged, that the difficult and dangerous circumstances in which the country was placed had induced him to abandon the reins of go-

vernment, which he found he could no longer guide with success; while others asserted, that a difference in the cabinet relative to the fulfilment of the promise of what is called emancipation, made to the catholics of Ireland when the measure of the union was carried, was the real and sole cause of his resigning his power. If the latter be the true reason, it certainly does him much honour that he rather chose to descend from his high station than falsify a solemn engagement. Mr. Pitt was succeeded as chancellor of the exchequer and first lord of the treasury by Mr. Addington, at that time speaker of the house of commons. Lord Hawkesbury took the management of foreign affairs as secretary of state, and other suitable arrangements were made. In consequence however of some delay in making these arrangements, and the indisposition of his majesty about that time, the new ministers did not enter into the exercise of their official functions till nearly the middle of March.

By the dissolution of the confederacy of the northern powers, one of the great obstacles to the peace between Great Britain and the French Republic was happily removed; as was another, soon after, by the complete conquest of Egypt from the French, by general Hutchinson; general Abercromby, who originally had the command of that expedition, having unfortunately but gloriously fallen in the battle of Alexandria on the 21st of March. The ministry therefore entered seriously into negotiations for peace with the French government, the preliminaries of which were signed at London on the 1st of October 1801, between M. Otto on the part of the French republic, and lord Hawkesbury on the part of his Britannic majesty; and after further negotiations, the definitive treaty was signed at Amiens on the 27th of March 1802, by marquis Cornwallis on the part of England, and Joseph Bonaparte, the brother of the First Consul, on the part of the French republic.

By this treaty Great Britain agreed to restore all her conquests, the island of Trinidad, and the Dutch possessions in Ceylon, excepted. The Cape of Good Hope was to remain a free port to all the contracting parties, who were to enjoy the same advantages. The island of Malta was to be evacuated by the British troops and restored to the order of St. John of Jerusalem, but under the guarantee of the principal powers of Europe. Egypt was to be restored to the Ottoman Porte. The territory of Portugal was to be maintained in its integrity, and the French troops were to evacuate the territories of Rome and Naples. The republic of the Seven Islands was recognised by France, and the fishery of Newfoundland was established on its former footing.

But the restless and insatiable ambition of the French government did not suffer this treaty long to remain unviolated. It affected to treat England as compelled by necessity to conclude peace, and incapable of resisting the incroachments of France, unsupported by foreign allies. But the principal subject of dispute was the island of Malta, which England refused to evacuate without the guarantees for which she had stipulated in the treaty of Amiens. At length, after a protracted negotiation, in the course of which the First Consul expressed himself with equal petulance and insolence, descending even, in a conference with the English ambassador lord Whitworth, to the contemptible threat of invasion, a message from the throne was sent to the house of commons on the 16th of May 1803, stating, that the conduct of the French government had obliged his majesty to recall his ambassador from Paris, and that the French ambassador had left London.

Since that time Bonaparte (who has now avowedly changed the con-

stitution of France to that of an absolute monarchy, and assumed the title of *emperor of the French*) has been employed in causing a prodigious number of gun-boats and other small vessels to be built in the ports of France and Holland, in order to carry into effect his ambitious and insolent menace of invasion; but hitherto the utmost achievement of these armaments has been to creep cautiously along their own shores, from the ports in which they are built to those where it is said they are to rendezvous, occasionally losing not a few of their number, taken or destroyed by English cruizers, when they venture, or are driven by the violence of unfavourable winds, into deep water. The people of Britain, roused by insult, and animated by conscious integrity and honour, have risen as one man, and with patriotic enthusiasm taken up arms in defence of their king, their constitution, and their liberties, convinced that the most wretched of slavery must be their lot, should the despot of France succeed in his ambitious and ferocious designs.—But that he can succeed must be impossible, while the natives of this free and happy country retain one particle of their ancient spirit.

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 Mecklenburg Strelitz, born May 16, 1744, crowned September 22, 1761, and now have issue:

1. George-Augustus-Frederic, prince of Wales, born August 12, 1762; married, April 8, 1795, to her highness the princess Caroline of Brunswick; has issue, Jan. 7, 1796, a princess.

2. Prince Frederic, born August 16, 1763; elected bishop of Osnaburg, February 27, 1764; created duke of York and Albany, November 7, 1784; K. G. and K. B.; married, September 29, 1791, Frederica-Charlotta-Ulrica-Catharina, princess royal of Prussia.

3. Prince William-Henry, born August 21, 1765; created duke of Clarence, K. G. and K. T.

4. Charlotte-Augusta-Matilda, princess royal of England, born September 29, 1766; married, May 18, 1797, to his serene highness Frederic-William, hereditary prince of Wurtemberg Stuttgart.

5. Prince Edward, born November 2, 1767; created duke of Kent, April, 1799.

6. Princess Augusta-Sophia, born November 8, 1768.

7. Princess Elizabeth, born May 27, 1770.

8. Prince Ernest-Augustus, born June 5, 1771; created duke of Cumberland, April, 1799.

9. Prince Augustus-Frederic, born January 27, 1773, created duke of Sussex, November 24, 1801.

10. Prince Adolphus-Frederic, born February 24, 1774, created duke of Cambridge, November 24, 1801.

11. Princess Mary, born April 25, 1776.

12. Princess Sophia, born November 3, 1777.

13. Princess Amelia, born August 7, 1783.

Issue of the late prince of Wales by the princess Augusta of Saxe-Gotha, now living:

1. Her royal highness Augusta, born August 11, 1737; married the

hereditary prince (now duke) of Brunswick Lunenburg, January 16, 1764.

2. His present majesty.

3. Prince William-Henry, duke of Gloucester, born November 25, 1743.

W A L E S.

THOUGH this principality is politically included in England, yet, as it has distinction in language and manners, we have, in conformity with common custom, assigned it a separate article.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

Miles.	Degrees.
Length 130 } between { 51,20° and 53,25° North latitude.	}
Breadth 96 } { 2,41° and 5,20° West longitude.	

Wales contains 7011 square miles with 77 inhabitants to each.

NAME.] The Welch are supposed to be the descendants of the Cimbrian or Cynraig Gauls, who made a settlement in England about fourscore years before the first descent of Julius Cæsar, and thereby obtained the name of Gallies or Wallies (the G and W being promiscuously used by the ancient Britons), that is, Strangers. In the time of the Romans Wales contained three nations, called the Demetæ, the Ordovices, and the Silures.

BOUNDARIES, DIVISIONS.] 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 Welch, or ancient 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 further conquests in their country than Monmouthshire and Herefordshire, which are now reckoned part of England. This country is divided into four circuits, comprehending twelve counties. See ENGLAND.

MOUNTAINS, LAKES, RIVERS.] Wales abounds in mountains, especially in the northern part. Snowdon in Caernarvonshire, and Plinlimmon, which lies partly in Montgomery and partly in Cardiganshire, and forms a boundary of North Wales, are the principal. The height of Snowdon is 3568 feet above the level of the sea. The mountainous situation of the country greatly assisted the natives to make so noble and long a struggle against the Romans, Saxons, and Normans.

There are several lakes in Wales, though not remarkable for their size; as Llyn Tigid, or Pimple Mere; and Llyn Savedhan, or Brecknock Mere; the latter of which is so full of fish that the inhabitants say two-thirds of it is water and the rest fish.

The principal rivers of Wales are the Severn, the Clwyd, the Wheeler, the Dee, the Elwy, and the Alen.

METALS, MINERALS.] Wales contains many quarries of free-stone and slate, several mines of lead, and abundance of coal-pits. The Parrys mountain in Anglesea is a rich mine of copper, not found in veins but in

a prodigious heap, which is worked in the manner of a quarry. This valuable mine was discovered about thirty years ago.

CLIMATE, SOIL.] The seasons are nearly the same as in the northern parts of England, and the air is sharp, but wholesome. The soil of Wales, especially towards the north, is mountainous, but contains rich valleys, which produce crops of wheat, rye, and other corn.

VEGETABLES, ANIMALS.] In these Wales differs little from England. The horses are smaller, but can endure great fatigue; the 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.

NATURAL CURIOSITIES.] Among the natural curiosities of this country, are the following: At a small village called Newton, in Glamorganshire, is a remarkable spring nigh the sea, which ebbs and flows contrary to the tide. In Merionethshire is Kader Idris, a mountain remarkable for its height, which affords variety of alpine plants. In Flintshire is a famous well, known by the name of St. Wenefred's well, at which, according to the legendary tales of the common people, miraculous cures have been performed. The spring boils with vast impetuosity out of a rock, and is torted into a beautiful polygonal well, covered with a rich arch, supported by pillars, and the roof is most exquisitely carved in stone. Over the spring is also a chapel, a neat piece of Gothic architecture, but in a very ruinous state. King James II. paid a visit to the well of St. Wenefred in 1686, and was rewarded for his piety by a present which was made him of the very shift in which his great grandmother, Mary Stuart, lost her head. The spring is supposed to be one of the finest in the British dominions, and is found to throw out about twenty-one tons of water in a minute. It never freezes, or scarcely varies in the quantity of water either in dry or rainy seasons; but in consequence of the latter it assumes a wheyish tinge. The small town adjoining to the well is known by the name of Holywell. In Caernarvonshire is the high mountain of Penmanmawr, across the edge of which the public road lies, and occasions no small terror to many travellers: from one hand the impending rocks seem every minute ready to crush them to pieces; and the great precipice below, which hangs over the sea, is so hideous, and till very lately (when a wall was raised on the side of the road) full of danger, that one false step was of dismal consequence. Near Caermarthen is a fountain, which, like the sea, ebbs and flows twice in twenty-four hours.

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

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, } The inhabitants of Wales, according to the returns under the late population act, amount to 541,546. 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 their sincerity and fidelity. 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 beginning of the Christian era. It is however certain, that great part of their history, especially the ecclesiastical, is more ancient, and better attested, than that of the Anglo-Saxons. Wales was formerly famous for its bards and poets, particularly Thaliessin, who lived about the year 450, and whose works were certainly extant at the time of the Reformation,

and clearly evince that Geoffrey of Monmouth was not the inventor of the history which makes the present Welch the descendants of the ancient Trojans. This poetical genius seems to have influenced the ancient 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 characteristic of that ambitious prince. The Welch may be called an unmixed people, and are remarkable for still maintaining the ancient hospitality, and their strict adherence to ancient customs and manners. This appears even among gentlemen of fortune, who in other countries commonly follow the stream of fashion. We are not however to imagine, that many of the nobility and gentry of Wales do not comply with the modes and manner of living in England and France. All the better sort of the Welch speak the English language, though numbers of them understand the Welch.

[CITIES, TOWNS, EDIFICES.] Wales contains no cities or towns that are remarkable either for populousness or magnificence. Beaumaris is the chief town of Anglesey*, and has a harbour for ships. Brecknock trades in clothing. 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. The other towns of Wales have nothing particular. It is, however, to be observed, that Wales, in ancient times, was a far more populous and wealthy country than it is at present; and though it contains no regular fortifications, yet many of its old castles are so strongly built, and so well situated, that they might be turned into strong forts at a small expense.

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

[CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Wales was united and incorporated with England in the 27th of Henry VIII.; when, by act of parliament, the government of it was modelled according to the English form; all laws, customs, and tenures, contrary to those of England, being abrogated, and the inhabitants admitted to a participation of all the English liberties and privileges, particularly that of sending members to parliament, viz. a knight for every shire, and a burges for every shire-town, except Merioneth. By the 34th and 35th 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

* The Isle of Anglesey, which is the most western county of North Wales, is surrounded on all sides by the Irish Sea, except on the south-east, where it is divided from Britain by a narrow strait, called Meneu, which in some places may be passed on foot at low water. The island is about 24 miles long, and 18 broad, and contains 24 parishes. It was the ancient seat of the British Druids.

of Caermarthen, Pembrokeshire, and Cardigan, have also their justices; as have likewise those of Radnor, Brecknock, and Glamorgan. By the 18th of queen Elizabeth, one other justice-assistant was ordained to the former justices; so that now every one of the said four circuits has two justices, viz. one chief-justice, and a second justice-assistant.

REVENUES.] 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, from his principality, does not exceed 7 or 8000*l.* a year.

ARMS.] The arms of the prince of Wales differ 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 *Ich dien*, I serve. St. David, commonly called St. Taffy, is the tutelar saint of the Welch; and his badge is a leek, which is worn on his day, the 1st of March.

RELIGION.] The established religion in Wales is that of the church of England; but the common people in many places are so tenacious of their ancient customs, that they retain several of the Romish superstitions, and some ancient families among them are still Roman-catholics. It is likewise said that Wales abounds with Romish priests in disguise. The principality also contains great numbers of protestant dissenters.

For BISHOPRICKS,—see England. In former times, Wales contained more bishopricks than it does now; and about the time of the Norman invasion, the religious foundations there far exceeded the wealth of all the other parts of the principality.

LITERATURE, LEARNING, AND LEARNED MEN.] Wales was a seat of learning at a very early period; but it suffered much by the repeated massacres of the bards and clergy. Wickliffism took shelter in Wales; when it was persecuted in England. The Welch and Scotch dispute about the nativity of certain learned men, particularly four of the name of Gildas. Giraldus Cambrensis, whose history was published by Camden, was certainly a Welchman; and Leland mentions several learned men of the same country, who flourished before the Reformation. The discovery of the famous king Arthur's and his wife's burying-place was owing to some lines of Thaliessin, which were repeated before Henry II. of England by a Welch bard. Since the Reformation, Wales has produced several excellent antiquaries and divines. Among the latter were Hugh Broughton, and Hugh Holland, who was a Roman-catholic, and is mentioned by Fuller in his Worthies. Among the former were several gentlemen of the name of Llhuud, particularly the author of that invaluable work, the *Archæologia*. Rowland, the learned author of the *Mona Antiqua*, was likewise a Welchman; as was that great statesman and prelate, the lord-keeper Williams, archbishop of York in the time of king Charles I. After all, it appears that the great merit of the Welch learning, in former times, lay in the knowledge of the antiquities, language, and history of their own country. Wales, notwithstanding all that Dr. Hicks and other antiquaries have said to the contrary, furnished the Anglo-Saxons with an alphabet. This is clearly demonstrated by Mr. Llhuud, in his Welch preface to his *Archæologia*, and is confirmed by various monumental inscriptions of undoubted authority. (See Rowland's *Mona Antiqua*.) The excellent history of Henry VIII., written by lord Herbert of Cherbury, may be adduced as another production of Welch literature.

LANGUAGE.] The Welch have still preserved their ancient language

which is a dialect of the Celtic, though very different from the Erse or Irish. The Lord's prayer in Welch is as follows :

Ein Tad, yr hun wyt yn y nefoedd, sancteiddier dy enw : deued dy deyrnas; bydded dy cwyllys ar y ddaear, megis y mac yn y nefoed : dyro in i heddyw ein baru beunyddiol; a maddeu i ni ein dyledion, fel y maddeuwn ni i'n dyledwyr; ac nac arwain ni i brofedigaeth eithr gwared ni rhag drwg : canys eiddot ti yw'r deyrnas, a'r gallu, a'r gogoniant, yn oes oesoedd. Amen.

ANTIQUITIES.] Wales abounds in 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 is 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. Caerphilly-castle in Glamorganshire is said to have been the largest in Great Britain, excepting Windsor; and the remains of it show 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.

HISTORY.] The ancient history of Wales is uncertain, on account of the number of petty princes who governed it. That they were sovereign and independent, appears from the English history. It was formerly inhabited by three different tribes of Britons; the Silures, the Dimetæ, and the Ordovices. These people were never entirely subdued by the Romans, though part of their country, as appears from the ruins of castles, was bridled by garrisons. The Saxons, as has been already observed, conquered the counties of Monmouth and Hereford; but they never penetrated further, 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, Dimetia, 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. The Welch made many brave attempts to maintain their liberties against the Norman kings of England. In 1237, the crown of England was first supplied with a pretext for the future conquest of Wales; their old and infirm prince Llewellyn, in order to be safe from the persecutions of his undutiful son Gryffyn, having put himself under the protection of Henry III., to whom he did homage.

But no capitulation could satisfy the ambition of Edward I., who resolved to annex Wales to the crown of England; and Llewellyn, prince of Wales, disdainful of the subjection to which old Llewellyn had submitted, Edward raised an army at a prodigious expense, with which he penetrated as far as Flint, and, taking possession of the Isle of Anglesey, drove the Welch to the mountains of Snowdon, and obliged them to submit to pay a tribute. The Welch, however, made several efforts under young Llewellyn; but at last, 1282, 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 this cruelty was not sufficient to complete his conquest, he sent his queen, in the year 1284, to be delivered in Caernarvon castle, that the Welch, having a prince born among themselves, might the more readily recognise his authority. This prince was the unhappy Edward II. ; and from him the title of prince of Wales has always since descended to the eldest sons of the English kings. The history of Wales and England 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 their 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.

ENGLISH ISLES.

THE ISLE OF WIGHT is situate opposite the coast of Hampshire, from which it is separated by a channel, varying in breadth from two to seven miles ; it is considered as part of the county of Southampton, and is within the diocese of Winchester. Its greatest length, extending from east to west, measures nearly twenty-three miles ; its breadth, from north to south, above thirteen. The air is in general healthy, particularly in the southern parts : the soil is various ; but so great is its fertility, that it was many years ago computed, that more wheat was grown here in one year than could be consumed by the inhabitants in eight ; and it is supposed that its present produce, under the great improvements of agriculture, and the additional quantity of land lately brought into tillage, has more than kept pace with the increase of population. A range of hills, which afford fine pasture for sheep, extends from east to west, through the middle of the island. The interior parts of the island, as well as its extremities, afford a great number of beautiful and picturesque prospects, not only in the pastoral but also in the great and romantic style. Of these beauties the gentlemen of the island have availed themselves, as well in the choice of situations for their houses, as in their other improvements. Domestic fowls and poultry are bred here in great numbers ; the outward-bound ships and vessels at Spithead, the Mother-bank, and Cowes, commonly furnishing themselves from this island.

Such is the purity of the air, the fertility of the soil, and the beauty and variety of the landscapes of this island, that it has been called the garden of England ; it has some very fine gentlemen's seats ; and it is often visited by parties of pleasure on account of its delightful scenes.

The island is divided into thirty parishes ; and, according to a very accurate calculation made in the year 1777, the inhabitants then amounted to eighteen thousand and twenty-four, exclusive of the troops quartered there. Most of the farm-houses are built with stone, and even the cottages appear neat and comfortable, having each its little garden.

The town of Newport stands nearly in the centre of the island, of which it may be considered as the capital. The river Medina empties itself into the channel at Cowes harbour, distant about five miles, and, being navigable up to the quay, is very commodious for trade. The three principal streets of Newport extend from east to west, and are crossed at right angles by three others, all which are spacious, clean, and well paved.

Carisbrook castle, in the Isle of Wight, has been rendered remarkable by the confinement of king Charles I., who, taking refuge here, was detained a prisoner from November 1647 to September 1648. After the execution of the king, this castle was converted into a place of confinement for his children; and his daughter, the princess Elizabeth, died in it. There are several other forts in this island, which were all erected about the 36th year of the reign of Henry VIII., when many other forts and blockhouses were built in different parts of the coast of England.

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 Britany. The computed distance between Jersey and Sark is four leagues; between that and Guernsey, seven leagues; and between the same and Alderney, nine leagues.

JERSEY, anciently CÆSAREA, was known to the Romans, and lies farthest within the bay, in forty-nine degrees seven minutes north latitude, in the second degree twenty-six minutes west longitude, 18 miles west of Normandy, and 84 miles south of Portland. The north side is inaccessible through lofty cliffs; the south is almost level with the water; the higher land, in its midland part, is well planted, and abounds with orchards, from which is made an incredible quantity of excellent cider. The valleys are fruitful and well cultivated, and contain plenty of cattle and sheep. The inhabitants neglect tillage too much, being intent upon the culture of cider, 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 of almost every kind, some of both being peculiar to the island, and very delicious.

The island is not above twelve miles in length, and is divided into twelve parishes. The air is so salubrious, that, in Camden's time, it was said there was here no business for a physician. The inhabitants are in number about 20,000. The capital town of St. Helier, or Hilary, which contains above 400 houses, has a good harbour and castle, and makes a handsome appearance. The property of this island belonged formerly to the Carterets, a Norman family, who have been always attached to the royal interest, and gave protection to Charles II. both when king and prince of Wales, at a time when no part of the British dominions durst recognise him. The language of the inhabitants is French, with which most of them intermingle English words. Knit stockings and caps form their staple commodity; but they carry on a considerable trade in fish with Newfoundland, and dispose of their cargoes in the Mediterranean. The governor is appointed by the crown of England, but the civil administration rests with a bailiff, assisted by twelve jurats. As this island is the principal remain of the duchy of Normandy depending on the kings of England, it preserves the old feudal forms;

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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. It is divided into ten parishes, which have only eight churches, four of the parishes being united, and Alderney and Sark, which are appendages of Guernsey, forming each a separate parish with its appropriate minister. Though this is naturally a 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 cider. The inhabitants speak French. Want of fuel is the greatest inconveniency that both islands labour under. The convention of the states consists of a governor, coroners, jurats, clergy, and constables. The inhabitants carry on a considerable trade to Newfoundland and the Mediterranean. The staple manufacture is knit stockings. The only harbour here is at St. Peter-le-Port, which is guarded by two forts, one called the Old-Castle, and the other Castle-Cornet. Guernsey is likewise part of the ancient Norman patrimony.

ALDERNEY is about eight miles in compass, and is by much the nearest of all these islands to Normandy, from which it is separated by a narrow strait, called the Race of Alderney, which is a dangerous passage in stormy weather, when the two currents meet; otherwise it is safe, and has depth of water for the largest ships. To the west lie a range of rocks extending near three leagues, called the Caskets, among which are several very dangerous whirlpools or eddies. The sons of king Henry I. were cast away and drowned here, passing to Normandy: here, likewise, the Victory man of war, commanded by admiral Balchen, was lost. 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; their number is about 300. The inhabitants of the three last-mentioned islands, together, are thought to be about 20,000. The religion of all the four islands is that of the church of England.

The SCILLY ISLES, anciently the SILURES, are a cluster of dangerous rocks, to the number of 140, lying about thirty miles from the Land's End in Cornwall, of which county they were reckoned a part. By their situation between the English Channel and St. George's Channel, they have been the destruction of many ships and lives. Sir Cloudesley Shovel, returning from a fruitless expedition against Toulon, was lost here in October, 1707. St. Mary's is the largest of these islands, being about nine or ten miles in circumference, and containing as many houses and inhabitants as all the rest. The number of the latter is about 700; several of the other islands are well inhabited, and have large and secure harbours.

The ISLE OF MAN has been supposed to take its name from the Saxon word *Mang* (or among), because lying in St. George's Channel. It is almost at an equal distance from England, Scotland, and Ireland. It is certain the *Mona* mentioned by Tacitus was not this island, but the Isle of Anglesey. *Mona*, indeed, seems to have been a general name with the ancients for any detached island. Its length from north to south is rather more than thirty miles, its breadth from eight to fifteen; and the latitude of the middle of the island is fifty-four degrees sixteen minutes north. It is said that on a clear day three Britannic kingdoms may be seen from this island. The air here is wholesome, and the cli-

mate, only making an allowance for the situation, nearly the same as that in the north of England, from which it does not differ much in other respects. The hilly parts are barren, and the champaign fruitful in wheat, barley, oats, rye, flax, hemp, roots, and pulse. The ridge of mountains, which, as it were, divide the island, both protects and fertilises the valleys, 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 lumps 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 of late years begins to flourish; Douglas has the best market and best trade in the island, and is the richest and most populous town, on account of its excellent harbour, and its fine mole, extending into the sea. It contains about 900 houses, and is a neat pleasant town: the buildings are lofty, but the streets narrow and close. 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. This island is situated extremely convenient for being the store-house of smugglers, which it was till within these few years.

The established religion of Man is that of the church of England. The bishop of Sodor and Man enjoys all the spiritual rights and pre-eminences of the other bishops, but does not sit in the British house of peers—his see never having been erected into an English barony. One of the most excellent prelates who ever adorned the episcopal character, was Dr. Thomas Wilson, bishop of Man, who presided over the diocese upwards of fifty-seven years, and died in the year 1755, aged ninety-three. He was eminently distinguished for the piety and the exemplariness of his life, his benevolence and hospitality, and his unremitting attention to the happiness of the people intrusted to his care. He encouraged agriculture, established schools for the instruction of the children of the inhabitants of the island, translated some of his devotional pieces into the Manks' language, to render them more generally useful to them, and founded parochial libraries in every parish in his diocese. Some of his notions respecting government and church discipline were not of the most liberal kind: but his failings were so few, and his virtues so numerous and conspicuous, that he was a great blessing to the Isle of Man, and an ornament to human nature. Cardinal Fleury had so much veneration for his character, that, out of regard to him, he obtained an order from the court of France, that no privateer of that nation should ravage the Isle of Man.

The ecclesiastical government is well maintained 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 the Common prayer book have been translated into the Manks' language. The natives, who amount to about 30,000, 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

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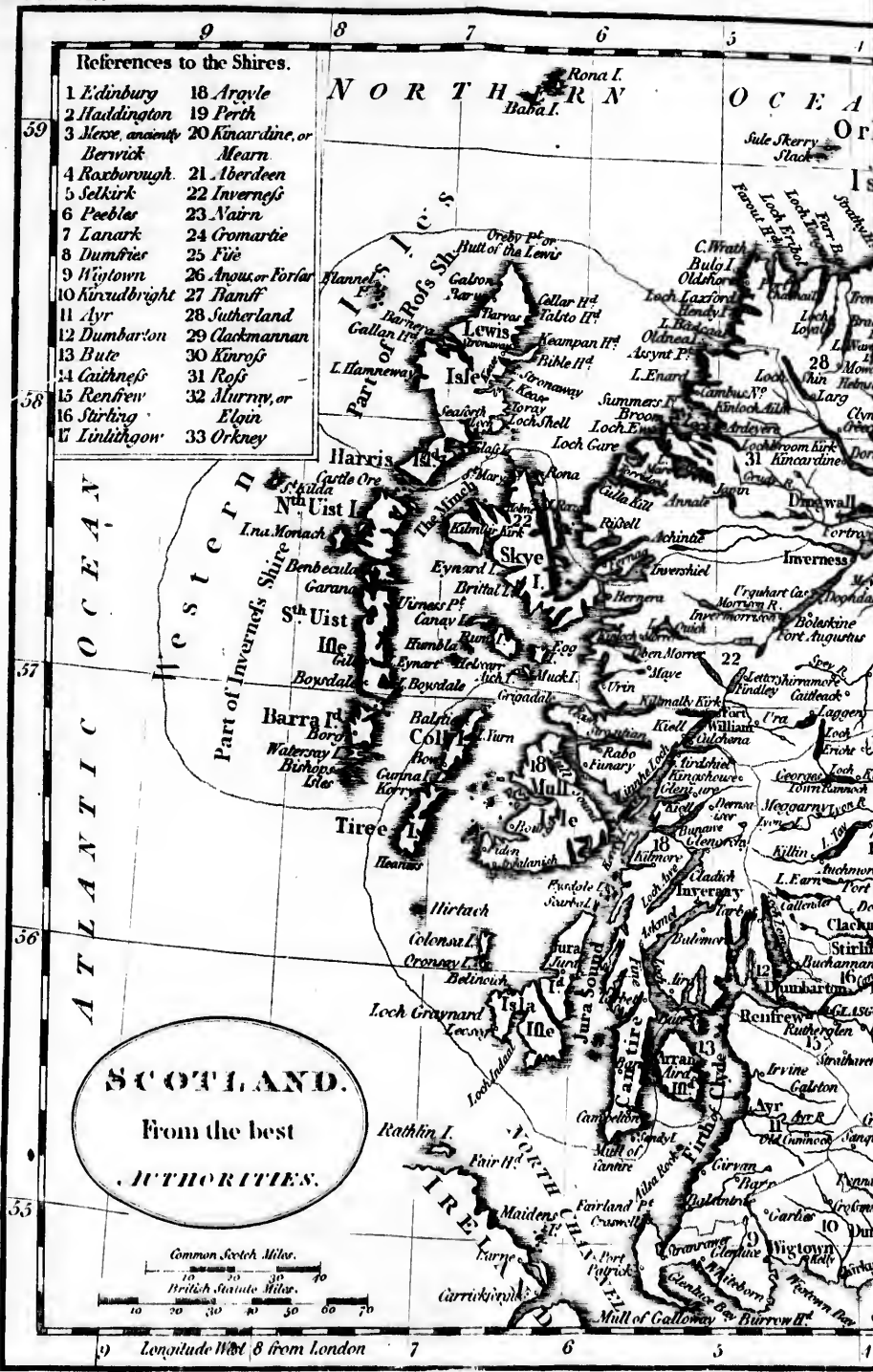
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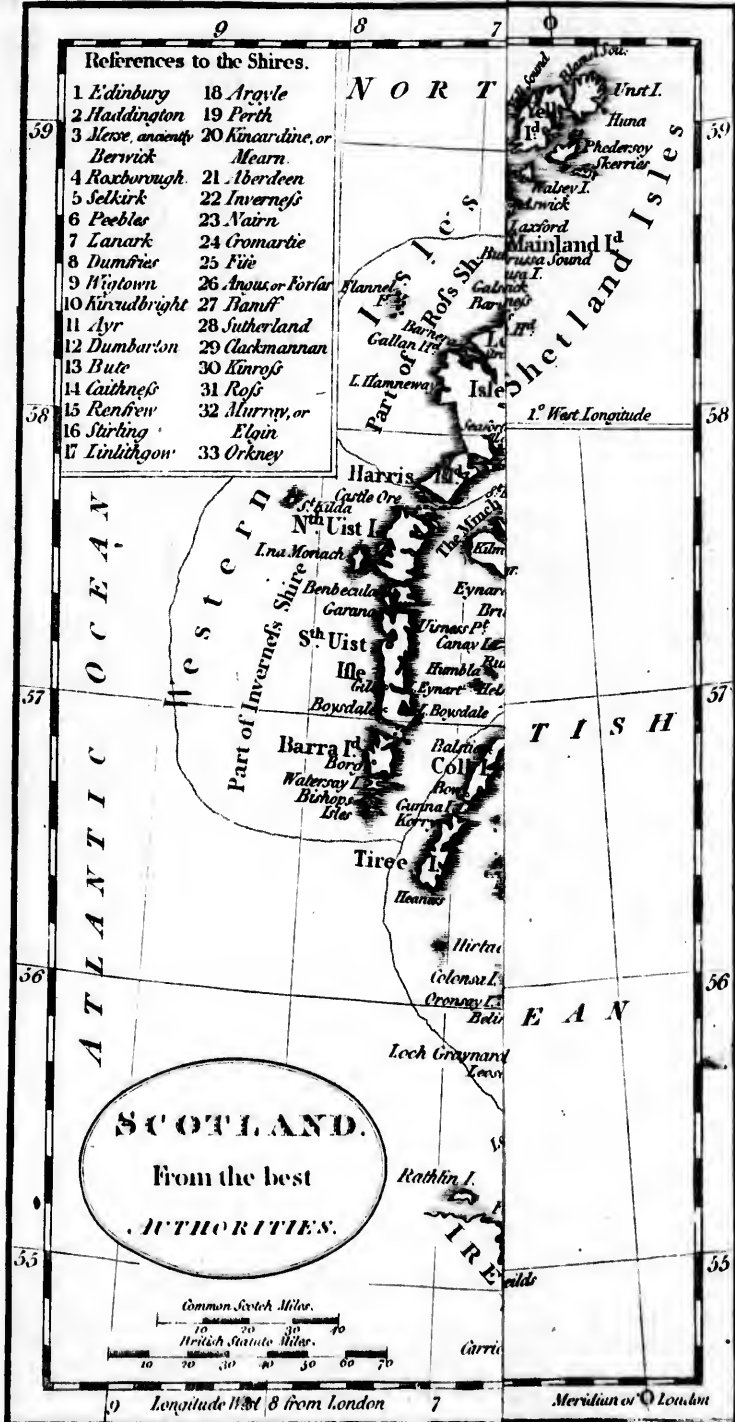
References to the Shires.

- | | |
|--------------------|---------------------|
| 1 Edinburg | 18 Argyle |
| 2 Haddington | 19 Perth |
| 3 Merse, anciently | 20 Kinross, or |
| Berwick | Mearns |
| 4 Roxburgh | 21 Aberdeen |
| 5 Selkirk | 22 Inverness |
| 6 Peebles | 23 Nairn |
| 7 Lanark | 24 Cromartie |
| 8 Dumfries | 25 Fife |
| 9 Wigtown | 26 Angus, or Forfar |
| 10 Kirkcubright | 27 Banff |
| 11 Ayr | 28 Sutherland |
| 12 Dumbar-ton | 29 Clackmannan |
| 13 Bute | 30 Kincross |
| 14 Caithness | 31 Ross |
| 15 Renfrew | 32 Murray, or |
| 16 Stirling | Elgin |
| 17 Linlithgow | 33 Orkney |



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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.

With respect to the history of this island, it was the rendezvous of the Scandinavian rovers, and their chief force was here collected; and from hence 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 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 tributary to 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, Montague, earl of Salisbury. His family honours and estate 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 rendered it necessary for the crown of Great Britain to purchase the customs of the island from the Athol family: and the bargain was completed 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 duke formerly enjoyed. The inhabitants also retain many of their ancient constitutions and customs.

SCOTLAND.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 270	} between	{ 55° and 59° north latitude.
Breadth 160		{ 1° and 6° west longitude.

Containing 27,794 square miles, with 58 inhabitants to each.

NAME.] SCOTLAND was known to the Romans by the name of Caledonia, a name, according to some, derived from a Celtic word, signifying forests or mountains: or, perhaps, it is related to the word *Gael*, by which name the northern or Highland Scots still call themselves. After the expiration of the Roman power, Scotland became the country of the Picts or Peohths, who were either the Britons driven northwards, or, as some think, a new colony from the south of Norway. At length, in the eleventh century, the Scoti coming over from Ireland and esta-

blishing themselves in Scotland, the name of Scotia was transferred from Ireland to Scotland.

BOUNDARIES.] Scotland is bounded on the south by England; and on the north, east, and west by the Deucaledonian, German, and Irish Seas, or more properly, the Atlantic Ocean.

DIVISION AND SUBDIVISIONS.] Scotland is divided into the counties south of the Firth of Forth, the capital of which, and of all the kingdom, is Edinburgh; and those to the north of the same river, of which the chief town is Aberdeen. This was the ancient national division; but some modern writers, with less 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 shires, are allotted to the southern division, and fifteen to the northern: and those counties are subdivided into sheriffdoms, stewartries, and bailiwicks, according to the ancient tenures and privileges of the landholders.

Shires.	Sheriffdoms and other Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.
1. Edinburgh } 122,954 * } { Mid Lothain.....	Edinburgh, W. long. 3.35. N. lat. 55.59. Musselburgh, Leith, and Dalkeith.
2. Haddington } 29,986 } { East Lothain.....	Dunbar, Haddington, and North Berwick.
3. Merse, anciently } Berwick, † 30,621 }	{ The Merches, and Lauderdale.....	Dunse and Lauder.
4. Roxborough 33,382	{ Tiviotdale, Lidisdale, Eskdale, & Ewesdale }	Jedburgh, Kelso, and Melross.
5. Selkirk 5,070.....	Ettrick Forest.....	Selkirk.
6. Peebles 8,735	Tweedale.....	Peebles.
7. Lanark 146,699 ..	{ Clydesdale	Glasgow, W. lon. 4. 15. N. lat. 55. 52. Hamilton, Lanark, and Rutherglen.
8. Dumfries 54,597..	Nithsdale, Annandale	Dumfries, Annan.
9. Wigtown 22,918..	{ Galloway, West part. }	Wigtown, Stranraer, and Whitehorn.
10. Kircudbright } 29,211 }	{ Galloway, East part. }	Kircudbright.
11. Ayr 84,306.....	{ Kyle, Carrick, and Cunningham.....	Ayr, Kilmarnock, Irvine, Maybole, Stewarton, and Saltcots.
12. Dumbarton 20,710	Lenox.....	Dumbarton.
13. Bute 11,791, and 14. Caithness 22,609.	{ Bute, Arran, and Caith- ness.....	Wick, W. lon. 3. 2. N. lat. 58. 40. and Thurso.

* The numbers show the population of each county, according to the returns under the act passed in 1801.

† Berwick, on the north side of the Tweed, belonged formerly to Scotland, and gave name to a county in that kingdom; but it is now formed into a town and county of itself, in a political sense distinct from England and Scotland, having its own privileges.

Shires.	Sheriffdoms and other Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.
15. Renfrew 78,056..	Renfrew.....	Renfrew, Paisley, Greenock, and Port Glasgow.
16. Stirling 50,825 ..	Stirling.....	Stirling and Falkirk.
17. Linlithgow 17,844	West Lothian.....	Linlithgow, Burroughstonness, and Queen's ferry.
18. Argyle 71,859 ...	Argyle, Cowal, Knapdale, Kintire, and Lorn, with part of the Western Isles, particularly Ila, Jura, Mull, Uist, Tera, Col, and Lismore	Inverary, Dunstaffnage, Killonmer, and Cambeltown.
19. Perth 126,366....	Perth, Athol, Gowry, Broadalbin, Monteith, Strathern, Stormont, Glenshield, and Raynock	Perth, Scone, Dumblane, Blair, and Dunkeld.
20. Kincardine, or Mearns 26,349 }	Mearns.....	Bervie, Stonehive, and Kincardine.
21. Aberdeen 123,082	Mar, Buchan, Garioch, and Strathbogie	Old Aberdeen, W. Ion. 1. 55. N. lat. 57. 7. New Aberdeen, Frasersburgh, Peterhead, Kintore, Strathbogie, Inverary, and Old Meldrum.
22. Inverness 74,292.	Aird, Strathglass, Sky, Harris, Badenoch, Lochaber, and Glenmorison.....	Inverness, Inverlochy, Fort Augustus, Bòileau.
23. Nairne 8,257 and	Western part of Murray and Cromartie..	Nairne, Cromartie.
24. Cromartie 3,052		
25. Fife 93,743.....	Fife.....	St. Andrew's, Cowper, Falkland, Kirkaldy, Innerkythen, Ely, Burnt Island, Dumfermline, Dysart, Anstruther & Aberdour.
26. Forfar or Angus 99,127 }	Forfar, Angus.....	Montrose, Forfar, Dundee, Arbroth, and Brechin.
27. Banff 35,907	Banff, Strathdovern, Boyne, Euzy, Balveny, Strathawin, and part of Buchan	Banff and Cullen.
28. Sutherland 23,117	Strathnaver and Sutherland.....	Strathay and Dornoch.
29. Clacmannan } 10,858		
and	Fife part.....	Culross, Clacmannan, Alloa, and Kinross.
30. Kinross 6725		

Shires.	Sheriffdoms and other Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.
31. Ross 52,291	Easter and Wester Ross, Isles of Lewis, Lochbroom, Lochcarren, Ardmeanach, Redcastle, Ferrintosh, Strathpeffer, and Ferrindonald.	Taine, Dingwall, Fortrose, Rosemarkie, and New Kelso.
32. Elgin or Murray 26,705 } }	Murray and Strathspey } }	Elgin and Forres.
33. Orkney 46,844	Isles of Orkney and Shetland.	Kirkwall, W. lon. 3. 8. N. lat. 59. 58. Lerwick, W. lon. 1.30. N. lat. 60. 20. Scalloway.

In all thirty-three shires, which choose thirty representatives to sit in the parliament of Great Britain; Bute and Caithness choosing alternately, as do Nairne and Cromartie, and Clacmannan and Kinross.

The royal boroughs which choose representatives are,

Edinburgh.	1	Innerkythen, Dumfermlin, Queensferry, Culross, and Stirling.	1
Kirkwall, Wick, Dornoch, Dingwall, and Tayne	1	Glasgow, Renfrew, Rutherglen, and Dumbarton	1
Fortrose, Inverness, Nairne, and Forres	1	Haddington, Dunbar, N. Berwick, Lauder, and Jedburgh	1
Elgin, Cullen, Banff, Inverary, and Kintore.	1	Selkirk, Peebles, Linlithgow, and Lanark	1
Aberdeen, Bervie, Montrose, Aberbrotho, and Brechin	1	Dumfries, Sanquhar, Annan, Lochmaban, and Kircudbright	1
Forfar, Perth, Dundee, Cowper, and St. Andrew's	1	Wigtown, New Galloway, Stranraer, and Whitehorn	1
Craik, Kilrenny, Anstruther East and West, and Pittenween	1	Ayr, Irvine, Rothesay, Cambeltown, and Inverary	1
Dysart, Kirkaldy, Kinghorne, and Burnt Island	1		

FACE OF THE COUNTRY.] The appearance of the southern part of Scotland has a great resemblance to that of England; and, with respect both to the general aspect of the country, and to the progress of cultivation, exhibits every kind of rural variety: the northern part is chiefly an assemblage of vast dreary mountains, not, however, without some fertile valleys on the northern and eastern coasts. The name of Highlands is properly given to Argyleshire, the western part of Perthshire, and the counties of Ross, Sutherland, and Caithness. The nudity of the country in many parts, in consequence of the want of wood, is generally observed by the traveller from the south; but the extensive plantations of trees continually making by the nobility and gentry must, in a few years, greatly remedy, if not entirely remove, this defect. Scotland is in general diversified with a pleasing intermixture of natural objects. The vast inequalities of the ground, if unfavourable to the labours of the husbandman, are particularly pleasing to a traveller, and afford those delightful situations for country houses, of which many of the Scottish no-

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bility and gentry have so judiciously availed themselves. It is their situation, more than any expensive magnificence, that occasions the seats of the dukes of Argyle and Athol, of lord Hopetoun, and many others, to fix the attention of every traveller.

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 Tweeddale. A third, called Lammer-Muir, rises near the eastern coast, and runs westward through the Merse. Besides those continued chains, among which we may reckon the Cheviot or Tiviot Hills on the borders of England, Scotland contains many detached mountains, which, from their conical figure, are sometimes called by the Celtic name, *Laws*. One of the most remarkable of the Scottish mountains is Ben Fouaish, in the east part of Ross-shire. It rises nearly in the form of a rick of hay to the height of 4200 feet, and ends in a flat summit or plain three miles long and half a mile broad. Ben Nevis, near Fort William; is reputed to be the highest mountain in Britain, being 4350 feet above the level of the sea. Its summit is covered with snow during the whole year.

FORESTS.] The face of Scotland, even where it is most uninviting, presents us with the most incontrovertible evidences of its having formerly abounded with timber. The deepest mosses, or morasses, contain large logs of wood; and their waters being impregnated with turpentine, have an antiseptic quality. The *Sylva Caledonia*, or Caledonian forest, is supposed to have been Ettrick Forest, by which name the whole county of Selkirk was formerly called. Several parts of Scotland are still denominated forests; as Abernethy Forest in Aberdeen-shire; Parff Forest, Reay Forest; and Broachiltive Forest in Argyleshire. Fir-trees grow in great perfection almost all over Scotland, and form beautiful plantations. The Scotch oak is excellent in the Highlands, where some woods reach 20 or 30 miles in length, and four or five in breadth.

LAKES.] The lakes of Scotland (there called *Lochs*) are too many to be particularly described. Those called Loch-Tay, Loch-Lomond, Loch-Ness, Loch-Au, and one or two more, present us with such picturesque scenes as are scarcely equalled in any other country of Europe. Several of these lakes are beautifully fringed with woods, and contain great quantities of fresh-water fish. The Scotch sometimes give the name of a Loch to an arm of the sea; for example, Loch-Fyn, which is 60 miles long, and four broad, and is famous for its excellent herrings. The Loch of Spinie, near Elgin, is remarkable for swans and cygnets, which are there extremely numerous; owing, as some think, to the plant *olorina*, which grows in its waters. Near Loch-Ness is a high hill, on the top of which is a lake of cold fresh water about 30 fathoms in length, so deep that it has not yet been fathomed, and which never freezes; whereas, but 17 miles from thence, the Lake Lochanwyn, or Green Lake, is covered with ice all the year round. The ancient province of Lochaber receives that name from being the mouth of the lochs. The coasts of Scotland are in many parts indented with large, bold, navigable Bays or arms of the sea, as the Bay of Glenluce and Wigtown Bay; sometimes they are called Firths, as the Solway Firth, which separates Scotland from England on the west; the Firth of Forth, Murray Firth, and those of Cromartie and Dornoch.

RIVERS.] The largest river in Scotland is the Forth, which rises in

Monteith, near Callendar, and passing by Stirling, after a number of beautiful meanders, discharges itself near Edinburgh into that arm of the German Sea to which it gives the name of Firth of Forth. Second to the Forth is the Tay, which issues out of Loch-Tay, in Broadalbin, and, running south-east, passes the town of Perth, and falls into the sea at Dundee. The Spey, which is called the most rapid river in Scotland, issues from a lake of the same name in Badenoch, and, running from south-west to north-east, falls into the sea near Elgin; as do the rivers Dee and Don, which run from west to east, and disembogue themselves at Aberdeen. The Tweed rises on the borders of Lanarkshire, and, after many serpentine turnings, discharges itself into the sea at Berwick, where it serves as a boundary between Scotland and England, on the eastern side. The Clyde is a large river on the west of Scotland, has its rise in Annandale, runs north-west through the valley of that name, and, after passing by Lanark, Hamilton, the city of Glasgow, Renfrew, Dumbarton, and Greenock, falls into the Firth of Clyde, opposite to the Isle of Bute. Besides these principal rivers, Scotland contains many of an inferior size, well provided with salmon, trout, and other fish, which equally enrich and beautify the country. Several of those rivers have the name of *Esk*, which is an old Celtic word for water.

[CANALS.] A canal forming a junction between the rivers Forth and Clyde, was begun in 1768, and finished in 1790; when, on the 28th of July, a hogshead of the water of the Forth was poured into the Clyde, as a symbol of their junction. This canal, in its dimensions, is much superior to any work of the same nature in England. It is 35 miles in length; in the course of which navigation the vessels are raised by means of 20 locks, to the height of 155 feet above the level of the sea. Proceeding afterwards on the summit of the country, for 18 miles, it then descends by 19 other locks into the Clyde. It is carried over 36 rivers and rivulets, and two great roads, by 38 aqueducts of hewn stone. By one of these, 400 feet in length, it passes the Kelvin, near Glasgow, at the height of 70 feet above the bed of the river in the valley below. It crosses the great road from Edinburgh to Glasgow, by a fine aqueduct-bridge; and is carried over the water of Logie by another aqueduct-bridge, the arch of which is 90 feet broad. The great utility of this communication between the Eastern and Western Seas to the trade of Great Britain and Ireland must be evident, from the consideration that it shortens the distance between them by the shortest passage, that of the Pentland Firth, nearly 600 miles.

Other canals are executing and projecting in Scotland. The canal of Crinan, which will save a circuitous and difficult navigation round Cantire, is begun, and in a considerable state of forwardness; and in April, 1804, a bill was brought into parliament for making an inland navigation from Inverness to Fort William, through Loch-Ness and Loch-Lochie, to Loch-Linney.

[METALS AND MINERALS.] Though Scotland does not at present boast of its gold mines, yet it formerly afforded a considerable quantity of that metal for its coinage. James V. and his father contracted with certain Germans for working the mines of Crawford-Moor: and when the former 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 followed, under his daughter, in the minority of his grandson, drove those foreigners, the chief of whom was called Cornelius, from their works, which since that time have never been resumed. 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.

The lead mines of Scotland are very productive and profitable, and, it is said, contain great quantities of silver; but there are 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. Lime-stone is found here in great plenty, as are also free-stone and several kinds of marble.

Lapis lazuli is dug up in Lanarkshire; alum-mines have been found in Banffshire; crystal variegated pebbles, and other transparent stones, which admit of the finest polish for seals, are found in various parts; as are talc, potter's clay, and fuller's earth. The new earth of the modern mineralogists and chemists called strontian, is found in Argyleshire. No country produces greater plenty of iron ore, both in mines and stones, than Scotland; of which the proprietors now begin to reap the profits, in their founderies, as at Carron, and other metalline manufactures.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND AGRICULTURE.] The air of Scotland is more temperate than could be expected in so northerly a climate. This arises partly from the variety of its hills, valleys, rivers, and lakes; but still more, as in England, from the vicinity of the sea, which affords those warm breezes, that not only soften the natural keenness of the air, but, by keeping it in perpetual agitation, render it pure and healthful, and prevent those epidemic distempers that prevail in many other countries. In the neighbourhood of some high mountains, however, which are generally covered with snow, the air is keen and piercing for about nine months in the year. The soil in general is not so fertile as that of England; and in many places less fitted for agriculture than for pasture. At the same time, there are particular plains and valleys of the most luxuriant fertility; though experience has proved, that many vegetables and hortulane productions do not come so soon to maturity in this country as in England.

The soil of Scotland may be rendered, in many parts, nearly as fruitful as that of England. It is even said that some tracts of the Low-countries exceed in value English estates of the same extent, because they are less exhausted and worn out than those of the southern parts of the island: and agriculture is now perhaps as well understood, both in theory and practice, among many of the Scotch landlords and farmers, as it is in any part of Europe.

But the fruits of skill and industry are chiefly perceivable in the counties lying upon the river Forth, called the Lothians, where the farmers, as well as in Angus, generally rent from 3 to 500*l.* per ann. are well fed, well clothed, and comfortably lodged. The reverse, however, may be observed of a very considerable part of Scotland, where the landlords, ignorant of their real interest, refuse to grant such leases as would encourage the tenant to improve his own farm. In such places, the husbandman barely exists upon the gleanings of a scanty farm, seldom exceeding 20 or 30*l.* per ann. the cattle are lean and small, the houses mean beyond expression, and the face of the country exhibits the most deplorable marks of poverty and oppression.

VEGETABLES.] Scotland in general produces wheat, rye, barley, oats, hemp, flax, hay, and pasture. In the southern counties the finest garden fruits, particularly apricots, nectarines, and peaches, are little, if

at all, inferior to those in England; and the same may be said of the common fruits. The uncultivated parts of the Highlands abound in various kinds of salubrious and pleasant-tasted berries; though 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, which are eaten for nourishment or pleasure.

ANIMALS.] This country contains few or no kinds either of wild or domestic animals that are not common with its neighbours. The red-deer and 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 heath-cock, which is a most delicious bird, as likewise the capperkaily, and the ptarmigan, which is of the pheasant kind; but these birds are scarce even in the Highlands, and, when discovered, are very shy. Eagles and beautiful falcons are not unfrequent here, and the shores abound in various kinds of sea-fowl. The numbers of black cattle that cover the hills of Scotland towards the Highlands, and sheep that are fed upon the beautiful mountains of Tweeddale, and other parts of the south, are almost incredible; and the black cattle, when fattened on the southern pastures, have been reckoned superior to English beef.

Formerly the kings of Scotland took great pains to mend the breed of the Scotch horses, by importing a larger and more generous kind from the continent: but, 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 such care has been taken to provide them with proper food and management, that success has equalled the most sanguine expectations.

NATURAL CURIOSITIES.] Traces of ancient volcanoes are not unfrequent in Scotland. The hill of Finchaven is one instance; and the hill of Bergonium, near Dunstaffage castle, is another, yielding vast quantities of pumices or scorix of different kinds, many of which are of the same species with those of the Icelandic volcanoes. Among other natural curiosities of this country, is a heap of white stones, most of them clear like crystal, together with great quantities of oyster and other sea shells, found on the top of a mountain called Scorna-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 at the top, quickly consolidates after it drops to the bottom. Scotland, like other mountainous countries, abounds in wild and picturesque scenes, rocks, cataracts, and caverns. Of the latter there are some in Fifeshire, of extraordinary dimensions, in which inhuman cruelties are said to have been perpetrated.

POPULATION.] The population of Scotland, according to the very accurate estimate given in sir John Sinclair's Statistical Account of Scotland, was, in 1798, 1,526,492; in 1755, it was only 1,265,380; so that in 43 years it had increased 261,112. By the returns made to the Population bill, passed in 1801, the present number of inhabitants in Scotland is 1,599,068; to which if we add 8,692, the estimated number of inhabitants in the places from which no returns had been made, the total will be 1,607,760.

[NATIONAL CHARACTER, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS.] The people of Scotland are generally raw-boned, and a kind of characteristical feature, that of high cheek-bones, prevails in their faces; they are lean, but clean-limbed, and can endure incredible fatigues. Their adventurous 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 Scotch 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 prevailed there longer than in England. The family differences, especially of the Highlanders, familiarised them to blood and slaughter; and the most ferocious passions were authorised and cherished by their chieftains. Their kings, excepting some of them who were endued with extraordinary virtues, were considered only as commanders of the army in time of war; for in time of peace their civil authority was so little, that every clan or family, even in the most civilised parts of Scotland, looked upon its own chieftain as its sovereign. These prejudices 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 their hasty sentences in four-and-twenty hours after the party was apprehended. The pride which those chieftains had of outvying each other created perpetual animosities, which seldom or never ended without bloodshed; so that the common people, whose best qualification was a blind devotion to the will of their master, and the aggrandisement of his name, lived in a state of continual hostility. The late Archibald, duke of Argyle, was the first chieftain 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 can scarcely be a doubt, but that a very few years will reconcile the Highlanders to all the milder habits of society.

The gentry of Scotland who reside upon their estates, differ little, at present, in their manners and style of living from their English neighbours of the like fortunes. The peasantry have their peculiarities; their ideas are confined, but no people can form their tempers better than they do to their stations. They are taught from their infancy to bridle their passions, to behave submissively to their superiors, and live within the bounds of the most rigid economy. Hence they save their money and their constitutions; and few instances of murder, perjury, robbery, and other atrocious vices, occur at present in Scotland. They seldom enter singly upon any daring enterprise; but when they act in concert, the secrecy, sagacity and resolution, with which they carry on any desperate undertaking, is not to be paralleled; and their fidelity to one another, under the strongest temptations arising from their poverty, is still more extraordinary. Their mobs are managed with all the caution of conspiracies; witness that which put Porteus to death in 1736, in open defiance of law and government, and in the midst of 20,000 people: and though the agents were well known, and some of them apprehended and put on their trial, with a reward of 500*l.* annexed to

their conviction, yet no evidence could be found sufficient to bring them to punishment. The fidelity of the Highlanders of both sexes, under a still greater temptation, to the young pretender, after his defeat at Culloden, could scarcely be believed, were it not well attested.

They affect a fondness for the memory and language of their forefathers beyond perhaps any people in the world. They are fond of ancient Scotch dishes, such as the haggess, 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 inhabitants of most 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. Those of a lively and merry strain have been introduced into the army by the fifes, an instrument for which they are remarkably well suited. 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 country, in envy to the Scots. Their finest tunes existed in their church music, long before Rizzio's arrival; nor does it appear that Rizzio, who was chiefly 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.

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 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 body is carried in a coffin, covered by a velvet pall, with chair-poles, to the grave, where it is interred, without any oration or address to the people, or prayers, or further 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 any funeral 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 with a bat and a ball, and resembles that of the *Mull*, which was common in England in the middle of the seventeenth century. The diversion of *Curling* is, perhaps, 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 towards a mark at a certain distance; and whoever is nearest the mark is the victor. These two may be called the standing winter and summer diversions in Scotland.

The dress of the Highlanders is a kind of national characteristic, a description of which must not be omitted. The Highland plaid is composed of a woollen stuff, sometimes very fine, called *tartan*. This

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consists of various colours, forming stripes which cross each other at right angles; and the natives value themselves on the judicious arrangement, or what they call sets of those stripes and colours, which, when skilfully managed, produce a pleasing effect to the eye. Above the shirt, the Highlander wears a waistcoat of the same composition with the plaid, which commonly consists of twelve yards in width, and which they throw over the shoulder nearly in the form of a Roman toga, as represented in ancient statues; sometimes it is fastened round the middle with a leathern belt, so that part of the plaid hangs down before and behind like a petticoat, and supplies the want of breeches. This they call being dressed in a *phelig*, but the Lowlanders call it a *kilt*, which is probably the same word with Celt. Sometimes they wear a kind of petticoat of the same variegated stuff, buckled round the waist; and this they term the *phelibeg*, which seems to be of Milesian extraction. Their stockings are likewise of tartan, tied below the knee with tartan garters formed into tassels. The poorer people wear upon their feet brogues made of untanned or undressed leather; for their heads a blue flat cap is used, called a bonnet, of a particular woollen manufacture. From the belt of the *phelibeg* hung 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, a Spaniard, (which was always part of the Highland dress) seems to be no earlier than the reign of James III., who invited that excellent workman to Scotland. A large leathern purse, richly adorned with silver, hanging before, 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 Scots, 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 Highlanders 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 Lowcountry 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 the Highland regiments still retain it. Even the common people have of late resumed the use of it; and, for its lightness and the freedom it gives to the body, many of the Highland gentlemen wear it in the summer time. The dress of the higher and middle ranks of the Low-country differs little or nothing from the English; but many of the peasantry still retain the bonnet, for the cheapness and lightness of the wear.

CITIES, CHIEF TOWNS, AND EDIFICES.] Edinburgh, the capital of Scotland, naturally claims the first place under this head. The castle,

before the use of artillery, was deemed to be impregnable. It was probably built by the Saxon king Edwin, whose territory 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 Iudolphus, 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 contains a suite of rooms, generally large and commodious, for the use of a family; so that the High-street of Edinburgh, which is chiefly of hewn stone, broad, and well paved, makes a grand appearance, especially as it rises a full mile in a direct line and gradual ascent from the palace of Holyrood-house on the east, and is terminated on the west by the rude majesty of its castle, built upon a lofty rock, inaccessible on all sides, except where it joins to the city. The castle not only overlooks the city, its environs, gardens, the new town, and a fine rich neighbouring country, but commands a most extensive prospect of the river Forth, the shipping, the opposite coast of Fife, and even some hills at the distance of 40 or 50 miles, which border upon the Highlands. This crowded population, however, was so extremely inconvenient, that the English, who seldom went further into the country, returned with the deepest impression of Scotch nastiness, 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, engaging that they should not be 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, as has been already observed, at a mile's distance, stands the abbey, or rather palace, of Holy-rood house. The inner quadrangle of this palace, begun by James V. and finished by Charles I., is of magnificent modern architecture, built according to the plan and under the direction of sir William Bruce, a Scotch gentleman of family, and one of the greatest architects of that age. Round the quadrangle runs an arcade, adorned with pilasters; and the inside contains magnificent apartments. Its long gallery contains figures, some of which are from portraits, but all of them painted by modern artists, 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 scarcely a single tree in its neighbourhood.

The hospital, founded by George Herriot, goldsmith to James VI., commonly called Herriot's Work, stands to the south-west of the castle, in a noble situation. It is the finest and most regular specimen which Inigo Jones (who went to Scotland as architect to queen Anne, wife of king James VI.), has left us of his Gothic manner, and far exceeding any thing of that kind to be seen in England. One Balcanquhille, 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, improvable, 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 has been of late greatly augmented; and a museum belonging to it was given by Sir Andrew Balfour, a physician.

The Parliament Square, or, as it is there called, Close, was formerly the most ornamental part of this city: it is formed into a very noble quadrangle, part of which consists of lofty buildings; and in the middle is a fine equestrian statue of Charles II. The room built by Charles I. for the parliament-house, though not so large, is better proportioned than Westminster-hall; and its roof, though executed in the same manner, has been by good judges held to be superior. It is now converted into a court of law, where a single judge, called the lord-ordinary, presides by rotation: in a room near it sit the other judges; and adjoining are the public offices of the law, exchequer, chancery, shrievalty, and magistracy of Edinburgh; and the valuable library of the lawyers. The latter equals any thing of the kind to be found in England, or perhaps in any part of Europe, and was at first entirely founded and furnished by lawyers. The number of printed books it contains is amazing; and the collection has been made with exquisite taste and judgment. It contains likewise the most valuable manuscript remains of the Scottish history, chartularies, and other papers of antiquity, with a series of medals.

The high church of Edinburgh, called that of St. Giles, is now divided into four 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.

The modern edifices in and near Edinburgh, such as the Exchange, public offices, its hospitals, bridges, and the like, demonstrate the great improvement of the taste of the Scots in their public works. Parallel to the city of Edinburgh, on the north, the nobility, gentry, and others, have erected a new town. The streets and squares are laid out with the utmost regularity, and the houses are built with stone, in an elegant taste.

Between the old and the new town lies a narrow bottom or vale, which, agreeably to the original plan, was to have been formed into a sheet of water, bordered by a terrace-walk, and the ascent towards the new town covered with pleasure-gardens, shrubberies, &c. This design, however, has not yet been carried into execution. At the west or upper end of this vale, the castle, a solid rock, not less than twenty stories high, looks down with awful magnificence. The eastern extremity is bounded by a lofty bridge, the middle arch being ninety feet high, which joins the

new buildings to the city, and renders the descent on each side the vale (there being no water in this place) more commodious for carriages.

Edinburgh contains a playhouse, sanctioned by act of parliament; and 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. In the new town are several handsome and convenient hotels, and the coffee-houses and taverns in the old town are much improved.

Edinburgh is governed by a lord provost, four bailies, a dean of guild, and a treasurer, annually chosen from the common-council. The lord provost is colonel of the town-guard, a military institution to be found in no part of his majesty's dominions but in Edinburgh; they serve for the city watch, and patrol the streets, are useful in suppressing small commotions, and attend the execution of criminals. Besides this guard, Edinburgh raises sixteen companies of trained bands, which serve as militia. The number of inhabitants in Edinburgh, according to the returns under the late act, is 82,500. The revenues of the city consist chiefly of that tax which is now common in most of the bodies corporate in Scotland, of two Scotch pennies, amounting in the whole to two thirds of a farthing, laid on every Scotch pint of ale (containing two English quarts) consumed within the precincts of the city. Its product has been sufficient to defray the expense of supplying the city with excellent water, brought in leaden pipes from the distance of four miles; of erecting reservoirs, enlarging the harbour of Leith, and completing other public works, of great expense and utility.

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), which were fortified and bravely defended by the French, under Mary of Guise, against the English, and afterwards repaired by Cromwell. The neighbourhood of Edinburgh is adorned with noble seats, which are daily increasing: some of them yield to few in England. About four miles from Edinburgh is Roslin, noted for a stately Gothic chapel, esteemed 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.

Glasgow, in the shire of Lanark, situated on a gentle declivity sloping towards the river Clyde, 44 miles west of Edinburgh, is, for population, commerce, and riches, the second city in Scotland, and, considering its size, the first in Great Britain, and perhaps in Europe, as to elegance, regularity, and the beautiful materials of its buildings. The streets cross each other at right angles, and are broad, straight, well paved, and consequently clean. The houses make a grand appearance, and are in general four or five stories high, and many of them, towards the centre of the city, are supported by arcades, which form piazzas, and give the whole an air of magnificence. Some of the modern-built churches are in the finest style of architecture; and the cathedral is a stupendous Gothic building, hardly to be paralleled in that kind of architecture. It contains three churches, one of which stands above another, and is furnished with a very fine spire springing from a tower; the whole being reckoned a masterly and matchless fabric. It was dedicated to St. Mungo, or Kentigern, who was bishop of Glasgow in the 6th century. The cathedral is upwards of 600 years old, and was preserved from the fury of the rigid reformers by the resolution of the citizens. The town-

house is a lofty building, and has very noble apartments for the magistrates. The university is esteemed the most spacious and best built of any in Scotland. In this city are several well-endowed hospitals; and it is particularly well supplied with large and convenient inns, proper for the accommodation of strangers of any rank. In Glasgow are seven churches, and eight or ten meeting houses for sectaries of various denominations. The number of its inhabitants is 17,385.

Aberdeen may be considered as 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. It has a considerable degree of foreign commerce and much shipping, a well-frequented university, and about 20,000 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; 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. Perth was once the capital of Scotland. Here the courts of justice sat, the parliament assembled, and the king resided: it was then defended by a strong castle, and is at present one of the most regular and handsome towns in Scotland: it contains about 15,000 inhabitants. Dundee contains about 26,000 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; and 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 in an improving state.

COMMERCE, MANUFACTURES.] The trade and manufactures of Scotland are in most respects similar to those of England, though on a smaller scale, and for many years past have been rapidly improving. The chief exports are linen, grain, iron, lead, glass, woollen stuffs, soap, &c.; the imports are wines, brandy; and from the West Indies and America, rum, sugar, rice, cotton, and indigo. The total amount of the exports from Scotland in 1793 was computed at 1,024,742*l.* and the number of ships employed were 2,234.

The fisheries of Scotland have been greatly improved of late years, and send large supplies to the English and foreign markets. The busses, or vessels employed in the great herring fishery on the western coasts of Scotland, are fitted out from the north-west parts of England, the north of Ireland, as well as the numerous ports of the Clyde and neighbouring islands. The grand rendezvous is at Campbeltown, a commodious port of Argyleshire, facing the north of Ireland, where sometimes 300 vessels have been assembled. They clear out on the 12th of September, and must return to their different ports on the 13th of January. They are also under certain regulations respecting the number of tons, men, nets, &c. But though the political existence of Great Britain depends upon the number and bravery of her seamen, this fishery has hitherto laboured under many difficulties; the adventurers in it having frequently

been losers, in consequence of the bounty of 50s. per ton (since reduced to 30s.), not having been regularly paid.

The chief manufacture of Scotland is that of linen of various kinds, of which several years ago 400,000 yards were yearly whitened in one bleachery on the banks of the Tay, and the whole quantity stamped for sale in Scotland, beside what was made for private use, amounted to above seventeen millions of yards, in value nearly 500,000*l.* which quantity has been since increased. In the town of Paisley and its neighbourhood on the Clyde, the quantity of white sewing thread annually made was valued at 50,000*l.*; and that of silk gauze, which is here afforded cheaper than in any other place, at 60,000*l.*; which manufactures, together with several others, have since considerably increased, above 15,000 persons being employed and maintained by them. Of the woollen manufactures of Scotland, that of carpets appears to be the most successful and productive.

The iron works at Carron, one mile from Falkirk, are said to be the largest in Europe; above a thousand men are employed in them, and all sorts of iron goods are made from the smallest article to the largest cannon, a great quantity of which are exported to Germany, Russia, and other foreign countries. The short piece of ordnance called a cannonade was first made here, and hence received its name.

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

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 show mercy unto me and to you.”

The parliament of Scotland anciently consisted of all who held any portion of land, however small, of the crown, by military service. This parliament appointed the time of its own meetings and adjournments, 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 intrusted with the executive part of the government. And so late as the minority of James IV., who was contemporary 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 act 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; but when, on the other hand, a king of Scotland, like James III., showed 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 the 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 men out of the clergy, nobility, knights, and burgesses. The bishops, for instance, chose eight peers, and the peers eight bishops; and these 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 the 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 are ignorant when it took place. The Scots, however, never lost sight of their original principles; and though Charles I. wished 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 well they understood the principles of liberty, by omitting 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 of Scotland had groaned under the most insupportable ministerial tyranny ever since the Restoration. If it be asked, Why did they submit to that tyranny?—the answer is, In order to preserve that independency of England, which Cromwell and his parliament endeavoured to destroy by uniting them with England. They therefore chose rather to submit to a temporary 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, marquises, earls, and lords, were by the king made hereditary members 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, were so prevalent, and the rescue of the great criminal was commonly so much apprehended, that seldom above two days passed between the sentence and execution.

Great uncertainty occurs in the Scottish history, by confounding parliaments with conventions: the difference was, that a parliament could enact laws as well as impose taxes; a convention, or meeting of the states, only met for the purpose 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 this office was only during the king's pleasure, yet it was very lucrative by the disposal of the 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 division. The lord advocate's office resembles that of the attorney-general in England, only his powers are far more extensive; because, by the Scottish laws, he is the prosecutor of all capital crimes before the judiciary, 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 hath 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 which will hereafter be mentioned, 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 fœcialium, or grand herald of Scotland, is still in being; and it was formerly an office of great splendour and importance, insomuch that the science of heraldry was preserved there in greater purity than in any other country in Europe. This officer 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 in Scotland are chiefly cognisable 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 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. 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 surprise, that the Scots were so tenacious of the forms of their court, and the essence of their laws, as to reserve them by the articles of the Union. This, however, may 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. The lords of council and session act likewise as a court of equity; but their decrees are (fortunately perhaps for the subject) reversible by the British house of lords, to which an appeal lies. The supreme criminal judge was named the Justiciar, and the court of justiciary succeeded to his power.

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, removable at the king's pleasure, was appointed. This lucrative office still exists in the person of one of the chief nobility; but the ordinary members of the court are the justice-clerk and five other judges, who are always nominated from the lords of session. In this court the verdict of a jury condemns or acquits; but, as has been already hinted, without the necessity of their being unanimous.

Besides these two great courts of law, the Scots, by the articles of the Union, have a court of exchequer. 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 revenue there; and all matters and things competent to the court of exchequer in 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 its jurisdiction can be meddled with, in the first instance, but by the lord high-admiral and judges of his court. Sentences passed in all inferior courts of admiralty may be brought again before this court: but no appeal lies from it to the lords of the session, or any other judicatory, unless in cases not maritime. Causes are tried in this court by the civil law, which in some 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 Scottish lawyers. They are within themselves an orderly court, and their forms require great precision and examination to qualify the 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 by-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 hereditary; but by act of parliament, they are now all vested in the crown; it being 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 stewardry, 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 office *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.

Stewardries 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 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 commissaries in Scotland answer to 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 nearly 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 cognisance of riots till fifteen days after the fact.

The institution of coroner is as old as the reign of Malcolm II. the great legislator of Scotland, who lived before the Norman invasion of England. They took cognisance of all breaches of the king's peace;

and they were required to have clerks to register depositions and matters of fact, as well as verdicts of jurors; the office, however, is at present, much disused in Scotland.

The legal punishments in Scotland are nearly the same as in England, only that of beheading is performed by an instrument called the Maiden, which resembles the French guillotine; and of which the model was brought from Halifax in England, to Scotland, by the regent, earl Morton; where it was first used for the execution of himself.

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 allege, 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, 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 burg, to consult upon the common good of the whole. Their powers are 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 manufactures, such as plaiding, linen, and yarn; to the curing and packing of fish, salmon, and herrings, and to the importing and exporting several commodities. The trade between Scotland and the Netherlands was subject to their regulation; they fixed the staple port, which was formerly at Dort, and afterwards at Campvere. Their conservator is indeed nominated by the crown; but then 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.

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 practice; and their acts of *scderunt* answer to the English rules of court; the Scottish wadsetts and reversions, to the English mortgages and defeasances; their pointing of goods, 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. There was in particular an ancient custom, which proves the similarity between the English and Scottish constitutions. In old times, all the freeholders in Scotland met together in presence of the king, who was seated on the top of a hillock, which, in the old Scottish constitution, was called the Moot, or Mute-hill; all national affairs were here transacted, judgements given, and differences ended. This Moot-hill was probably of the same nature as the Saxon Folcmote, and signified only the hill of meeting.

[ORDER OF THE THISTLE.] This is a military order instituted, as the Scotch writers assert, by their king Achaius, in the ninth century, upon his making an offensive and defensive league with Charlemagne, king of France; or, as others say, on account of his victory over Athelstan,

king of England, when he vowed in the kirk of St. Andrew, that he and his posterity should ever bear in their ensigns the figure of that cross on which the saint suffered. It has been frequently neglected, and as often resumed. It consists of the sovereign and twelve companions, who are called Knights of the Thistle, and have on their ensiga this significant motto, *Nemo me impune lacesset*, "None shall safely provoke me."

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

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

The Culdees long maintained their original manners, and remained a distinct order, notwithstanding the oppression of the Romish clergy, till the age of Robert Bruce in the 14th century, when they disappeared.

Soon after the power of the pope in England was destroyed by Henry VIII. a similar reformation began in Scotland, in the reign of James V. : it made great progress under that of his daughter Mary, and was completed through the preaching of John Knox, who had adopted the doctrines of Calvin, and was the chief reformer of Scotland.

The religion at present established by law in Scotland, differs chiefly from that of the church of England, in having for its fundamental principle a parity of rank and authority among its clergy; all its ecclesiastics, or presbyters, being equal in dignity, and forming among themselves a kind of ecclesiastical commonwealth of the democratic species. It agrees with the reformed churches abroad in its opposition to popery; but 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 great 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 were extremely jealous of their being revived. 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 extravagancy 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. 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 protestant schools erected by act of parliament in North Britain, and the western isles; and the Scotch clergy, of late, have instituted funds for the support of their widows and orphans. The number of parishes in Scotland is 941, of which 31 are collegiate churches, that is, where the cure is served by more than one minister.

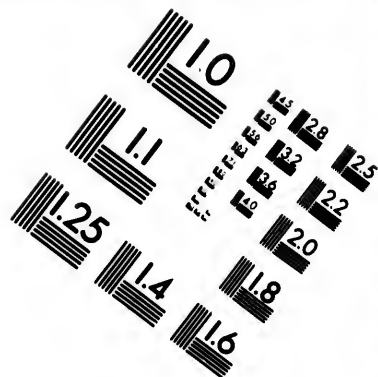
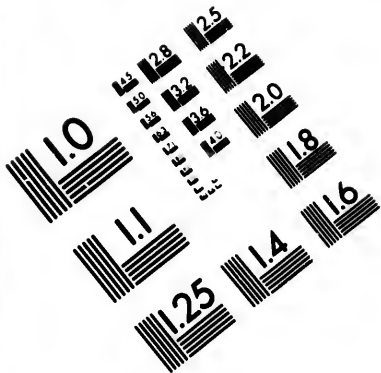
The highest ecclesiastical authority in Scotland is the general assembly, which we may call the ecclesiastical parliament of Scotland. It consists of commissioners, some of whom are laymen, under the title of ruling elders, from presbyteries, royal burghs, and universities. A presbytery, consisting of less than twelve ministers, sends two ministers and one ruling elder; if it contain between twelve and eighteen ministers, it sends three, and one ruling elder; if it contain between eighteen and twenty-four ministers, it sends four ministers and two ruling elders; but if the presbytery have 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. These commissioners are chosen yearly, six weeks before the meeting of the assembly. The ruling elders are often persons of the first quality of the country. The king presides by his commissioner (who is always a nobleman) in this assembly, which meets annually in May; but he has no voice in their deliberations. This assembly chooses a clergyman for its moderator, or speaker. Appeals are brought from all the other ecclesiastical courts in Scotland to the general assembly; and no appeal lies from its determination 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.

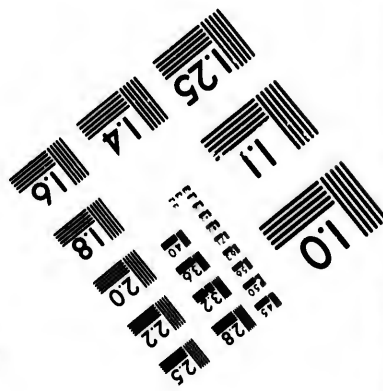
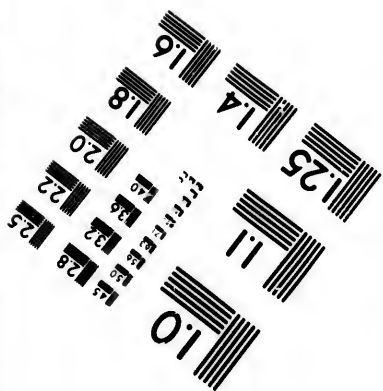
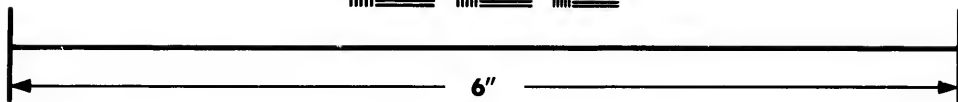
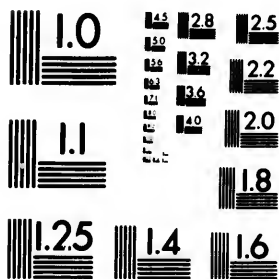
Subordinate to the synods, are presbyteries, of which there are sixty-nine in Scotland, each consisting of a number of contiguous parishes. The ministers of these parishes, with one ruling elder chosen half yearly out of every session, compose a presbytery. These presbyteries meet in the head town of that division, but have no jurisdiction beyond their own bounds, though within these they have cognisance 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 ministers, elders, and deacons. The deacons are laymen, and





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act nearly as churchwardens 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. The elders are supposed to act in a kind of co-ordinacy 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 sacrament, catechise, pronounce church censures, ordain deacons and ruling elders, assist at the imposition of hands upon other ministers, and moderate or preside in all ecclesiastical judicatories.

The established religion of Scotland formerly partook of all the austerities of Calvinism, and of too much of the intolerance of popery: but at present it is mild and gentle; and the sermons and other theological writings of many of the modern Scotch divines are equally distinguished by good sense and moderation. In the Low-lands there are a great number of congregations who dissent from the presbyterian establishment and doctrines in several particulars, and are called Seceders. These are again subdivided into Burghers and Anti-burghers. They maintain their own preachers, though scarcely any two congregations agree either in principle or practice with each other.

The other dissenters, in Scotland, consist of the episcopalians, a few quakers, many baptists, and other sectaries, who are denominated from their preachers. Episcopacy, from the time of the Restoration in 1660, to that of the Revolution in 1689, was the established religion 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 recognise king William's title. The partisans of that unhappy prince retained the episcopal religion: and king William's government was rendered so unpopular in Scotland, that in queen Anne's time, the episcopalians were more numerous in some parts than the presbyterians; and their meetings, which they held under the act of toleration, as well attended. A Scotch episcopalian thus becoming another name for a Jacobite, they received some checks after the rebellion in 1715; but they recovered themselves so well, that, at the breaking out of the rebellion in 1745, they became again numerous; after which the government found means to invalidate the acts of their clerical order. Their meetings, however, still subsist, but thinly; the decline of the nonjurors 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 government.

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

Scotland, during the time of episcopacy, contained two archbishoprics, St. Andrew's and Glasgow; and twelve bishoprics, Edinburgh, Dunkeld, Aberdeen, Murray, Brechin, Dumblain, Roth, Caithness, Orkney, Galloway, Argyle, and the Isles.

[LITERATURE.] For this article we may refer to the literary history of Europe for 1400 years past. The western parts and isles of Scotland produced St. Patrick, the celebrated apostle of Ireland. The writings

of Adamnanus, and other authors who lived before and at the time of the Norman invasion, which are still extant, are specimens of early Scotch learning. Charles the Great, or Charlemagne, most unquestionably held a correspondence by letters with the kings of Scotland, with whom he entered into a league; and employed Scots 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 Scottish poet, philosopher, and historian, though prior in time to Chaucer, having flourished in the year 1368, wrote, according to the modern ideas, as pure English as that bard; and his versification is perhaps more harmonious. The destruction of the Scottish monuments of learning and antiquity has rendered their early annals lame, and often fabulous; but the Latin style of Buchanan's history is equal in classical purity to that of any modern productions. The letters of the Scottish kings to the neighbouring princes are incomparably the finest compositions of the times in which they were written, and are free from the barbarisms of those sent them in answer. This has been considered as a proof that classical learning was more cultivated at the court of Scotland than at any other in Europe.

The discovery of the logarithms, a discovery which in point of ingenuity and utility may vie with any that has been made in modern times, is the indisputable right of Napier of Merchistone. And since his time, the mathematical sciences have been cultivated in Scotland with great success. Keil, in his physico-mathematical works, to the clearness of his reasoning, has sometimes added the colouring of a poet. Of all writers on astronomy, Gregory is allowed to be one of the most perfect and elegant. Maclaurin, the companion and the friend of sir Isaac Newton, was endowed with all that precision and force of mind which rendered him peculiarly fitted for bringing down the ideas of that great man to the level of ordinary apprehensions, and for diffusing that light through the world which Newton had confined within the sphere of the learned. His Treatise on Fluxions is regarded by the best judges in Europe as the clearest account of the most refined and subtle speculations on which the human mind ever exerted itself with success. While Maclaurin pursued this new career, a geometrician no less famous distinguished himself in the almost deserted track of antiquity. This was the late Dr. Simpson, so well known for his illustrations of the ancient geometry. His Elements of Euclid, and, above all, his Conic Sections, are sufficient of themselves to establish the scientific reputation of his native country.

In the department of history the highest celebrity has been acquired by Scottish writers. Hume was the first who, with any pretensions to classical elegance, wrote the history of England. Dr. Robertson began his literary career of glory with the history of his own country. This was followed by that of all Europe, in the reign of the emperor Charles V. The captivating account of the discovery of America was next presented to the world; and an historical disquisition concerning India was the last production of this philosophical historian. To Dr. Henry his country and the world are indebted for a history of Great Britain, on a plan entirely new, in which he has brought within one glance of the eye every thing interesting in the civil history, constitution, learning, arts, commerce, and manners of the people, from the earliest authenticity. The investigations of Dr. Adam Smith on the subject of national wealth and politics, have perhaps never been equalled;

and the moral philosophy of Hutcheson will be allowed, even by its opponents, to be ingenious and plausibly supported.

In medicine the names Pitcairn, Arbuthnot, Monro, Smellie, Whytt, Cullen, Brown, and Gregory, hold a distinguished place. Nor have the Scots been unsuccessful in cultivating the belles lettres. Foreigners who inhabit warmer climates, and conceive the northern nations incapable of tenderness and feeling, are astonished at the poetic genius and delicate sensibility of Thomson, and the various powers of Armstrong, Beattie, and Burns.

UNIVERSITIES.] The universities of Scotland are four—that of St. Andrews, founded by bishop Wardlaw, in 1411: it consists of three colleges, two of which are now united, and in which, some years ago, the number of students was said to be only 100; that of Glasgow, founded by bishop Turnbull, in 1453, containing between five and six hundred students; that of Aberdeen, consisting of two colleges, in the old town, founded by bishop Elphinstone, in the year 1500, and one in the new town, founded by George Keith, fifth earl-marshal, in 1593; and that of Edinburgh, founded by James VI., in 1580, which usually contains about 1000 students. The old buildings of this university having fallen to decay, the foundation of a new edifice, to which our most gracious sovereign has been a very liberal benefactor, was laid in 1789, and may be expected soon to be completed on such an elegant and magnificent plan, as shall render it a noble monument of national munificence and taste.

LANGUAGE.] The Earse or Gaëlic, a dialect of the Celtic, nearly the same with the Irish, is still spoken in the Highlands; but the language of the Low-countries, which is of the same origin with the English, is continually extending. The English and Scotch are written in the same manner; and the pronunciation of the latter is scarcely more different from that of London than we find it in many of the northern and western English counties.

ANTIQUITIES.] The Roman and other antiquities found in Scotland have of themselves furnished matter for large volumes. The stations of the Roman legions, their castella, the prætences or walls reaching across the island, have been traced with great precision by antiquaries and historians; so that, without some new 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, however, may be proper. The course of the Roman wall, (or, as it is called by the country people, *Graham's Dyke*, from a tradition that a Scottish warrior of that name first broke over it), 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, recorded by Tacitus, with the Caledonian king 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 may, it certainly is the most entire and best preserved of any Roman antiquity of that kind in North Britain, having no less than five rows of ditches and six ramparts on the south side; and of the four gates which lead in-

to the area, three are very distinct and plain, viz. the prætoriana, decumana, and dextra.

The Roman temple, or building in the form of the Pantheon at Rome, or of the dome of St. Paul's at London, stood upon the banks of the river Carron in Stirlingshire, but was barbarously demolished by a neighbouring Goth, 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 complete 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 prætoriana which bounded the Roman empire in Britain to the north. Near it are some artificial conical mounds of earth, which still retain the name of Duni-pace, or Duni-pacis; which serve to prove that there was a kind of solemn compromise between the Romans and the Caledonians, that the former should not extend their empire farther to the northward.

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 wall, where, however, it does not appear that they made any establishment. By the inscriptions found near the wall, 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 or stupendous fabrics remain in Ross-shire; but whether they are Danish, Pictish, or Scottish, does not appear. They are, perhaps, Norwegian or Scandinavian structures, and built about the fifth century, to favour the descents of that people upon those coasts.

Two Pictish monuments, as they have been supposed 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 the 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 sixty regular courses of hewn free-stone, laid circularly, and regularly tapering towards the top. If these columns are really Pictish, that people must have had among them architects who far exceeded those of any coeval monuments to be found in Europe, as they have all the appearance of an order; and the building is neat, and in the Roman style of architecture. It is, however, difficult to assign them to any but the Picts, as they stand in their dominions: and some sculptures upon that at Brechin denote it to be of Christian origin. It is not indeed impossible that these sculptures are of a later date. Besides these two pillars, many other Pictish buildings are found in Scotland, but not in the same style.

The vestiges of erections by the ancient 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, by 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 are 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. Many other historical monuments of the Scots have been discovered; but it must be acknowledged that the obscurity of their sculptures has opened a field of boundless and frivolous conjectures, so that the interpretations of many of them are often fanciful. Among these the stone near the town of Forress, or Fortrose, in Murray, far surpasses all the others in magnificence and grandeur, "and is," says Mr. Gordon, "perhaps one of the most stately monuments of that kind in Europe. It rises about 23 feet in height above ground, and is, as I am credibly informed, no less than 12 or 15 feet below; so that the whole height is at least 35 feet, and its breadth near five. It is all one single and entire stone; great variety of figures in relief are carved on it, and some of them are still distinct and visible; but the injury of the weather has obscured those towards the upper part." Though this monument has been generally considered as Danish, yet it is not improbable that it is Scottish, and 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 Norman invasion.

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

The ruins of the cathedral of Elgin are very striking; and many parts of that fine building have still the remains of much grandeur and dignity in them. The west door is highly ornamented; there is much elegance in the carvings, and the whole edifice displays very elaborate workmanship.

Among the remains of ancient castles, may be mentioned Kildrumy castle in the north of Scotland, which was formerly a place of great strength and magnificence, and often used as an asylum to noble families in times of civil war. Inverurie castle, the ancient seat of the earl-mareschals of Scotland, is also a large and lofty pile, situated on a steep bank of the river: two very high towers bound the front, and, even in their decaying state, give the castle an air of much grandeur and antiquity. Long rows of venerable trees, inclosing the adjoining garden, add to the effect of the decayed buildings. Near the town of Huntley are the ruins of Huntley castle. On the avenue that leads to it, are two large square towers, which had defended the gateway. The castle seems to be very old, and a great part of it is demolished; but there is a massy building of a more modern date, in which some of the apartments, and in particular, their curious ceilings, are still in tolerable preservation. They are painted with a great variety of subjects, in small divisions, in which are contained many emblematical figures.

Besides these remains of Roman, Pictish, Danish, and Scottish 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 on so large a scale 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 re-

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sembles the figure of a ship with the keel uppermost. The common people call it Ternay, which some interpret to be *terra navis*, the ship of earth. It seems to be of the most remote antiquity, and perhaps was erected to the memory of some British prince, who acted as auxiliary to the Romans; for it is situate near Auchterarder, not many miles distant from the great scene of Agricola's operations.

[HISTORY.] Though the writers of ancient Scottish history are too fond of fable, yet it is easy to collect, from the Roman authors, and other evidences, that Scotland was formerly inhabited by different people. The Caledonians appear to have been the first inhabitants; the Picts probably were the Britons who were forced northwards by the Belgic Gauls, about fourscore years before the ascent of Julius Cæsar, and who, settling in Scotland, were joined by great numbers of their countrymen, that were driven northwards by the Romans. The tract lying southward 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.

It does not appear that the Caledonians, the ancient Celtic inhabitants of Scotland, were attacked by any of the Roman generals before Agricola, anno 79. 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 toward 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 evident, however, that Tacitus thought it for the honour of Agricola to conceal some parts of this war; for though he makes his countrymen victorious, yet they certainly returned southward to the province of Horesti, which was the county of Fife, without improving their advantage.

Galdus, otherwise called Corbred, was, according to the Scottish historians, the twenty-first in a lineal descent from Fergus I., the founder of their monarchy; and though this genealogy has 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 præentures or walls, one between the Friths of Clyde and Forth already mentioned, and the other between Tinmouth and the Solway-Frith, which is described in our account of England, to defend the Romans from the Caledonians and Scots; and which prove 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 had at this time gained a footing in Scotland; and, being often defeated by the ancient inhabitants, joined the Romans against the Scots and Caledonians, who were of the same original, and considered themselves as one people; so that the Scots 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 the Romans left Britain in 1448, 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 walls, 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 sword of the barbarians: for so all nations were called who were not Romans, 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 descending 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 civilising the vast dominions of that great conqueror, as has been already observed under the article Literature. 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 names, 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 east; 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 who then governed England 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 Gaëlic words which signify a *large head*, but most probably from 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 Shakspeare, 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 cotemporary the Norman conqueror, with whom he was often at war. He married Margaret, daughter to Edward, surnamed the Outlaw, son to Edmund Ironside, king of England. By the death of her brother, Edgar Atheling, the Saxon right to the crown of England 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, 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 wise and valiant prince; he was succeeded by Alexander I., and, upon his death, David I. mounted the throne.

David was one of the greatest princes of that age, whether we regard him as a man, a warrior, or a legislator. 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 nearly on an equality with that of England. The code of laws 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 Melross. He was succeeded by his grandson, Malcolm IV., and he by William, surnamed, from his valour, The Lion. 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 bore 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.

This detail has been given, because it is connected with great events. Upon the death of Alexander III., John Baliol, who was great-grandson to David, earl of Huntingdon, by his eldest daughter Margaret; and Robert Bruce (grandfather to the great king Robert Bruce), grandson to the same earl of Huntingdon by his youngest daughter Isabel; became competitors for the crown of Scotland. The laws of succession, which were not 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 inter-regnum of some years, the great nobility agreed in referring the decision to Edward I. of England, the most politic and ambitious prince of his age. He accepted the office of arbitrator: 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, he awarded it to him; but afterwards dethroned him, and treated him as a slave, without Baliol's resenting it.

After this, Edward used many endeavours to annex the crown of Scotland to his own, which were often defeated; and though for a short time he made himself master of Scotland, yet the Scots were ready to revolt against him on every favourable opportunity. Those who were so zealously attached to the independency of their country, as to be resolved to hazard every thing for it, were indeed but few, compared to those in the interest of Edward and Baliol, which was the same: and for some time they were obliged to temporise. Edward availed himself of their weakness and his own power. He accepted of a formal surrender of the crown of Baliol, to whom he allowed a pension, but detained him in England; and sent every nobleman in Scotland, whom he in the least suspected, to different prisons in or near London. He then forced the Scots to sign instruments acknowledging their subjection to him; and

most barbarously carried off or destroyed all the monuments of their history, and the evidence of their independency; and particularly the famous fatidical or prophetic stone, which is still to be seen in Westminster Abbey.

These severe 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 caress them, and affected to treat them on a footing of equality with his own subjects, by projecting a union, the chief articles of which have since taken place between the two kingdoms. The Scotch patriots treated this project with disdain, and united under the brave William Wallace, to expel the English. Wallace performed actions that entitled him to eternal renown, in executing this 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 Surry, Edward's viceroy of Scotland, in the battle of Stirling; 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 numerous and best disciplined army England had ever seen; for it consisted of 80,000 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; Edward, however, 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 into the hands of Edward, who most ungenerously put him to death at London, as a traitor. Edward died as he was preparing to renew his invasion of Scotland with a still more desolating spirit of ambition, after having destroyed 100,000 of her inhabitants.

Bruce died soon after the battle of Falkirk, but not before he had inspired his son, who was a prisoner at large about the English court, with the glorious resolution of vindicating his own rights, and the independence of his country. 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 of Methven. After his defeat, he fled with one or two friends to the western isles and parts of Scotland, where his fatigues and sufferings were as extreme, as the courage with which he and his few friends bore them (the lord Douglas especially) was incredible. Though his wife and daughters were sent prisoners to England, where the best of his friends and two of his brothers were put to death, yet such was his persevering spirit, that he recovered all Scotland, excepting the castle of Stirling, and improved every advantage that was given him by the dissipated conduct of Edward II.; who raised an army more

numerous and better appointed than that of his father, to make a total conquest of Scotland. It is said that it consisted of 100,000 men, though this has been supposed to be an exaggerated computation: however, it is admitted that the army of Bruce did not exceed 30,000; but all of them veterans, who had been bred up in a detestation of tyranny.

Edward, who was not deficient in courage, led his powerful army towards Stirling, then besieged by Bruce, who had chosen, with the greatest judgment, a camp near Bannockburn. 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 exceedingly furious, 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 amount to 50,000 men. 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 Scots; and Edward himself, with a few followers, was 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.

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 were they 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, made an advantageous peace with England; and died in 1328, with the character of being the greatest hero of the 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 eager as any of his predecessors to effect the conquest of Scotland, espoused the cause of Baliol, son to Baliol the original competitor. His progress at first was amazingly rapid, and he and Edward defeated the royal party in many bloody battles; but Baliol was at last driven out of his usurped kingdom by the Scottish 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, paid 100,000 marks 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 its head having been married to the daughter of Robert I. The first king of that name was Robert II., a wise 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 confide the government to his brother, the duke of Albany, an ambitious prince, who seems to have had an intention to procure the crown for his own family. 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 against England, and their generals obtained some of the first titles of the kingdom.

James, the first of that name, upon his return to Scotland, discovered great talents for government, enacted many wise laws, and was beloved by the people. He had received an excellent education in England during the reigns of Henry IV. and V., where he saw the feudal system refined from many of the imperfections which still adhered to it in his own kingdom; he determined therefore to abridge the overgrown power of the nobles, and to recover such lands as had been unjustly wrested from the crown during his minority and the preceding reigns: but the execution of these designs cost him his life; he being murdered in his bed by some of the chief nobility in 1437, and the forty-fourth year of his age.

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.

Suspicion, indolence, immoderate attachment to females, and many of the errors of a feeble mind, are visible in the conduct of James III.; and his turbulent reign was closed by a rebellion of his subjects, being slain in battle in 1488, aged thirty-five.

His son, James IV. was the most accomplished prince of the age: he was naturally generous and brave: he loved magnificence, he delighted in war, and was eager to obtain fame. He encouraged and protected the commerce of his subjects, so that they greatly increased in riches; and the court of James, at the time of his marriage with the daughter of Henry VII. was splendid and respectable. Even this alliance could not cure him of his family distemper, a predilection for the French; into whose cause he rashly entered, and was killed, with the flower of his nobility, by the English, in the battle of Flodden, anno 1513, and the fortieth 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 instituted the court of session, enacted many salutary laws, and greatly promoted the trade of Scotland, particularly the working of the mines. At this time the balance of power was so equally poised between the contending princes of Europe, that James's friendship was courted by the pope, the emperor, the king of France, and his uncle Henry VIII. of England, from all whom he received magnificent presents. But James took little share in foreign affairs; he seemed rather to imitate his predecessors in their attempts to humble the nobility: and the doctrines of the reformation beginning to be propagated in Scotland, he permitted, at the instigation of the clergy, a religious persecution; though it is generally believed, that, had he lived longer, he would have seized all the church revenues, in imitation of Henry. Having rather slighted

some friendly overtures made to him by the king of England, and thereby given great umbrage to that prince, a war at length broke out between them. A large army, under the command of the duke of Norfolk, entered Scotland, and ravaged the country north of the Tweed. After this short expedition, the English army retired to Berwick. Upon this the king of Scotland sent ten thousand men to the western borders, who entered England at Solway-Firth; and he himself followed them at a small distance, ready to join them upon occasion. He soon after gave great offence to the nobility and the army, by imprudently depriving their general, lord Maxwell, of his commission, and conferring the command on Oliver Sinclair, a private gentleman, who was his favourite. The army were so much disgusted with this alteration, that they were ready to disband, when a small body of English horse appeared, not exceeding five hundred. A panic seized the Scots, who immediately took to flight, supposing themselves to be attacked by the whole body of the English army. The English horse, seeing them flee with such precipitation, closely pursued them, and slew great numbers; taking prisoners seven lords, two hundred gentlemen, and eight hundred soldiers, with twenty-four pieces of ordnance. This disaster so much affected king James, that it threw him into a fit of illness, of which he soon after died, on the 14th of December, 1542.

His daughter and successor, Mary, was but a few hours old at the time of her father's death. Her beauty, her misconduct, and her misfortunes, are alike famous in history. It is sufficient here to say, that during her minority, and while she was wife to Francis II. of France, the reformation advanced in Scotland; that being called to the throne of her ancestors while a widow, she married her own cousin-german, the lord Darnley, whose untimely death has given rise to so much controversy. The consequence of her husband's death, and of her marriage with Bothwell, who was considered as his murderer, was an insurrection of her subjects, from whom she fled into England, where she was ungenerously detained a prisoner for eighteen years, and afterwards, on motives of state-policy, beheaded by queen Elizabeth in 1587, in the forty-sixth year of her age.

Mary's son, James VI. of Scotland, succeeded, in right of his blood from Henry VII., upon the death of queen Elizabeth, to the English crown, after manifesting considerable abilities in the government of Scotland. This union of the two crowns, in fact, destroyed the independence, 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 situations 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. That prince by his despotic principles and conduct induced both his Scottish and English subjects to take up arms against him; and, indeed, it was in Scotland that the sword was first drawn against Charles. But when the royal party was totally defeated in England, the king put himself into the power of the Scottish army; they at first treated him with respect, but afterwards delivered him up to the English parliament, on condition of their paying 400,000 pounds to the Scots, which was said to be due to them for arrears. However, the Scots afterwards made several bloody but unsuccessful attempts to restore his son, Charles II. That prince was finally defeated by Cromwell, at the battle of Worcester, 1651; after which, to the time of his

restoration, the common-wealth of England and the protector gave law to Scotland.

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 through the effects 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.

ISLES OF SCOTLAND.

THE isles of Scotland consist of three clusters; the Hebrides*, or Western Islands, the Orkneys, and the Islands of Shetland.

The WESTERN ISLANDS, or HEBRIDES, are situate on the north-west coast of Scotland, between 35 and 59 degrees of north latitude, and are supposed to exceed 300 in number; but there are not more than thirty whose sizes render them deserving notice. Of these the principal are Arran, Ilay, Jura, Mull, Skye, Lewis and Harris which form one island, North Uist, and South Uist, Iona or Icolm-kill, Staffa, and Hirta or St. Kilda.

The isle of Arran is about twenty-four miles in length, and where widest about fourteen in breadth. It consists chiefly of a series of rough and broken mountains, from one of the highest summits of which, named Goatfell, in the centre of the island, the view extends at once to Ireland and the Isle of Man, and even into South Britain. There are several rivulets and four or five lakes of fresh water in this island. The number of inhabitants is about 7,000, and the chief place the village of Ranza. This island with the island of Bute, which is about twelve miles long and four broad, and some others of inconsiderable size, constitute the county or shire of Bute. The chief town of Bute is Rothsay, which has a castle, and 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. The number of inhabitants in the island of Bute is about 4,000.

The island of Ilay is twenty-four miles long and nearly eighteen broad. The soil is good, and might by industry be rendered extremely productive. The whole island is the property of Mr. Campbell of Shawfield. A lead mine was discovered here in 1703. The number of inhabitants is about 7,000.

Jura, about thirty miles long and seven or eight broad, is separated from Ilay by a narrow sound from one to four miles broad. It is one of the most rugged of the Western Islands, which are in general mountainous. The mountains called the paps of Jura, which are a range of eminences of a conical form, present a singular appearance. One of them has been found to have an elevation of 850 yards, though it is greatly exceeded in height by the loftiest, named Ben-an-Oir. The number of inhabitants is supposed to be not more than 1,000.

* Anciently called the *Hebudes*. The origin of the modern name Hebrides is not known, except it be a corruption of *Hebudes*.

The isle of Mull is nearly thirty miles long, and in some places almost as broad. It is very rugged and mountainous, like the other western isles. It contains two parishes, but only one village, named Tobermory, near the northern part of the island, where a fishing station has lately been erected. There are several ruins of ancient castles in this island. The number of inhabitants is between five and six thousand.

The isle of Skye is the largest of the Hebrides, being about fifty miles in length, and, in some places, above twenty broad. It abounds, especially in the interior parts, in rocks, mountains, and bogs. The inhabitants are about 15,000 in number. This island forms a part of Inverness-shire.

Long island, to the westward of Skye, consists of two peninsulas, the northern of which is denominated Lewes, and the southern Harris. The extent of both these together is about ninety miles in length, and ten or twelve, and in some parts twenty, miles in breadth. The isles of North Uist, South Uist, and Barra, continue this chain of islands to the south 110 miles more, including about sixteen miles of water. The number of inhabitants in them all is about 20,000; the only town is Stornoway, in the east part of Lewes, a considerable and flourishing place, with an excellent harbour, and containing above 2,000 inhabitants. At the village of Classerness, in the southern part of the same peninsula, is a Druidical temple, as well preserved and perfect, though not of such large dimensions, as that of Stonehenge.

The celebrated island of Iona or Hyona, called also Hui or Hy, and I Coluim Kill, or the Isle of Columba's church, 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. 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, Irish, and Norwegian kings, with some Gaëlic inscriptions. The tomb of Columba, who lies buried here, is uninscribed. The steeple is large, the cupola is 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 which give countenance to the well-known observation, that, when learning was nearly extinct on the continent of Europe, it found a refuge in Scotland, or rather in these islands.

Staffa, situate ten miles to the north-east of Iona, is a small island, only one mile long and half a mile broad, and inhabited by a single family. It is, however, remarkable for consisting of one entire pile of basaltic pillars, arranged in natural colonnades wonderfully magnificent. Mr. Banks, now Sir Joseph Banks, in relating his voyage through the Hebrides, in 1772, says: "We were no sooner arrived than we were struck with a scene of magnificence which exceeded our expectations, though founded, as we thought, upon the most sanguine foundations: the whole of that end of the island (Staffa) supported by ranges of natural pillars, mostly above fifty feet high, standing in natural colonnades, according as the bays or points of land formed themselves: upon a firm basis of solid unformed rock, above these, the stratum which reaches to the soil or surface of the island, varied in thickness as the island itself formed into hills or valleys; each hill, which hung over the columns below, forming an ample pediment; some of these, above sixty feet in thickness from the base to the point, formed, by the sloping of the hill on each side, almost in the shape of those used in architecture."

The cave of Fingal, a vast and magnificent cavern in this island, 374

feet long, 53 broad, and 117 high, composed of such pillars, is thus described by Mr. Banks.—“ We proceeded along the shore, treading upon another *Giants' Causeway*, every stone being regularly formed into a certain number of sides and angles; till, in a short time, we arrived at the mouth of a cave, the most magnificent, I suppose, that has ever been described by travellers. The mind can hardly form an idea more magnificent than such a space, supported on each side by ranges of columns, and roofed by the bottoms of those which have been broken off in order to form it: between the angles of which a yellow stalagmitic matter has exuded, which serves to define the angles precisely, and at the same time vary the colour, with a great deal of elegance; and to render it still more agreeable, the whole is lighted from without; so that the farthest extremity is very plainly seen from without; and the air within, being agitated with the flux and reflux of the tide, is perfectly dry and wholesome, free entirely from the damp of vapours, with which natural caverns in general abound.”

To the north-west of Mull are the islands of Tirey and Col; the former of which produces a beautiful marble of a rose colour. Tirey is level and fertile, but Col is rocky, or rather, as Dr. Johnson has observed, one continued rock covered with a thin layer of earth. This latter island is about thirteen miles long and three broad, and contains about 800 inhabitants.

Hirta, or St. Kilda, is the most western island of the Hebrides, and is three miles long and two broad. The soil is fertile, but the arable land scarcely exceeds eighty acres, though by industry more might be added. The mountain or rock of Congara, in this island, is accounted the Tene-riff of the British islands, its height above the level of the sea being 1800 yards. The whole island is surrounded with the most tremendous rocks, and has only one landing-place, and even there it is impossible to land except in calm weather. About twenty-seven families reside here, in a small village on the eastern side of the island. These people display the most astonishing courage and dexterity in climbing the dreadful precipices in quest of sea-fowls and their eggs, which furnish them with food during a great part of the year. The multitudes of these birds are prodigious, the rocks round the island being so covered with them that they appear like mountains covered with snow; yet they so intirely disappear in November, that from the middle of that month to the middle of February not one is to be seen. The people of the Hebrides are clothed and live like the Scotch Highlanders. They are similar in persons, constitutions, customs, and prejudices; but with this difference, that the more polished manners of the Lowlanders are every day gaining ground in the Highlands. Perhaps the descendants of the ancient Caledonians, in a few years, will be discernible only in the Hebrides.

Those islands alone retain the ancient usages of the Celts, as described by the oldest and best authors; but with a strong tincture of the feudal constitution. Their shanachies, or story-tellers, supply the place of the ancient bards, so famous in history; and are the historians, or rather 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 of the English minstrels of former times, but, as it is said, much more sumptuously. Notwithstanding the contempt into which that music is fallen, it is almost incredible with what care and attention it was cultivated among these islanders so late as the beginning of the last century. They had regular col-

leges and professors, and the students took degrees according to their proficiency. Many of the Celtic rites, some of which were too barbarous to be retained or even mentioned, are 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 those connexions, which experience has shown to be so dangerous to government. The common people are but little better lodged than the Norwegians and Laplanders: though they certainly fare better; for they have oatmeal, plenty of fish and fowl, cheese, butter, milk and whey; and also mutton, beef, goat, kid, and venison. They indulge themselves, like their forefathers, in a romantic poetical turn; and the agility of both sexes in the exercises of the field, and in dancing to their favourite music, is remarkable.

The inhabitants of the Hebrides, particularly of the isle of Skye, formerly pretended, at least many of them, to the power of foreknowing future events by what was termed the *second-sight*. This gift, which in the Erse language is called *Taish*, is supposed to be a supernatural faculty of seeing visions of events before they happen. Many extraordinary stories in support of this delusion are related in these islands, and some of them have been vouched by persons of sense, character, and learning. The adepts of the second sight pretend that they have certain revelations, or rather presentations either really or typically to their eyes, of certain events that are to happen in the compass of twenty-four or forty-eight hours. We do not, however, from the best information, observe that any two of those adepts agree as to the manner and form of those revelations, or that they have any fixed method for interpreting their typical appearances. The truth seems to be, that those islanders, by indulging themselves in lazy habits, acquire visionary ideas, and overheat their imaginations, till they are presented with those phantasms, which they mistake for fatidical or prophetic manifestations. They instantly begin to prophesy; and it would be absurd to suppose, that, amidst many thousand predictions, some may not happen to be fulfilled; and these, being well attested, give 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 the vast intercourse which the Hebrides had with the Danes, the Norwegians, and other northern people, whose language 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 Locharaber and the opposite coasts of Scotland, the undoubted descendants 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 are still but too prevalent.

The ORKNEY ISLANDS, anciently the Orcaades, lie to the north of Dungsby-head, between $58^{\circ} 48'$ and $59^{\circ} 20'$ of north latitude; being separated from the most northern part of Scotland by a tempestuous strait called the Pentland Firth, twenty-four miles long and twelve broad. They are nearly eighty in number, but only twenty-six are inhabited, the rest consisting of what are called holms and skerries; the former of

which are islands entirely consigned to pasturage, and the latter barren rocks.

The largest of the Orkney islands is Pomona, called also the Mainland. Its length is about twenty-four miles, and its breadth in some places nine, in others only two, as it is of an extremely irregular figure. It contains four excellent harbours, one of which is that of Kirkwall, the principal town in the island, and the capital of the Orkneys. This town extends nearly a mile in length, but contains only about three hundred houses. The cathedral of Kirkwall is a fine Gothic building, dedicated to St. Magnus, but now converted into a parish church. Its roof is supported by fourteen 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 stone, embossed and elegantly flowered. The whole island is divided into nine parishes.

The other principal islands of this group are South Ronaldsha, Hoy, Sanda, Westra, and North Ronaldsha.

South Ronaldsha is one of the most fertile of the Orkneys: it is about seven miles long and from two to five broad. Hoy is about ten miles in length and four or five in breadth; and at high tides is divided into two islands, the southern, named Waes or Walls, and the northern, Hoy. In this island is a mountain called Wart-hill, the height of which is estimated at 1020 feet, the summit of which, in the months of May, June, and July, shines and sparkles in an extraordinary manner when seen at a distance, though this brightness disappears on a nearer approach. The peasants on this account call it the *enchanted carbuncle*. The cause of this phenomenon has been suspected to be the reflexion of the rays of the sun from some water; but no such water, when sought for, has been discovered. In a dark valley of Hoy is a kind of hermitage cut out of stone, called the dwarfie stone, thirty-eight feet long, eighteen broad, and nine thick; in which is a square hole, about two feet high, for an entrance, with a stone of the same size for a door. Within this entrance is the resemblance of a bed, with a pillow cut out of the stone, large enough for two men to lie on: at the other end is a couch, and in the middle a hearth, with a hole cut out above for a chimney. The island of Sanda is twelve miles long, from one to three broad, and of an extremely irregular form. Westra is eight miles long and two broad. North Ronaldsha, the most northern of these islands, is only about three miles in length and one in breadth.

The number of inhabitants in the Orkneys is computed at 23,000. They consist of the mixed descendants of Norwegian colonists and Lowland Scots. The town of Kirkwall has so much trade, that in 1790 the exports were estimated at 26,598*l.* and the imports at 20,803*l.* The exports consist of beef, pork, butter, tallow, hides, salted fish, linen yarn, coarse linen cloth, and kelp, of which the island of Sanda in particular produces great quantities; and the imports of coal, wood, sugar, spirits, wines, tobacco, snuff, hardware, printed linens and cottons, &c. The manufactures are linen yarn, coarse linen, and kelp. The language spoken here was formerly the Norse, or Norwegian; but this is now superseded by the English, or that of the Lowland Scots.

The SHETLAND ISLES are situate about twenty leagues to the north-east of the Orkneys, between lat. 59° 45' and 61° 10' north. They are reckoned to be forty-six in number, besides about thirty holms and forty skerries. The principal of them is, as in the Orkneys, called the Mainland, which island is about 57 miles in length, and 10 or 12 in breadth; but is so broken by creeks and inlets, that scarcely any part

of it is distant more than two miles from the sea. These inlets form at least 20 harbours, six of which are very spacious and commodious. The town of Lerwick, the only town of these islands, stands on the eastern side of Mainland, opposite the harbour called Brassa-sound, which is capable of containing above 2000 ships commodiously and safely. This town contains about 300 families. Skalloway, on the western side, which was once a town of some importance, is now dwindled into a very inconsiderable village, though the ruins of a castle are still to be seen there, and it is the seat of a presbytery. The other islands of this group present nothing which merits particular notice. Yell, situate to the north east of Mainland, is 16 miles long, and five or six broad. It contains eight considerable harbours. Unst, at the northern extremity of this group, is eight miles long, and four broad, and has two excellent harbours.

The coasts of all these islands are in general rugged and precipitous, presenting in many places scenes truly grand and magnificent, and their interior is a rugged and bleak scene of barren rocks, with here and there a few scanty portions of cultivated ground. They are at present destitute of trees, though there is reason to believe they were not in former times. The air is keen and salubrious, and many of the natives live to a very great age. From their northern situation they enjoy, during two months in the middle of summer, almost perpetual day—there being sufficient light at midnight, in the months of June and July, for any person to see to read, when the sky is clear. In the opposite season of the year the duration of the night is correspondent. Though there is little frost or snow, fogs, rain, storms, and a tempestuous sea, prevent the Shetlanders from having any communication, during the seven or eight winter months, either with the neighbouring islands or other countries. A remarkable instance of this is, that a Scottish 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 he would probably have been hanged, had not the news been confirmed by the arrival of a ship.

The number of inhabitants in the Shetland Islands was computed, in 1798, at 20,186. Their chief food consists of fish, and various kinds of sea-fowl which cover the rocks, and in taking which they display extraordinary address and courage. Agriculture here is in a very low state, oats and bere being the only grain sown. The cattle are rather larger than those in the Orkneys. These islands are famous for a very small breed of horses, which are extremely active, strong, and hardy; and are frequently employed to draw the carriages of the wealthy and curious of the capital, especially the ladies, on account of their diminutive size, and beauty. The trade of the Shetland Isles consists principally in the export of fish, chiefly herrings, cod, ling, and torsk or tusk. The Dutch, in time of peace, carry on a great fishery in the neighbourhood of these islands; three thousand busses, or fishing vessels, having been known to be employed by them in one season in the herring-fishery, besides those fitted out from Hamburg, Bremen, and other northern parts.

The natives of these islands differ little in their character and habits from the Lowland Scots, except that their manners are more simple, and their minds less cultivated. Their religion is the 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.

In some of the northern islands, the Norwegian, which is called the Norse language, is still spoken. Their great intercourse with the Dutch, during the fishing season, renders that language likewise common.

The islands both of Shetland and Orkney were anciently subject to Norway; and were sold in the thirteenth century, by Magnus of Norway, to Alexander, king of Scotland, by whom they were given as fiefs to a nobleman of the name of Speire. After this, they were claimed by, and became subject to, the crown of Denmark. Christian I., in the reign of James III., conveyed them in property to the crown of Scotland, as a marriage portion with his daughter Margaret: and all future pretensions were entirely ceded on the marriage of James VI. of Scotland with Anne of Denmark. The isles of Shetland and Orkney now form a stewardry, or shire, which sends a member to parliament.

IRELAND.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.
 Length 280 } between { $51^{\circ} 30'$ and $55^{\circ} 20'$ North latitude.
 Breadth 160 } { $5^{\circ} 20'$ and $10^{\circ} 15'$ West longitude.

Ireland contains 27,457 square miles, with 145 inhabitants to each.

[NAME.] It appears that Ireland was known to the Greeks by the name of Juverna. The Romans called it Hibernia. In the middle ages it frequently was termed Scotia, which name was transferred to Scotland when the Scoti from Ireland settled in the latter country. The native denomination is Erin, which, it is said, signifies the Land of the West; and from which both the ancient appellation Hibernia, and the modern name Ireland, are probably derived.

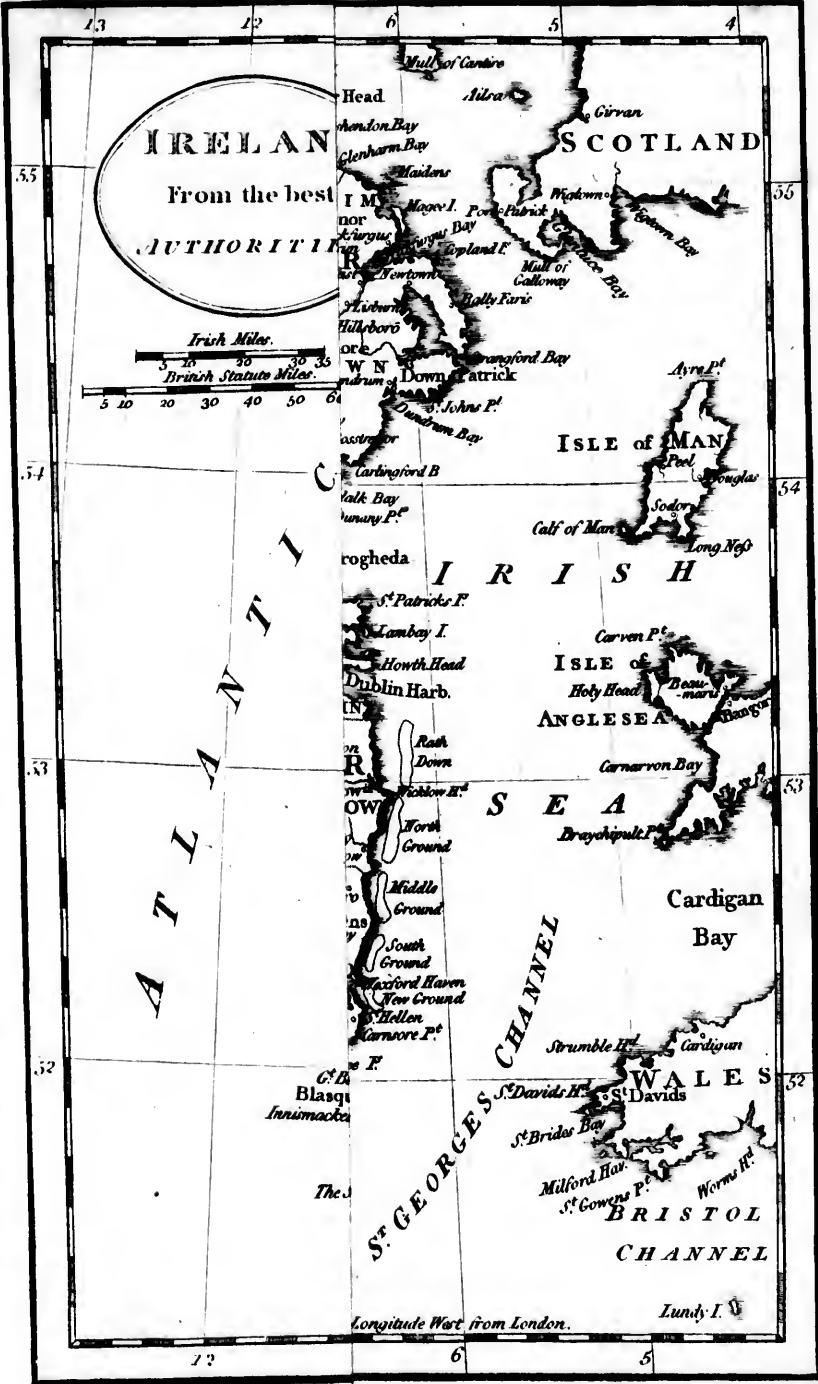
[BOUNDARIES.] By the boundaries of an island we must be understood to mean the different names given to the sea by which it is surrounded in different parts. Thus Ireland has to the north, west, and south, the Atlantic Ocean; and to the east St. George's Channel, which separates it from Wales; the Irish Sea, which divides it from the English counties of Lancashire and Cumberland; and the North Channel, which separates it from Scotland. The distance from Dublin to Holyhead in North Wales, the usual passage from England, is about 60 miles; but from Donaghadee to the Mull of Galloway in Scotland, it is only about 20 miles.

[DIVISIONS.] Ireland is divided into four provinces, Leinster, Ulster, Connaught, and Munster; which are again subdivided into 32 counties:

	Counties.	Chief Towns.
{	Dublin	Dublin
	Louth	Drogheda.
	Wicklow	Wicklow.
	Wexford	Wexford.
	Longford	Longford.
	East Meath	Trim.
	West Meath	Mullingar.
{	King's County	Philipstown.
	Queen's County	Maryborough.

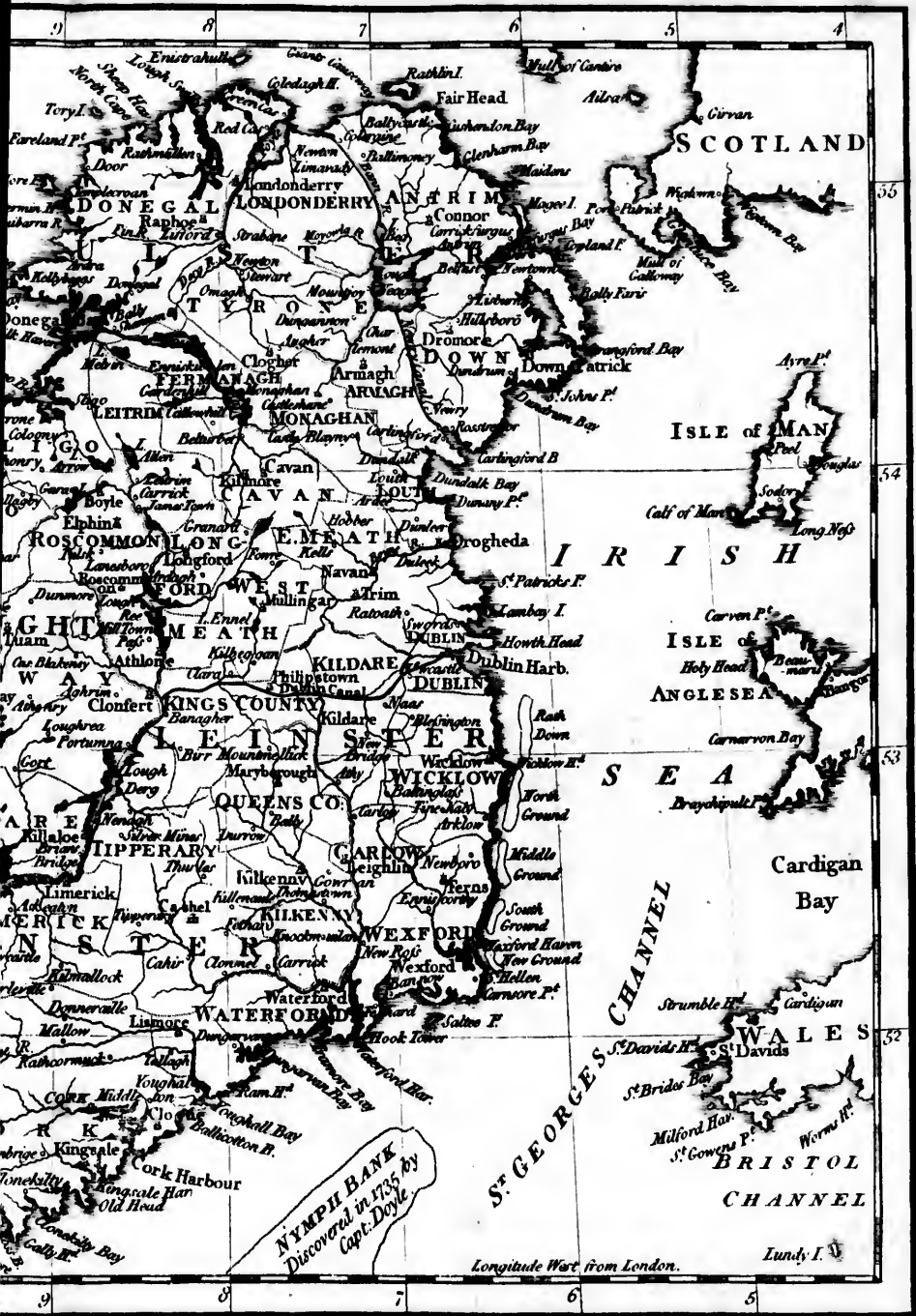
Leinster, 12 counties

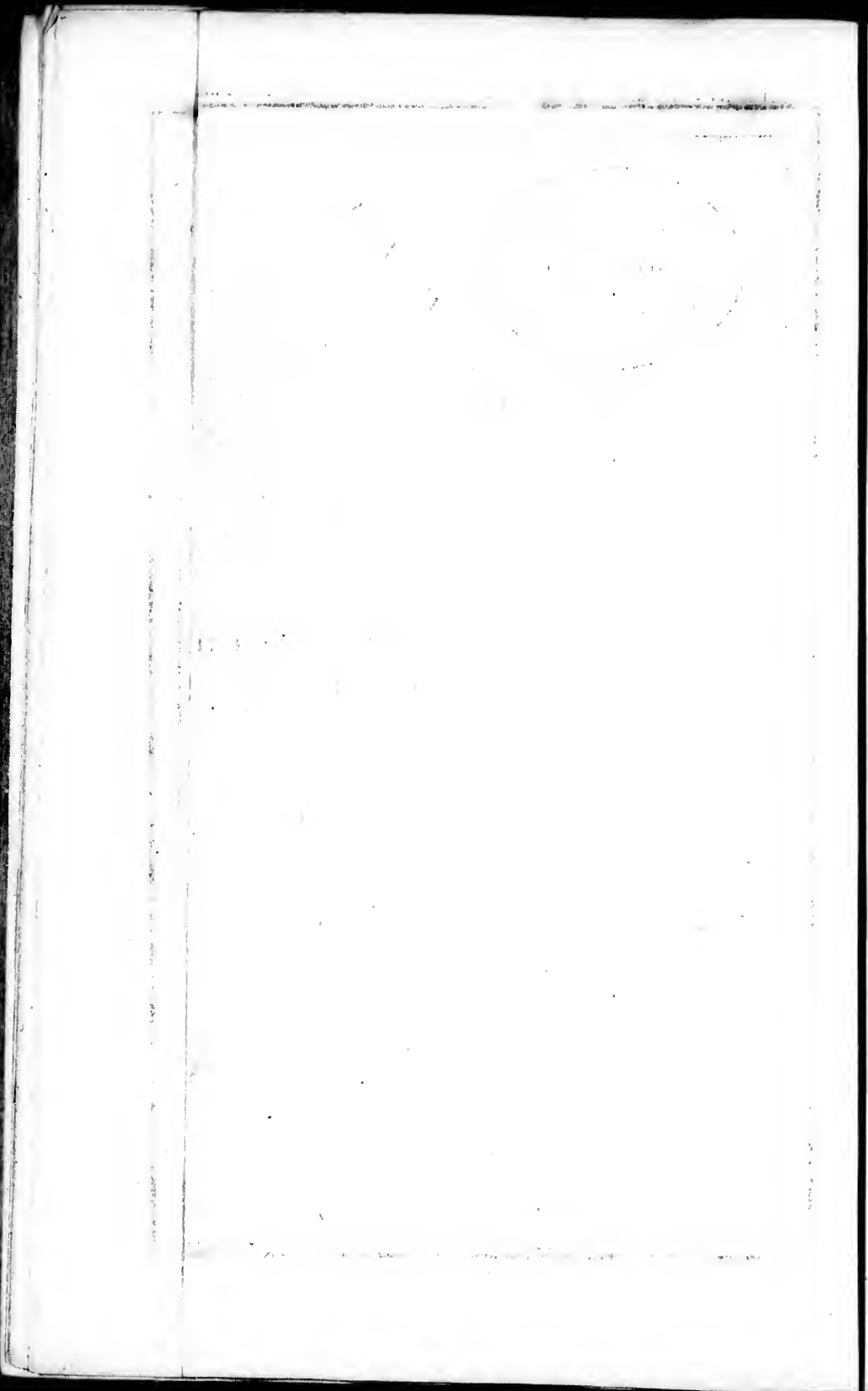
Plate IX.



IRELAND.
 From the best
 AUTHORITIES.







	Counties.	Chief Towns.
	Kilkenny	Kilkenny.
	Kildare	Naas and Athy.
	Carlow	Carlow.
	Down	Down Patrick.
	Armagh	Armagh.
	Monaghan	Monaghan.
	Cavan	Cavan.
Ulster, 9 counties	Antrim	Carrickfergus.
	Londonderry	Derry.
	Tyrone	Omagh.
	Fermanagh	Enniskillen.
	Donegal	Lifford.
	Leitrim	Carrick on Shannon.
	Roscommon	Roscommon.
Connaught, 5 counties	Mayo	Ballinrobe and Castlebar.
	Sligo	Sligo.
	Galway	Galway.
	Clare	Ennis.
	Cork	Cork.
	Kerry	Tralee.
Munster, 6 counties	Limerick	Limerick.
	Tipperary	Clonmel.
	Waterford	Waterford.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY.] Ireland is in general a level country, the face of which is pleasingly diversified by nature with occasional hills and gentle undulations, and clothed by the mild temperature and humidity of the air with an unfading verdure. Yet a great part of the island, from the scarcity of trees, and the want of improvement by the cultivation which it seems to invite, presents only a naked aspect.

MOUNTAINS.] Ireland, as has been above observed, cannot be considered as a mountainous country, though several chains of high hills are found in different parts. In the county of Down are ridges, called the mountains of Mourne and Iveagh, one of which, Slieve Donard, or Mount Donard, has been calculated at a perpendicular height of 1056 yards. Many other mountains are found in Ireland, which contain beds of minerals, coals, stone, slate, and marble, with veins of iron, lead, and copper.

The mountains Nephin and Croagh Patrick, in the county of Mayo, are 880 yards high. The latter is in the form of an immense cone, and discernible at the distance of 60 miles.

FORESTS.] There were formerly extensive forests in the counties of Donegal, Tyrone, Fermanagh, and Antrim; and considerable woods in those of Wicklow, Wexford, Tipperary, and Cork. But these have now disappeared, or at least have been greatly diminished, partly by the extension of tillage, and partly by the consumption of them in fuel for domestic uses, and for the iron manufactories. Ireland, however, affords excellent turf and moss, which are of great service for firing, where wood and coals are scarce.

Bogs.] The bogs of Ireland, or, as they are called by the northern Irish, mosses, form a principal feature of this country. They differ from the English morasses in being rarely level, but rising into hills. In Donegal there is a bog which presents a perfect scenery of hill and dale. Many of them are very extensive; that of Allen, not.

withstanding it has been much diminished by the reclaiming a great portion of it, still extends 70 miles in length, and is computed to contain 260,000 acres. There are many others of great extent, and smaller ones are scattered over the whole island. Where they do not occupy too great a proportion of the land, they are of utility to the inhabitants, by the abundance of fuel which they furnish. The waters of these bogs, far from emitting putrid exhalations like standing pools and marshes, are of an antiseptic and strongly astringent quality; as appears from their preserving for ages, and even adding to the durability of, the timber which is found every where buried beneath their surfaces, and from their converting into a kind of leather the skins of men and animals who have had the misfortune of being lost, and remaining in them any length of time.

LAKES.] There are in Ireland a great number of lakes, or, as they were formerly called, loughs, particularly in the provinces of Ulster and Connaught. The principal are that of Erne, in the county of Fermanagh, which is more than 30 English miles in length, and twelve in its greatest breadth, at its northern extremity; that of Corrib, in the county of Galway, about 20 miles in length, and from two to five wide; and the great lake Neagh, between the counties of Antrim, Down, and Armagh, above 18 miles in length, and nine in breadth, and occupying an area of nearly 60,000 Irish, or above 90,000 English acres. The water of the latter lake is said to have a petrifying quality. Some of the Irish lakes afford the most beautiful and romantic prospects, particularly that of Killarney, which takes its name from a small town in the county of Kerry. This lake, which may be divided into three, is entirely surrounded with mountains, rocks, and precipices, the immense declivities of which are covered with woods, intermixed with ever-greens, from near their tops to the lakes themselves; among which are a number of rivulets tumbling over the precipices, some from heights of little less than 200 feet. On the top of one of the surrounding mountains is a small round lake, about a quarter of a mile in diameter, called the Devil's Punch-Bowl. From the surface of the lake to the top of the cavity, or brim of the bowl, may be about 300 yards; and when viewed from the circular top, it has a most astonishing appearance. The depth of it is vastly great; but not unfathomable, as the natives pretend. The discharge of the superfluous waters of this bowl, through a chasm into the middle lake, forms one of the finest cascades in the world, visible for 150 yards. The echoes among the hills surrounding the southern parts of the lake, which is mostly inclosed, are equally delightful and astonishing. The proprietor, the earl of Kenmore, has placed some cannon in the most proper places, for the amusement of travellers; and the discharge of these pieces is tremendous, resembling almost the rolling of a violent peal of thunder, which seems to travel the surrounding scenery, and die away among the distant mountains. Here also musical instruments, especially the horn and trumpet, afford the most delightful entertainment, and raise a concert superior to that of a hundred performers. Among the vast and craggy heights that surround the lake, is one stupendous and frightful rock, the front of which towards the water is a most horrid precipice, called the *eagle's nest*, from the number of those birds which have their nests in that place.

RIVERS.] The largest river in Ireland is the Shannon, which issues from Lough-Allen, in the county of Leitrim, serves as a boundary between Connaught and the three other provinces, and, after a course of 150 miles, forming in its progress many beautiful lakes, falls into the

Atlantic Ocean, between Kerry-point and Loop-head, where it is nine miles broad. The navigation of this river is interrupted by a ridge of rocks spreading quite across it, south of Killaloe; but this might be remedied by a short canal; and communication might also be made with other rivers. The Bann falls into the Ocean near Coleraine; the Boyne falls into St. George's Channel at Drogheda, as does the Liffey at the bay of Dublin, and is only remarkable for watering that capital, where it forms a spacious harbour. The Barrow, the Nore, and the Suir, water the south part of the kingdom, and, after uniting their streams below Ross, fall into the channel at Waterford haven.

BAYS AND HARBOURS.] But the bays, havens, harbours, and creeks, which every-where indent the coast, form the chief glory of Ireland, and render that country beyond any country in Europe best fitted for foreign commerce. The most considerable are those of Carrickfergus, Stangford, Dundrum, Carlingford, Dundalk, Dublin, Waterford, Dungarvan, Cork, Kinsale, Baltimore, Glandore, Dunmanus, Bantry, Kenmare, Dingle, Shannonmouth, Galway, Sligo, Donegal, Killebegs, Lough-Swilly, and Lough-Boyle.

CANALS.] The improvements of inland navigation have not been unattended to in Ireland. By the canal of Newry a communication is formed between the great lake Neagh and the bay of Carlingford, and by that of Lisburn a navigation is opened between the same lake and the bay of Carrickfergus. Two great canals, called the Royal Canal and the Grand Canal, have been planned and begun at Dublin, on opposite sides of the river Liffey. They were intended to form a navigation across the island, from the bay of Dublin to the Shannon. The latter has been carried above forty miles to the river Barrow, while a branch proceeds in another direction towards the Shannon; but the former was stopped at the bog of Ailen, and has long remained unfinished.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Ireland contains mines of iron, copper, lead, silver, and gold. The latter has been discovered within these few years, in the county of Wicklow. It is now worked for government, and it is said that a new and very rich vein has been lately discovered. The silver and lead mine in the county of Antrim yields a pound of pure silver from thirty pounds of lead. There are also silver mines, though not equally productive, in the counties of Sligo and Limerick. There is a rich mine of copper at a place called Crone Bawn in the county of Wicklow, and another at Redhills in the county of Kildare. Extensive iron-works have been established within these few years, at Arigna, in the county of Leitrim.

Some of the Irish marble quarries contain a kind of porphyry, which is red striped with white. Quarries of fine slate are found in most of the counties. Mines of coal are found in many parts of Ireland, particularly near Castlecomer in the county of Kilkenny; the coal from which being of a hard sort, and proper for the forging of iron, is conveyed, even by land carriage, to very distant parts of the island.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND AGRICULTURE.] The climate of Ireland differs not much from that of England, excepting that it is more moist, the seasons in general being much wetter. From the reports of various registers, it appears that the number of days on which rain had fallen in Ireland was much greater than in the same years in England. But, in many respects, the climate of Ireland is more agreeable than that of England—the summers being cooler, and the winters less severe. The piercing frosts, the deep snows, and the dreadful effects of thunder and lightning,

which are so frequently observed in the latter country, are never experienced here.

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

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

Tillage in Ireland has been too much discountenanced, and is ill understood, even in the best corn counties. The farmers are oppressed by the persons called *middle men*, who rent farms of the landlords, and let them out to the real occupiers.

Ireland rears vast numbers of black cattle and sheep, and the Irish wool is excellent. The prodigious supplies of butter and salt provisions (fish excepted) shipped at Cork, and carried to all parts of the world, afford the strongest proofs of the natural fertility of the Irish soil.

VEGETABLES.] The vegetable productions of Ireland are nearly the same as those of England. Few countries yield better grain than what is produced in the parts of the island where the cultivation of it is attended to. Great quantities of hemp and flax are raised, especially in the northern counties, where the linen manufacture is principally carried on. Potatoes, as is well known, seem especially to suit the soil of the country, and are a particular object of cultivation in all parts of Ireland.

ANIMALS.] Wolves were formerly found in Ireland, and were not exterminated till near the end of the seventeenth century. The Irish wolf-dogs, a species of large grey-hounds, near four feet in height, are now very nearly extinct. In some parts of the country some herds of red deer are still found wild, particularly in the mountainous tract near the lake of Killarney. Whether it be owing to the soil or the climate, it is certain that in Ireland there are neither moles nor toads, nor any kind of serpents; and it is not more than eighty or ninety years since frogs,

of which there are now abundance, were first imported from England. The magpye and the nightingale are strangers here; and it is said that the latter bird, if brought over in a cage, soon pines and dies. There are also some other birds and several kinds of fish, which abound in England, but are unknown in Ireland.

[NATURAL CURIOSITIES.] The greatest natural curiosity in Ireland is the Giants' Causeway in the county of Antrim, about eight miles from Coleraine, which is thus described by Dr. Poccocke, 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 he was told, that at low water it extended 60 feet farther 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 one foot in thickness; and, what is very surprising, some of these joints are so convex, that their prominences are nearly quarters 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 fitting 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 surprising. 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 of 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."

Ireland abounds in cataracts, caverns, and romantic prospects. The scenery of the lake of Killarney has been already described. In the side of the mountain of Kishecorran, in the county of Sligo, are six caverns, which extend to the distance of 80 or 90 feet. The sides are covered with a smooth white substance, like plaister. The largest has, at the entrance, a kind of hall of a circular form, about 30 feet in diameter, and as many in height. Near the city of Cork there is a vast subterranean labyrinth, called the Oven, the extent of which has never been explored, though it has been advanced into to the distance of a quarter of a mile or more. But the most celebrated cavern in Ireland is the cave of Dunmore, about three miles from Kilkenny. This has only been explored as far as a subterranean river which runs through it about a quarter of a mile from the entrance, where is a difficult descent of about 100

feet. One part of this cavern resembles a grand Gothic structure in ruins; the other has the appearance of a magnificent temple, from the ceiling of which depend stalactic concretions, in the forms of inverted cones and pyramids, which, when strongly illuminated, shine with astonishing brilliancy, and produce a most extraordinary effect.

The largest cataract in Ireland is that of Adragool; in Bantry-bay. On the top of a rocky mountain, which rises almost perpendicularly, is a lake of considerable size, from which issues a sheet of water at first 30 feet wide, which expands as it descends, and, dashing from rock to rock, forms a series of cataracts, till it is projected in the form of an arch, over a lower hill into the sea. It is visible at the town of Bantry, at the distance of 14 miles.

POPULATION.] At the commencement of the last century, the number of inhabitants in Ireland was thought to be about two millions; whereas, in 1672, there were, according to sir William Petty, no more than 1,100,000. But from the accounts laid before the house of commons in 1786 (as returned by the hearth-money collectors), the number of houses in Ireland amounted to 474,234. If we add to this the probable increase since, and allow for the numbers intentionally or unavoidably overlooked in such returns, we may reasonably conclude that the present actual amount is 500,000.

We are next to consider what average number of persons we should allow to each house. In the peasants' cottages in Ireland (perhaps the most populous in the world), Mr. Young in some parts found the average 6 and $6\frac{1}{2}$; others have found it in different places to be 7; and Dr. Hamilton, in his account of the island of Raghery, enumerates the houses, and discovered the average therein to be 8. In the cities and principal towns, the houses, particularly in the manufacturing parts, generally contain several families; and from different accounts, the numbers in such are from 10 up so high as 70.

From these *data*, then, it will not perhaps be erroneous, if we fix the average for the whole island at 8 persons to each house; which, multiplied by the number of houses, makes the population of Ireland amount to four millions.

NATIONAL CHARACTER, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS. } It is justly observed by Dr. Le-land, with regard to the manners of the ancient Irish, that if we make our inquiries on this subject in English writers, we find their representations odious and disgusting: if from writers of their own race, they frequently break out into the most animated encomiums of their great ancestors. The one can scarcely allow them any virtue: the other, in their enthusiastic ardour, can scarcely discover the least imperfection in their laws, government, or manners. The historian of England sometimes regards them as the most detestable and contemptible of the human race. The antiquary of Ireland raises them to an illustrious eminence above all other European countries. Yet when we examine their records, without regard to legendary tales or poetic fictions, we find them, even in their most brilliant periods, advanced only to an imperfect civilisation; a state which exhibits the most striking instances both of the virtues and the vices of humanity.

With respect to the present descendents of the old Irish, or, as they are termed by the protestants, the *mere Irish*, they are generally represented as an ignorant, uncivilised, 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 pa-

fient of hardship. 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 greater number of them are papists; and it is the interest of their priests, who govern them with absolute sway, to keep them in the most profound ignorance. They have also laboured under many discouragements, which in their own country have prevented the exertion both of their mental and bodily faculties; but when employed in the service of foreign princes, they have been distinguished for intrepidity, courage, and fidelity. Many of their surnames have an *O*, or *Mac*, placed before them, which signify grandson and son. Formerly the *O* was used by their chiefs only, or such as piqued themselves on the antiquity of their families. Their music is the bagpipe, but their tunes are generally of a melancholy strain; though some of their latest airs are lively, and, when sung by an Irishman, are extremely diverting. 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 corpse 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. Their convivial meetings on Sunday afternoon, with dancing to the bagpipe, and more often quarrelling among themselves, are 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, while their tyrannical landlords or leaseholders squeeze the poor without mercy. 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 purpose 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 butchers' meat of any kind. Their children, plump, robust, and hearty, scarcely know the use of clothes, and are not ashamed to appear naked in the roads, and gaze upon strangers.

In this idle and deplorable state, many thousands have been lost to the community, and to themselves, who, if they had but an equal chance with their neighbours, of being instructed in the real principles of Christianity, and being inured and encouraged to industry and labour, would have added considerable strength to government.

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 presbyterians who fled from persecution in that country in the succeeding reigns, planted themselves, and established that great staple of Irish wealth, the linen manufacture, 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 ideas of religion; and, thirdly, 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, 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.

CITIES, CHIEF TOWNS, } Dublin, the capital of Ireland, is, in mag-
AND EDIFICES. } nitude and number of inhabitants, the second city in the British dominions. It is about ten miles in circumference, being nearly two miles and a half in length, and as much in breadth; and is supposed to contain about 150,000 inhabitants. It 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 and noble quays, where vessels below the first bridge load and unload before the merchants' doors and warehouses. To protect the harbour from the winds, a mole or huge wall has been constructed, nearly four miles in length, with a light-house on its extremity, and another corresponding to it on the opposite promontory, called the hill of Howth. A stranger, on entering the bay of Dublin, which is about seven miles broad, and in stormy weather extremely dangerous, is agreeably surprised with the beautiful prospect on each side, and the distant view of Wicklow mountains; but the city itself, from its low situation, makes no great appearance. The increase of Dublin within these last thirty years is incredible. The number of houses in the year 1777, was 17,151, and they are now estimated at not less than 22,000. 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 as elegant as 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 with the Thames at London. It is crossed by six bridges, three of which, Essex-bridge, Queen's-bridge, and Sarah's-bridge, are elegant, especially the last, which has been finished but a few years. It consists of one arch, 106 feet in the span or width across the stream, and 28 feet high.

Many of the public edifices of Dublin are very magnificent; among which may be enumerated the late parliament-house, the university, the

courts of justice, the custom-house, the royal exchange, completed in 1779, and which is an elegant structure of white stone, with semi-columns of the Corinthian order, a cupola, and other ornaments. The castle, which is the residence of the viceroy, stands on a rising ground, near the centre of the city, and consists of two courts, one of which is of an oblong rectangular form, the other a less regularly shaped quadrilateral.

St. Stephen's-green is a very spacious and beautiful square, round which there is a gravel-walk, a mile in circuit. Many of the houses in this square are very elegant; but a want of uniformity is observable throughout. In this respect it is greatly exceeded by the new square near it, called Merrion-square; the houses of which being lofty and uniform, and built with stone as high as the first floor, give the whole an air of magnificence not, perhaps, exceeded by any place in England.

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 there are twenty parishes, a cathedral, eighteen parish-churches, eight chapels, three churches for French and one for Dutch protestants, seven presbyterian meeting-houses, two for methodists, two for quakers, and sixteen Roman-catholic chapels. There are also two theatres; 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, founded by the famous Dean Swift, who himself died a lunatic; and sundry other hospitals for patients of every description. Some of the churches have been lately rebuilt in a more elegant manner. 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, will be convinced that works of ornament and public utility are no where more encouraged than in Ireland.

Cork is deservedly reckoned the second city in Ireland, in magnitude, riches, and commerce. It lies 129 miles south-west of Dublin, and contains 8500 houses, and about 70,000 inhabitants. Its haven is deep, and well sheltered from all winds; but small vessels only can come up to the city, which stands 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 taken together. Hence there is a great resort of ships to this port, particularly of those bound from Great Britain to Jamaica, Barbadoes, and all the Caribbee islands, which put in here to victual and complete their lading. It appears, that in the reign of Edward IV. there were eleven churches in Cork, though there are now only seven, and yet it has ever since that time been esteemed a thriving city: but it must be observed, that, besides the churches, there are at this time six mass-houses, two dissenting meeting-houses, another for quakers, and a chapel for French protestants. Kinsale is a populous and strong town, with an excellent harbour, and considerable commerce and shipping. Waterford is reckoned next to Cork for riches and shipping; but it suffered greatly in the late rebellion, and cannot now be estimated to contain above 30,000 inhabitants. It is commanded by Duncannon Fort, and on the west side of the town is a citadel. Limerick is a handsome,

populous, commercial, strong city; it lies on both sides the Shannon, and contains 5257 houses, and about 45,000 inhabitants.

Belfast is a large sea-port and trading town at the mouth of the Lagen Water, where it falls into Carrickfergus Bay. Downpatrick has a flourishing linen manufacture. Carrickfergus (or Knockfergus), by some deemed the capital town of the province, has a good harbour and castle, but little commerce. Derry (or Londonderry, as it is most usually called) stands on Lough-Foyl, is a strong little city, having linen manufactures, with some shipping. Donegal, the county town of the same name (otherwise called the county of Tyrconnel), is a place of some trade; as is likewise Einniskilling.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The exports of Ireland are linnen cloth, yarn, lawns, and cambrics, horses and black cattle, beef, pork, green hides, tanned leather, calf-skins dried, tallow, butter, candles, cheese, ox and cow-horns, ox-hair, horse-hair, lead, copper ore, herrings, dried fish, rabbit-skins and fur, otter-skins, goat-skins, salmon, and some other commodities. In the year 1799, the exports from Ireland amounted to 4,575,256*l.*, and her imports to 4,396,009*l.* The manufacture of linen yields an exportation to the amount of nearly 2,000,000*l.* annually. The Irish have carried their inland manufactures, even those of luxury, to a considerable height; and their lord-lieutenants and their courts have of late encouraged them by their examples, and, while they are in that government, make use of no other.

GOVERNMENT AND LAWS.] Ireland formerly was only entitled the dominion or lordship of Ireland, and the king's style was no other than Dominus Hiberniæ, lord of Ireland, till the 33d year of king Henry VIII. when he assumed the title of king, which is recognised by act of parliament in the same reign.

Before the union in 1801, Ireland was governed by its own parliament, consisting of a house of commons, composed of 300 members, and a house of peers, while the king was represented by a lord-lieutenant or viceroy. By the articles of union, which took place on the 1st of Jan. 1801, England, Scotland, and Ireland, have become one kingdom, by the name of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland. The office of lord-lieutenant is still continued. Of the peers of Ireland at the time of the union, four spiritual lords, by rotation of sessions, and twenty-eight temporal peers for life, sit and vote in the house of lords; and one hundred commoners (viz. two for each county of Ireland, two for the city of Dublin, two for the city of Cork, and one for each of the thirty-two most considerable cities, towns, and boroughs), are the number of representatives of Ireland in the house of commons of the parliament of the united kingdom.

It is also provided by these articles "that, for the space of twenty years after the union shall take place, the contribution of Great Britain and Ireland respectively towards the expenditure of the united kingdom in each year shall be defrayed in the proportion of fifteen parts for Great Britain, and two parts for Ireland," this proportion at the expiration of that time to be subject to revision and regulation from other considerations.

The laws of Ireland differ very little from those of England; 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 by subsequent particular acts made in Ireland, the statutes in force in England have been adopted, and decisions in common

law have been taken as precedents; so that the laws of the two countries are nearly the same: there are however some minute variations.

For the regular distribution of justice, there are 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.

REVENUE.] 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, light-house 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 revenue of Ireland amounts at present to 2,800,000l.; but that the expenditure considerably exceeds that sum, is manifest from the magnitude of the public debt of that country; which, according to the statement of Mr. Foster, the Irish member in the house of commons, amounted in 1800 to 25 millions sterling, and at present (1804) is 52 millions and a half. To pay the interest of this debt, several new taxes have lately been imposed.

MILITARY FORCE.] In consequence of the late rebellion, and the threats of a French invasion, a very considerable military force is now kept up in Ireland; consisting of regular troops and militia from England, Irish militia, and yeomanry. In the year 1800, the force maintained in Ireland consisted of 45,839 regulars, 27,104 militia, and 53,557 yeomanry; making in the whole 126,500 men in arms.

ORDER OF ST. PATRICK.] This order was instituted February 5, and the installation of the first knights was performed on the 17th of March, 1783. It consists of the sovereign and fifteen other knights' companions. The lord-lieutenants of Ireland for the time being officiate as grand masters of the order, and the archbishop of Armagh is the prelate, the archbishop of Dublin the chancellor, and the dean of St. Patrick the register of the order. The knights are installed in the cathedral of St. Patrick, Dublin. Their robes are splendid, and the badge is three crowns united together on a cross, with the motto round, *Quis separabit?* 1783, fastened by an Irish harp to the crown imperial. A star of eight points encircles it on the coat.

RELIGION.] The established religion and ecclesiastical discipline of Ireland is the same with that of England. 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 in the 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, we shall not here inquire.

Ireland contains at least as many sectaries as England, particularly presbyterians, baptists, quakers, and methodists, who are all of them tolerated or connived at. Great efforts have been made, ever since the days of James I., in erecting free-schools for civilising and converting the Irish papists to protestantism. The institution of the incorporated society for promoting English protestant working-schools, has been ex-

trremely successful, as have been many institutions of the same kind, in introducing industry and knowledge among the Irish.

The archbishopsricks are four; Armagh, Dublin, Cashel, and Tuam.

The bishopsricks are eighteen; viz. Clogher, Clonfert, Cloyne, Cork, Derry, Down, Dromore, Elphin, Kildare, Killala, Kilmore, Killaloe, Leighlin, Limerick, Meath, Ossory, Raphoe, and Waterford.

LITERATURE.] Learning seems to have been cultivated in Ireland at a very early period. Mr. O'Halloran says, that the Irish "appear to have been, from the most remote antiquity, a polished people, and that with propriety they may be called the fathers of letters."

It is said, that when St. Patrick * landed in Ireland, he found many holy and learned Christian preachers there, whose votaries were pious and obedient. Camden observes, that "the Irish scholars of St. Patrick profited so notably in Christianity, that, in the succeeding age, Ireland was termed *Sanctorum Patria*. Their monks so greatly excelled in learning and piety, that they sent whole flocks of most learned men into all parts of Europe, who were the first founders of Lieu-Dieu-abbey, in Burgundy; of the abbey Bobie, in Italy; of Wirtzburg, in Franconia; St. Gall, in Switzerland; and of Malmesbury, Lindisfarran, and many other monasteries, in Britain." We have also the testimony of venerable Bede, that, about the middle of the seventh century, many nobles, and other orders of the Anglo-Saxons, retired from their own country into Ireland, either for instruction, or for an opportunity of living in monasteries of stricter discipline; and that the Scots (as he styles the Irish) maintained them, taught them, and furnished them with books, without fee or reward: "a most honourable testimony," says lord Lyttelton, "not only to the learning, but likewise to the hospitality and bounty of that nation." Dr. Leland remarks, that a conflux of foreigners to a retired island, at a time when Europe was in ignorance and confusion, gave peculiar lustre to this seat of learning: nor is it improbable or surprising, that seven thousand students studied at Armagh, agreeably to the accounts of Irish writers, though the seminary of Armagh was but one of the many colleges erected in Ireland.

In modern times, the Irish have also distinguished themselves in the republic of letters. 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 Farquhar's wit is well known to all lovers of the drama. And among the men of distinguished genius whom Ireland has produced, may also be particularly mentioned, sir Richard Steele, bishop Berkeley, Parnel, Sterne, Goldsmith, and the late celebrated Mr. Burke.

UNIVERSITY.] Ireland contains but one university; which is denominated Trinity-college. It consists of two quadrangles, in the whole of which are thirty-three buildings, of eight rooms each. It has an excellent library, a great part of the books of which were collected by archbishop Usher.

This seminary was founded and endowed by queen Elizabeth; but the original foundation consisted only of a provost, three fellows, and three scholars; which has from time to time been augmented to twenty-two fellows, seventy scholars, and thirty sizers. However, the whole number of students is at present about four hundred, who are of three

* It has been affirmed, that St. Patrick was a Scotchman; but Mr. O'Halloran denies this, and says, that "it appears from the most authentic records that Patrick was from Wales."

classes—fellow-commoners, pensioners, and sizers or servitors. Of the fellows, several are called seniors; and the annual income of each of these is about seven hundred pounds. There are thirteen professors of various sciences. The provostship is supposed to be worth three thousand pounds a year. Trinity-college has a power of conferring degrees of bachelors, masters, and doctors, in all the arts or faculties. The visitors are, the chancellor or vice-chancellor, and the archbishop of Dublin.

LANGUAGE.] The language of the Irish is a dialect of the ancient Celtic, and nearly the same with that of the Scottish Highlanders, opposite the Irish coast. The usage of the Irish language occasions among the common people, who speak both that and the English, a peculiar tone in speaking, which is general among the vulgar, and prevails even among the better sort who do not understand Irish. It is probable that, a few ages hence, the latter will be accounted among the dead languages.

The Lord's prayer in Irish is as follows:

Ar nothairne ata ar neamh, naomhtar hairn; tigeadh do ríogachd; deantar do thoil, ar an tialamh mar ata ar neamh; tabhair dhuirn a nín ar naran lethamhail; agus múitdhuirn ar bhfiaca anail mar múitmidrne mur bhfeithcamhuibh féin; agus na leig sinn a cathughadh, ucht saor sinn o olc: oir is leat féin an ríoghachd, agus an cumhachd, agus an ghloir gústioruige. Amen.

ANTIQUITIES.] Among the principal antiquities of Ireland are the round towers, which are tall hollow pillars of stone and lime, of a nearly cylindrical form, but narrowing somewhat upwards, with a conical roof. Fifty-six of these towers, from fifty to a hundred and fifty feet high, and from eight to twelve in diameter, are still standing in different parts of Ireland. Antiquaries do not appear to be agreed with respect to their origin and use; some supposing that they were built by the Danes and Norwegians in their piratical incursions, who made use of them as spy-towers, light-houses, or beacons; and others, that they served as bellfries to the monasteries; which it is said is agreeable to the import of their Irish name *cloghad*.

In Ireland are likewise found cairns, earnedhs, or piles of loose stones heaped up on the tops of hills, for the celebration of some Pagan rites; circles of stones; barrows or artificial hillocks; cromlycéeaghs, or large flat stones raised from the ground, horizontal or inclined, intended probably for the purposes of superstition; and rude fortresses called rath and diens, supposed to have been built by Scandinavian invaders. The ruins of stately castles erected towards the end of the twelfth century, by the Anglo-Norman colonists, are found in almost every part of the country.

HISTORY.] The history of Ireland has been carried to a very remote antiquity, and may, with greater justice than that of almost any other country, be distinguished into the legendary and authentic. In the reign of Edward II. an Ulster prince boasted to the pope of an uninterrupted succession of one hundred and ninety-seven kings of Ireland, to the year 1170. Even the more moderate Irish antiquaries carry their history up to 500 years before the Christian era, at which time they assert that a colony of Scythians, immediately from Spain, settled in Ireland, and introduced the Phœnician language and letters into this country: and that however it might have been peopled still earlier from Gaul or Britain; yet Heber, Heremon, and Ith, the sons of Milesius, gave a race of kings to the Irish, distinguished from their days by the name of Gadelians and Scuits, or Scots. But as our limits will not permit us to enlarge on the dark and contested parts of the Irish history, we shall only

observe, that it was about the middle of the fifth century that the great apostle of Ireland, St. Patrick, was employed in the propagation of Christianity in this country, though there had been Christian missionaries here long before, by whose means it had made a considerable progress among the inhabitants of Ireland. After this period, Ireland was occasionally invaded by the Saxon kings of England; but in the years 795 and 798, the Danes and Norwegians, or, as they were called, Easterlings, invaded the coast of Ireland, and were the first who erected some edifices in that kingdom. The common habitations of the Irish, till that time, were hurdles covered with straw and rushes, and but very few of solid timber. The natives 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.

In the twelfth century, Henry the Second of England formed a design of annexing Ireland to his dominions. He is said to have been induced to this by the provocation he had received from some of the Irish chieftains, who had afforded considerable assistance to his enemies. His design was patronised by the pope, and a fair pretext of attacking Ireland offered about the year 1168. Dermot Mac Murrough, king of Leinster, and an oppressive 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 in the court of Henry II., who promised to restore him, upon taking an oath of fidelity 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 Fitzgerald. 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 the 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 the 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 above 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 hands all the Irish cities and forts he held. During Strongbow's absence, Mac Turkil returned with a great fleet, and 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. Be that as it will, he affected to keep a magnificent court, and held a parliament at Dublin, where he parcelled out the states of Ireland, as William the Conqueror had done in England, to his English nobility. He then settled a civil administration at Dublin, as nearly similar 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, free customs, and 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 any great 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 erected that part of the provinces of Leinster and Munster, which was within the English pale, into twelve counties. We find, however, that the descendants of the ancient 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 at 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. 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 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 further 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 entirely to win their affections. But in 1399, after having acted in a very despotic manner in England, he undertook a fresh expedition to Ireland, to revenge the death of his lord-licutenant, 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 by his English subjects on account of his tyranny, 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. Edward IV. made the earl of Desmond lord-licutenant of Ireland for his services against the Ormond party and other adherents of the house of Lancaster, and he was the *first Irish chieftain* that obtained this honour. Even the accession of Henry VII. to the crown of England did not reconcile the Irish to his title as duke of Lancaster: they therefore 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 recognised as king by the Irish; and in the preceding pages, under the history of England, the reader may learn the event of his pretensions. 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 the emperor Charles V. endeavouring to gain them to his interest, Henry made his natural son, the duke of Richmond, his lord-licutenant. This did not prevent the Irish from breaking out into rebellion in the year 1540, under Fitzgerald, who had been lord-deputy, and 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 to 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 is somewhat surprising 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 Kinsale; and the rebellions of Tyrone, who baffled and outwitted her favourite general the earl of Essex, are well known in 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 Kinsale, and bringing Tyrone prisoner to England, where he was pardoned by queen Elizabeth in 1602. This lenity, shown to such an offender, is a proof of the great 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'Dogherty 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 Donegall, Tyrone, Colerain, Fermanagh, Cavan, and Armagh; and enabled the king to make that protestant plantation in the north of Ireland, which, from the most rebellious province of the kingdom, became, for many years, the most quiet and industrious.

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 dissonances 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 the more mode-

rate have estimated the numbers of the sufferers at 40,000; other accounts speak of 10,000 or 12,000; and some have 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 suffered so severely, that they were quiet during the reign of Charles II. His popish successor, and brother, James II., 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 king William ever gained in person; a victory, however, on which depended the safety of the protestant religion, and the liberties of the British empire. Had James been victorious, he probably would have been reinstated on the throne; and nothing else could be expected than that, being irritated by opposition, victorious over his enemies, and free from every restraint, he would have trampled upon all rights, civil and religious, and pursued more arbitrary designs than before. The army of William consisted of 36,000 men, that of James of 33,000, but advantageously situated. James, it is true, fought at the head of an undisciplined rabble: but his French auxiliaries were far from behaving like 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 rebellions 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 greatly diminished the popish interest. 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 were opened for the exportation of wool and woollen yarn to any part of Great Britain; and of late years, acts of parliament have been made occasionally for permitting the importation of salt beef, pork, butter, cattie, and tallow, from Ireland to Great Britain.

But though some laws and regulations had occasionally taken place favourable to Ireland, it must be acknowledged, that the inhabitants of that country laboured under considerable grievances, in consequence of

* Mr. Hume, after enumerating the various barbarities practised by the papists upon the protestants, says, "By some computations, those who perished by all those cruelties are made to amount to an hundred and fifty or two hundred thousand; by the most moderate, and probably the most reasonable account, they must have been near 40,000." *History of England*, vol. vi. p. 317. edit. 8vo. 1763.

sundry unjust and injudicious restraints of the parliament of England, respecting their trade. These restraints had injured Ireland, without benefiting Great Britain. The Irish had been prohibited from manufacturing their own wool, in order to favour the woollen manufactory of England; the consequence of which was, that the Irish wool was smuggled over into France, and the people of that country were thereby enabled to rival us in our woollen manufacture, and to deprive us of a part of that trade. An embargo had also been laid on the exportation of provisions from Ireland, which had been extremely prejudicial to that kingdom. The distresses of the Irish manufacturers, as well as those of Great Britain, had likewise been much increased by the consequences of the American war. These circumstances occasioned great murmuring in Ireland, and some attempts were made for the relief of the inhabitants of that kingdom in the British parliament, but for some time without success; for a partiality in favour of the trade of England prevented justice from being done to Ireland. But several incidents, which happened afterwards, at length operated strongly in favour of that kingdom. When a large body of the king's troops had been withdrawn from Ireland, in order to be employed in the American war, a considerable number of Irish gentlemen, farmers, traders, and other persons, armed and formed themselves into volunteer companies and associations, for the defence of Ireland against any foreign invaders. By degrees, these volunteer associations became numerous and well-disciplined; and it was soon discovered, that they were inclined to maintain their rights at home, as well as to defend themselves against foreign enemies. When these armed associations became numerous and formidable, the Irish began to assume a higher tone than that to which they had before been accustomed; and it was soon manifest, that their remonstrances met with unusual attention, both from their own parliament and from that of Great Britain. The latter, on the 11th of May, 1779, presented an address to the king, recommending to his majesty's most serious consideration the distressed and impoverished state of the loyal and well-deserving people of Ireland; and desiring him to direct that there should be prepared and laid before parliament, such particulars relative to the trade and manufactures of Great Britain and Ireland as should enable the national wisdom to pursue effectual measures for promoting the common strength, wealth, and commerce of his majesty's subjects in both kingdoms. To this address the king returned a favourable answer; and in October, the same year, both houses of the Irish parliament also presented addresses to his majesty, in which they declared, that nothing but granting Ireland a free trade could save it from ruin. Notwithstanding which, it being soon after suspected, by many of the people of that kingdom, that the members of their parliament would not exert themselves with vigour in promoting the interests of the nation, a very daring and numerous mob assembled before the parliament-house in Dublin, crying out for a *free trade* and a *short money-bill*. They assailed the members, and endeavoured to compel them to swear that they would support the interest of their country by voting for a short money-bill; and they demolished the house of the attorney-general. The tumult at length subsided; and two Irish money-bills for six months only were sent over to England, where they passed the great seal, and were immediately returned, without any dissatisfaction being expressed by government at this limited grant.

In the mean time the members of the opposition in the English parliament very strongly represented the necessity of an immediate atten-

tion to the complaints of the people of Ireland, and of a compliance with their wishes. The arguments on this side of the question were also enforced by the accounts which came from Ireland; that the volunteer associations in that kingdom amounted to forty thousand men, unpaid, self-appointed, and independent of government, well armed and accoutred, daily improving in discipline, and which afterwards increased to eighty thousand. The British ministry appeared for some time to be undetermined what part they should act in this important business; but the remembrance of the fatal effects of rigorous measures respecting America, and the very critical situation of Great Britain, at length induced the first lord of the treasury to bring in such bills as were calculated to afford effectual commercial relief to the people of Ireland. Laws were accordingly passed, by which all those acts were repealed which had prohibited the exportation of woollen manufactures from Ireland, and other acts by which the trade of that kingdom to foreign countries had been restrained; and it was likewise enacted, that a trade between Ireland and the British colonies in America and the West Indies, and the British settlements on the coast of Africa, should be allowed to be carried on, in the same manner, and subject to similar regulations and restrictions, with that carried on between Great Britain and the said colonies and settlements.

These laws in favour of Ireland were received with much joy and exultation in that kingdom: and the Irish nation being indulged in their requisitions respecting trade, now began also to aim at important constitutional reformations; and in various counties and cities of Ireland, the right of the British parliament to make laws, which should bind that kingdom, was denied in public resolutions. By degrees, the spirit which had been manifested by the Irish parliament seemed a little to subside; and a remarkable instance of this was, their agreeing to a perpetual mutiny-bill, for the regulation of the Irish army, though that of England had always been passed, with a true constitutional caution, only from year to year. This was much exclaimed against by some of the Irish patriots; and it is indeed not easy to clear their parliament from the charge of inconsistency: but this bill was afterwards repealed, and the commercial advantages afforded them by several acts in their favour greatly contributed to promote the prosperity of Ireland. As before observed, by the act repealing the statute of the 6th of George I. they were fully and completely emancipated from the jurisdiction of the British parliament; and the appellat jurisdiction of the British house of peers in Irish causes was likewise given up.

In the year 1783, the government, the nobility, and the people of Ireland, vied with each other in countenancing and giving an asylum to many families of the Genevese who were banished from their city, and to others who voluntarily exiled themselves for the cause of liberty, not willing to submit to an aristocracy of their own citizens, supported by the swords of France and Sardinia. A large tract of land in the county of Waterford was allotted for their reception, a town was marked out, entitled *New Geneva*, and a sum of money granted for erecting the necessary buildings. These preparations for their accommodation were, however, rendered ultimately useless, by some misunderstanding (not fully comprehended) which arose between the parties; and the scheme accordingly fell to the ground.

Upon the occasion of the unhappy malady with which the king was afflicted in 1788, the lords and commons of Ireland came to a resolution to address the prince of Wales, requesting him to take upon him the govern-

ment of that kingdom during his majesty's indisposition, under the style and title of *Prince Regent of Ireland*; and to exercise and administer, according to the laws and the constitution of the realm, all the royal authorities, jurisdictions, and prerogatives, to the crown and government thereof belonging. The marquis of Buckingham (being then lord lieutenant) having declined presenting the address, as contrary to his oath and the laws, the two houses resolved on appointing delegates from each; the lords appointed the duke of Leinster, and the earl of Charlemont; and the commons, four of their members. The delegates proceeded to London, and, in February 1789, presented the address to his royal highness, by whom they were most graciously received; but his majesty having, to the infinite joy of all his subjects, recovered from his severe indisposition, the prince returned them an answer fraught with the warmest sentiments of regard for the kingdom, and of gratitude to parliament, for the generous manner in which they proposed investing him with the regency, though the happy recovery of his royal father had now rendered his acceptance of it unnecessary.

The parliament of Ireland afterwards extended liberal indulgences to the Roman-catholics of that kingdom, by establishing the legality of inter-marriage between them and the protestants, by admitting them to the profession of the law, and the benefit of education, and by removing all obstructions upon their industry in trade and manufactures; and in the year 1793, in consequence of the concessions of government, a bill passed the legislature, by which the Roman-catholics, being freeholders, were entitled to vote for members to serve in parliament.

But notwithstanding the catholics of Ireland had been restored, in some measure, to their civil rights, by the concession of the elective franchise; it does not appear that either their own leaders or their parliamentary adherents were satisfied with what had been granted, or were likely to be contented with less than a total repeal of all remaining disqualifications; and when, in the beginning of the year 1795, earl Fitzwilliam was appointed lord lieutenant of Ireland, after the accession of the Portland party to administration, they considered the point in dispute as absolutely conceded by the ministry. A committee was therefore appointed to bring forward a petition to parliament for a repeal of all remaining disqualifications. Notice of this his lordship transmitted to the minister, stating at the same time his own opinion of the absolute necessity of concession, as a measure not only wise but essential to the public tranquillity. To this no answer was received, and on the 12th of February Mr. Grattan moved for leave to bring in a bill for the further relief of his majesty's subjects professing the Roman-catholic religion; and after a feeble opposition leave was given. By the intrigues, however, of another political party, at the head of which was a Mr. Beresford, a gentleman who had united in his own person, or in that of his son, the important and discordant offices of minister—commissioner of the treasury—of revenue—counsel to the commissioners—store-keeper, and banker—the measure was defeated, and lord Fitzwilliam suddenly recalled. His lordship left Dublin for England on the 25th of March, which day was observed in that city as a day of general mourning: the shops were shut; no business was transacted; and the citizens appeared in deep mourning. In College-green a number of respectable gentlemen, dressed in black, took the horses from his excellency's carriage, and drew it to the water-side. His lordship wished, as usual on such occasions, to distribute money; but, with the noblest enthusiasm, the offer was rejected, even by a mob. The military had been ordered out, in

expectation of some disturbance; but nothing appeared among the populace but the serious emotions of sorrow, and the utmost order and decorum.

Earl Camden, who was appointed to succeed his lordship, arrived in Dublin on the 31st of March. The whole system of administration was now changed; all ideas of concession on the part of government were abandoned, and coercive measures alone employed to silence all complaints. Of this harsh and unyielding system, the factious and disaffected took advantage to promote their designs, and increase the numbers of their adherents.

About the beginning of the year 1791, the society which has since become so notorious under the name of *United Irishmen* was instituted; the ostensible principles of which were parliamentary reform, and what they chose to term catholic emancipation, or a full restoration of the catholics to all the privileges of Irish subjects. This society is said to have owed its origin to a person whose life has since paid the forfeit of his treasonable intrigues, Mr. Theobald Wolfe Tone, and its constitution certainly evinced much ability and political knowledge. The real views of the authors and leaders, which, latterly at least, appear to have been no less than to effect a total separation of the country from Great Britain, and the erection of a republic, after the plan and under the protection of France, were probably scarcely mistrusted by the great body of the members. The first and principal article expressed that "the society was constituted for the purpose of forwarding a brotherhood of affection, a community of rights, and an union of power among Irishmen of every religious persuasion; and thereby to obtain a complete reform in the legislature, founded on the principles of civil, political, and religious liberty." For several years this society, from the secrecy and circumspection with which its affairs were conducted, attracted but little the attention of government. But the violence of party disputes which followed on the recall of earl Fitzwilliam considerably increased the number of its adherents, and added to them several persons of abilities and influence, in particular Mr. Arthur O'Connor, who had distinguished himself by his able support of earl Fitzwilliam's administration in the house of commons; Dr. M'Nevin, who had been chairman of the committee for enforcing the claims set forth in the catholic petition; and Mr. Oliver Bond, an opulent citizen of Dublin, who had been an active supporter of the same principles. From the confession of these very persons, it appears, however, that when they joined this society the views of its leader were no longer confined to parliamentary or constitutional relief of any kind; since in the year 1795, through the medium of Mr. Tone, and other Irish refugees who had fled to France, a regular communication was opened between the French directory and the United Irishmen; and in the course of the summer of 1796, lord Edward Fitzgerald proceeded to Switzerland, and had an interview, near the French frontier, with general Hoche, when it is believed the whole plan of an invasion was finally adjusted. An attempt to carry it into execution was made in the December following, when the French fleet took the opportunity afforded by a thick fog to elude the vigilance of admiral Colpoys, by whom they had been for several months blocked up in Brest, and set sail for Ireland. But the fleet was dispersed by violent storms: a part of it, however, consisting of eight two-deckers, and nine other vessels of different classes, anchored, on the 24th, in Bantry bay. The violence of the weather preventing any attempt to effect a landing, they quitted the coast on the 27th in the evening; but an officer

and seven men were driven on shore in a boat belonging to one of the French ships. This officer, upon examination, stated that the fleet when it left Brest consisted of about fifty sail, and that it had on board twenty-five thousand men, commanded by general Hoche. A considerable degree of alarm was excited in Ireland by the appearance of this armament; but the people in general in this part of the kingdom evinced the most determined loyalty, and manifested the greatest readiness to meet and resist the enemy wherever they might attempt a descent.

The failure of the expedition under Hoche did not, however, discourage the members of the Irish Union; they, on the contrary, endeavoured more firmly to cement their alliance with France, and established a regular communication and correspondence with that country. New arrangements were made for an invasion; and Dr. Mc'Nevin, about this time, transmitted to the French government a memorial, in which he stated that 150,000 United Irishmen were enrolled and organised in the province of Ulster. During the summer of 1797, great preparations were therefore made for a second attempt, both at Brest and in the Texel; it having been determined that the Dutch should supply a fleet and land forces to co-operate in this design. But this plan was rendered abortive by the memorable victory of lord Duncan over the Dutch fleet, on the 11th of October of that year.

In the beginning of the year 1798, Mr. O'Connor came to England, with an intention, as it afterwards appeared, of going over to France, in conjunction with John Binns, an active member of the London Corresponding Society, James Coigley, an Irish priest, and a person of the name of Allen. Being however suspected, they were apprehended, and tried at Maidstone, where they were all acquitted except Coigley, on whom had been found a treasonable, though extremely absurd paper, purporting to be an address from the "Secret Committee of England to the Executive Directory of France." He was therefore convicted and executed. O'Connor, after his acquittal, was detained on another charge of treason preferred against him, and sent back to Ireland.

In the course of these different negotiations with the enemy, the violence of some of the disaffected party in Ireland could scarcely be restrained from breaking out into open insurrection, without waiting for the promised assistance from the Gallic republic; but they were overruled by those who had more coolness and caution. The government of Ireland, in the mean time, received only obscure and perplexed intelligence of these proceedings, which appear to have been conducted with so much art and secrecy as to prevent administration from discovering, for a considerable time, the real views and conduct of the society. But at length they received information that a seditious meeting was to be held at the house of a person of the name of Alexander, at Belfast, on the 14th of April, 1797; and, in consequence, colonel Barber, with a detachment of soldiers, proceeded on that day to the place of meeting, where he found two societies or committees actually sitting, and seized their papers and minutes, among which were the printed declaration and constitution of the United Irishmen, various reports from provincial and county committees, and several other important documents, which no longer left a doubt respecting the extent and views of this formidable conspiracy. About the same time, likewise, the magistrates in other parts of the kingdom discovered other papers that were circulated by the society, and which served to confirm the discoveries already made, and to throw additional light on the proceedings of the conspirators.

The most active and vigorous measures were now adopted by government. A very considerable addition was made to the military force of the kingdom; a bill was passed, prohibiting seditious meetings; the habeas corpus act was suspended; whole counties were proclaimed out of the king's peace, and seizures made of great quantities of concealed arms. In the enforcement of these measures; many acts of rigour, and even of cruelty, appear to have been committed by the agents of government; but it should be at the same time remembered, that numerous acts of atrocious barbarity were likewise committed by the rebels. The loyalists knew that if the schemes of their enemies proved successful, the plunder and confiscation of their property was the least evil they had to fear. The concealment and obscurity of the danger, which they knew to be imminent, might well excite a dread, which rendered them incapable of listening to the dictates of moderation, or even in some cases to those of justice.

These rigorous measures were, likewise, in some degree, still further justified by the more complete discovery which government soon after made of the traitorous designs and proceedings of the society. Among other members of it was a Mr. Reynolds, who had formerly been a silk-manufacturer of some note in the city of Dublin. He had been sworn a United Irishman in February 1797, and in the winter following appointed treasurer for the county of Kildare in which he resided, and also a colonel in the rebel army. This person, whether moved by remorse and returning love for his country, or by other motives, it is not necessary to inquire, disclosed to government, about the latter end of February 1798. the nature and extent of the conspiracy; and a meeting of delegates being summoned for the 12th of March, at the house of Mr. Oliver Bond, he gave information of it; in consequence of which fourteen of the delegates were apprehended, with their secretary, M'Can; and at the same time Dr. M'Nevin, counsellor Emmett, and some other active members of the societies were taken into custody. A warrant had been issued against lord Edward Fitzgerald, but he escaped; he was afterwards, however, discovered in the place of his concealment, when, on the police officers entering the room, the unhappy nobleman made a desperate defence: he wounded two of the principal of them, Mr. justice Swan, and captain Ryan, dangerously; and was himself so severely wounded, that he languished a few days only before he expired.

The seizure of the delegates gave a fatal blow to all the plans of the United Irishmen. A new directory was chosen; but their proceedings were soon disclosed by another informer, a captain Armstrong, who had pretended to enter into the conspiracy with the intention of discovering their schemes and betraying them to government. The confusion and alarm into which the rebels were thrown by the discovery of their plots, and the apprehending of their leaders, determined them to make a desperate effort; and a general insurrection was resolved on by the military committee, to take place on the 23d of March. But government being perfectly informed of the intentions of the conspirators, caused several of the principal of them to be apprehended; on the 19th and 21st the city and county of Dublin were proclaimed, by the lord-lieutenant and council, in a state of insurrection; the guards of the castle and of all the principal objects of attack were trebled, and the whole city in fact converted into a garrison. The infatuated multitude, however, implicitly obedient to the directions they had received from their leaders, rose at the time appointed in various parts of the country; and, on the 25th, appeared in great force, their number amounting to not less than 15,000,

in the neighbourhood of Wexford and Enniscorthy, and attacked and cut in pieces the whole of a party of the North Cork militia, except colonel Foote, and two privates. They then made an attack, on the 28th, on the town of Enniscorthy, which they carried sword in hand; and on the 30th made themselves masters of Wexford, where they liberated from prison Mr. Beauchamp Bagenal Harvey, who was afterwards nominated to the chief command of their army. Under him, as their general, they attacked the town of New Ross, but were repulsed with great slaughter. They were likewise repulsed in their attacks on some other places. The royal forces, however, suffered a check on the 4th of June, when the strong post of the rebels being attacked by colonel Walpole, he was unfortunately killed in the beginning of the action, and his corps, being in a situation in which it was unable to act, was forced to retire to Arklow. Encouraged by this success, the rebel army, on the 9th, presented itself before Arklow, where general Needham commanded a considerable body of the king's troops; but the position that general had taken, and the dispositions he made, were such that they were defeated with great loss.

On the 21st of June, general Lake made his grand attack on the strong position of the rebels on Vinegar-hill, near Enniscorthy, having gradually collected troops from every part till he had almost surrounded them. They maintained their ground obstinately for an hour and a half, but at length fled with precipitation, leaving behind them a great number of killed and wounded; and thirteen small pieces of ordnance of different calibres.

Immediately after this action, a large body of the king's forces advanced to Wexford, which general Moore entered so opportunely, as to prevent the town from being laid in ashes. The rebels, before they evacuated the town, offered to treat; but general Lake refused to sign any terms with rebels with arms in their hands; though to the deluded multitude he promised pardon, on condition of delivering up their leaders and returning to their allegiance. The rebel troops immediately evacuated the town. Their general, Bagenal Harvey, had quitted them soon after the battle of New Ross; but being discovered and taken with some others in a cave, he was tried by a court-martial, and executed on the bridge of Wexford.

In the beginning of June alarming commotions likewise took place in the North of Ireland, and the insurrection soon became almost general in the counties of Down and Antrim; but on the 12th the rebels received a complete defeat at Ballynahinch, where they lost upwards of four hundred men. They fought with great obstinacy, and their leader Munro was taken prisoner, and afterwards executed.

The English government, in the mean time, though not dissatisfied with the conduct of lord Camden, resolved to give Ireland a military lord-lieutenant; and the marquis Cornwallis arrived at Dublin in that capacity on the 20th of June, and immediately assumed the reins of government. The conduct of his lordship was temperate and judicious. On the 17th of July he sent a message to the house of commons by lord Castlereagh, intimating that he had received his majesty's commands to acquaint them, "that he had signified his gracious intention of granting a general pardon for all offences committed on or before a certain day, upon such conditions, and with such exceptions, as might be compatible with the general safety."—But "these offers of mercy to the repentant were not to preclude measures of vigour against the obstinate."

A special commission was now opened in Dublin for the trial of the principal delinquents,—several of whom were tried and executed. Among them Mr. Oliver Bond was tried, convicted, and condemned; and in his fate the other conspirators began to foresee their own. The rebellion appeared to be completely crushed; the fugitive rebels were every where returning to their allegiance, and delivering up their arms, and no hope remained of any effectual assistance from France. In this situation a negotiation was opened between the Irish government and the state prisoners; the issue of which was, that government consented to pardon Mr. Bond, and desist from any further prosecution of the other leaders of the conspiracy, who on their parts engaged to make a full confession of all the proceedings and plans of the society; after which they were to be permitted to transport themselves to any country not at war with his majesty. The information they communicated was laid before the Irish house of commons, and has furnished materials for the brief account here given. Mr. Oliver Bond survived his pardon only a few days; and Mr. Arthur O'Connor, Dr. M'Nevin, and the rest, after having been a considerable time confined in Ireland, were removed to prisons in Scotland; whence, after the conclusion of the late peace, they were permitted to transport themselves to France, where they still remain.

After the failure of the expedition under general Hoche, France, fortunately for Great Britain, made no attempt to assist the Irish insurgents till it was too late; and the aid then sent was very feeble, and inadequate to the end proposed. On the 22d of August, some frigates and transports from France appeared in Killala Bay, and landed about a thousand men, with a quantity of arms and ammunition. The number of insurgents who joined the invaders was not considerable; but the French general Humbert, by his conduct, proved himself an officer of ability, and worthy of command where there was a fairer prospect of success. He advanced without loss of time to Castlebar, where general Lake was collecting his forces, attacked, and compelled him to retreat with the loss of six pieces of cannon and a few men; after which he advanced towards Tuam: but on the 7th of September the marquis Cornwallis came up with the French in the vicinity of Castlebar, when they retreated, and the next morning, after a slight resistance, surrendered at discretion. The rebels who had joined them were dispersed, and a great number of them killed or taken. Another effort was afterwards made by the French to support, or rather to rekindle the flames of rebellion in Ireland. On the 17th of September a fleet sailed from France, consisting of one ship of the line (the Hoche) and eight frigates, with troops and ammunition on board, destined for Ireland; but this armament was completely defeated by the squadron under the command of sir John Borlase Warren, as has been already related in our summary of the affairs of England.

The few remaining troops of rebels, who were dispersed among the woods and mountains, now successively laid down their arms. A chief of the name of Holt, at the head of a number of banditti, continued for some time to commit depredations in the mountainous parts of the county of Wicklow: but at last it was believed that he made terms with government, and was permitted to save his life by relinquishing for ever his native country.

Every estimate of the number of those who lost their lives in this deplorable contest must necessarily be vague and uncertain. Some have stated it at thirty thousand, while others have swelled it to a hundred thousand,—of whom they say, nine tenths were of the insurgents; the

loss of the royalists being about ten thousand men. Slaughter and desolation at length procured a kind of peace; but the great problem was, to discover by what means the flames of discord might be prevented from bursting out afresh. As the most effectual preventative of a repetition of these calamities, government recommended a legislative union of the two kingdoms. A proposition for such an union was submitted to the parliament of England and Ireland on the same day (January 22, 1799), and in both houses of the English parliament, the address, which is considered as an approbation of the measure, passed without division. A similar address was carried in the Irish house of lords by a majority of thirty-three, but rejected in the commons by a majority of two, which the next day increased to six against the measure, which was therefore laid aside for that time. Government, however, by no means totally abandoned it; for, in the beginning of the next session, on the 15th of January 1800, the proposition was again submitted to the parliament of Ireland; when the address in the house of lords passed without a debate; and, after an animated discussion in the commons, which lasted till the noon of the following day, was approved by a majority of forty-two. The act of union afterwards passed the British parliament, received the royal assent on the 2nd of July 1800, and took place on the 1st of January 1801.

How far this union will prove a remedy for the distressed condition and discontents of the poor, time must discover. At first view it seems difficult to say how a legislative union can remove the cause of the civil commotions which have lately distracted that unfortunate kingdom; how it can lessen religious prejudices, or prevent, what it seems rather calculated to increase, the expenditure of Irish property at a distance from the country whence it is derived. Yet it must not be denied that unity in government has many advantages, and is indeed essentially necessary; and that a close connexion and firm consolidation of the three kingdoms, with an impartial and equal distribution of protection and rights, fairly granted and faithfully maintained, must tend to infuse new life into every part of the united nation, while it adds to the prosperity, the wealth, and the power, of the whole.

Notwithstanding the union, however, a spirit of discontent and disaffection still manifests itself among the lower orders in many parts of Ireland. The agents of the leaders in the last rebellion, who, after the late peace, were permitted to transport themselves to France, soon renewed their attempts to excite an insurrection similar to the former: but, fearing that their designs were discovered, in consequence of the blowing up of a house in which they had concealed a quantity of gunpowder and arms, they were induced to rise before their plans were matured. On the 23d of July 1803, great numbers of persons of the lower classes suddenly flocked to Dublin from different parts of the country; and a riotous mob assembled with a view to surprise the castle. Meeting in Thomas-street with lord Kilwarden, the chief justice of Ireland, who had conducted the prosecutions after the last rebellion, as attorney-general, they forced him and his nephew, who was with him, out of his carriage, and barbarously murdered them with their pikes. The delay which the perpetration of this atrocious act occasioned, has been supposed (so little were government apprised of their designs) to have saved the castle, by affording time for the Liberty Rangers, and some regular troops, to collect, who attacked and dispersed them, but not till lieutenant-colonel Brown, of the 21st regiment, and six or seven others of the military had unfortunately lost their

lives. Many persons were apprehended and tried, and several suffered death, for this feeble and frantic attempt at rebellion. Among those executed was Emmet, the son of the counsellor of that name, who, it is probable, was the principal director and leader of the misguided rabble. Government has since taken the necessary precautions to guard against the danger of any similar attempts, and the country now appears to be in a tolerable state of tranquillity.

FRANCE.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

Miles.
 Length 610 } between { 42° 0' and 51° 0' north latitude.
 Breadth 560 } { 5° 0' west and 8° east longitude.

France, before the revolution, contained 161,810 square miles, with 172 inhabitants to each.

At present, including all the conquered countries annexed to its territory, it contains 191,700 square miles, with 178 inhabitants to each.

NAME.] France took its name from the Franks, or *Freemen*, a German nation, restless and enterprising, who conquered the Gauls, the ancient inhabitants: and the Roman force not being able to repress them, they were permitted to settle in the country by treaty.

BOUNDARIES.] It is bounded by the English Channel and Holland on the north; by Italy, Switzerland, and Germany, from which it is separated by the Rhine, on the east; by the Mediterranean and the Pyrenean Mountains, which divide it from Spain, on the south; and by the Bay of Biscay on the west.

DIVISIONS.] The ancient provinces of France were divided by the first national assembly into 83 departments, which have been increased by new acquisitions to 108, including the six departments into which Piedmont, recently declared a part of France, has been divided. The situation, names, extent in square miles, and population, of these departments, according to the accounts lately published by the French government, are as follows:—

Ancient Provinces.	Departments.	Chief Towns.	Square Miles.	Population.	
French Flanders	Nord	Douai	1758	774,450	
Artois	Pas de Calais.	Arras	2054	566,061	
Picardy	Somme	Amiens	1900	465,034	
Normandy	} Lower Seine. .	Rouen	1858	642,773	
		Calvados . . .	Caen	1645	480,317
		Manche	Coutances	2009	528,912
		Orne	Alençon	1859	397,931
		Eure	Evreux	1803	415,574
Isle of France ..	} Seine	Paris { N.L. 48. 50. }	132	629,763	
		{ E.L. 2. 25. }			
		Seine and Oise	Versailles	1715	429,523
		Oise	Beauvais	1774	369,086
	Aisne	Laon	2165	430,628	

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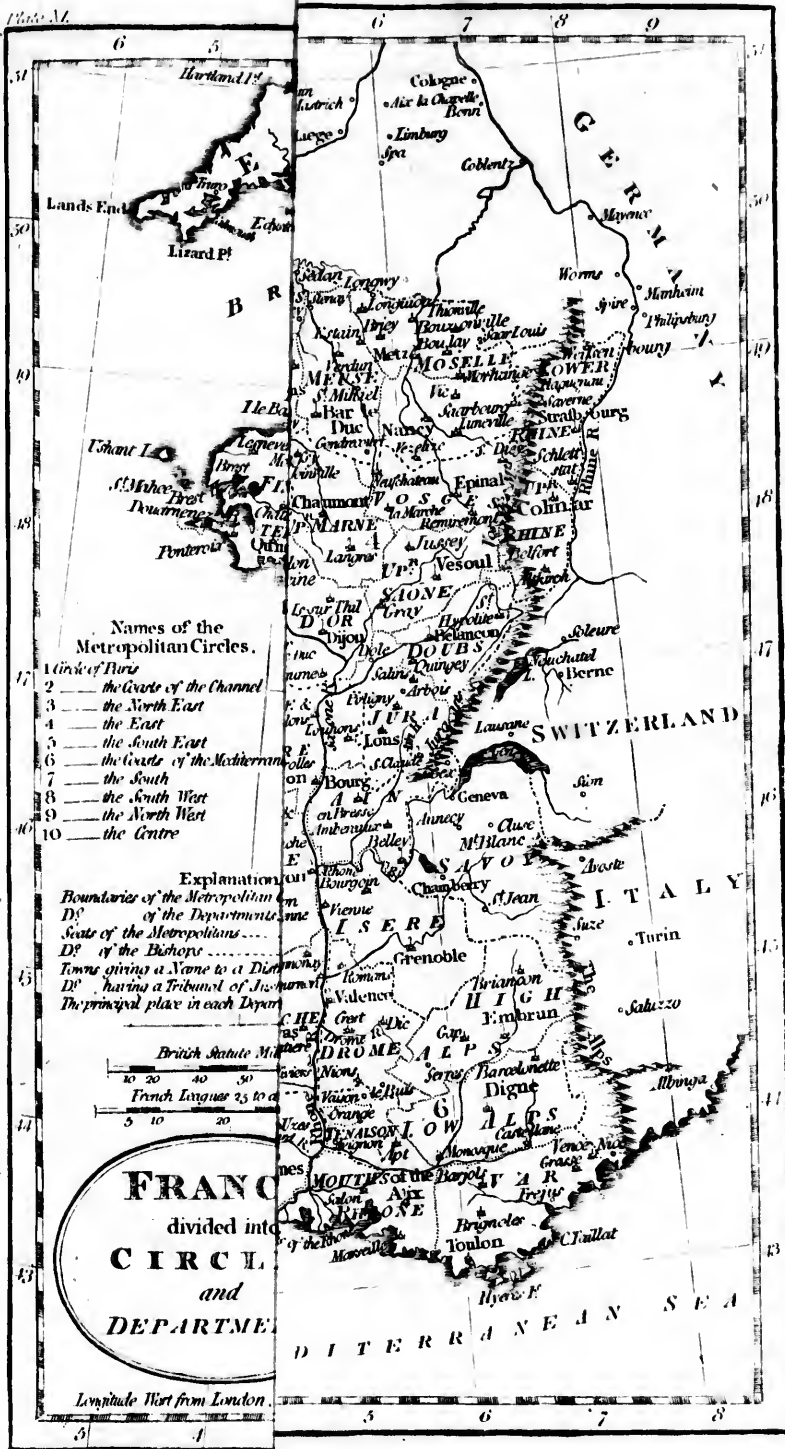
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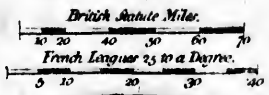
Popula-
 tion.
 74,450
 66,061
 65,034
 42,773
 80,317
 28,912
 97,931
 15,574
 29,763
 20,523
 69,086
 30,628





- Names of the Metropolitan Circles.
- 1 Circle of Paris
 - 2 — the Coast of the Channel
 - 3 — the North East
 - 4 — the East
 - 5 — the South East
 - 6 — the Coast of the Mediterranean
 - 7 — the South
 - 8 — the South West
 - 9 — the North West
 - 10 — the Centre

- Explanation.
- Boundaries of the Metropolitan Circles.....
 - Do of the Departments.....
 - Seats of the Metropolitans.....
 - Do of the Bishops.....
 - Towns giving a Name to a District.....
 - Do having a Tribunal of Justice.....
 - The principal place in each Department in Print or Caen.....



FRANCE
divided into
CIRCLES
and
DEPARTMENTS.

Longitude West from London.



1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8

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MEDITERRANEAN SEA

GERMANY

SWITZERLAND

ITALY

ENGLAND

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50

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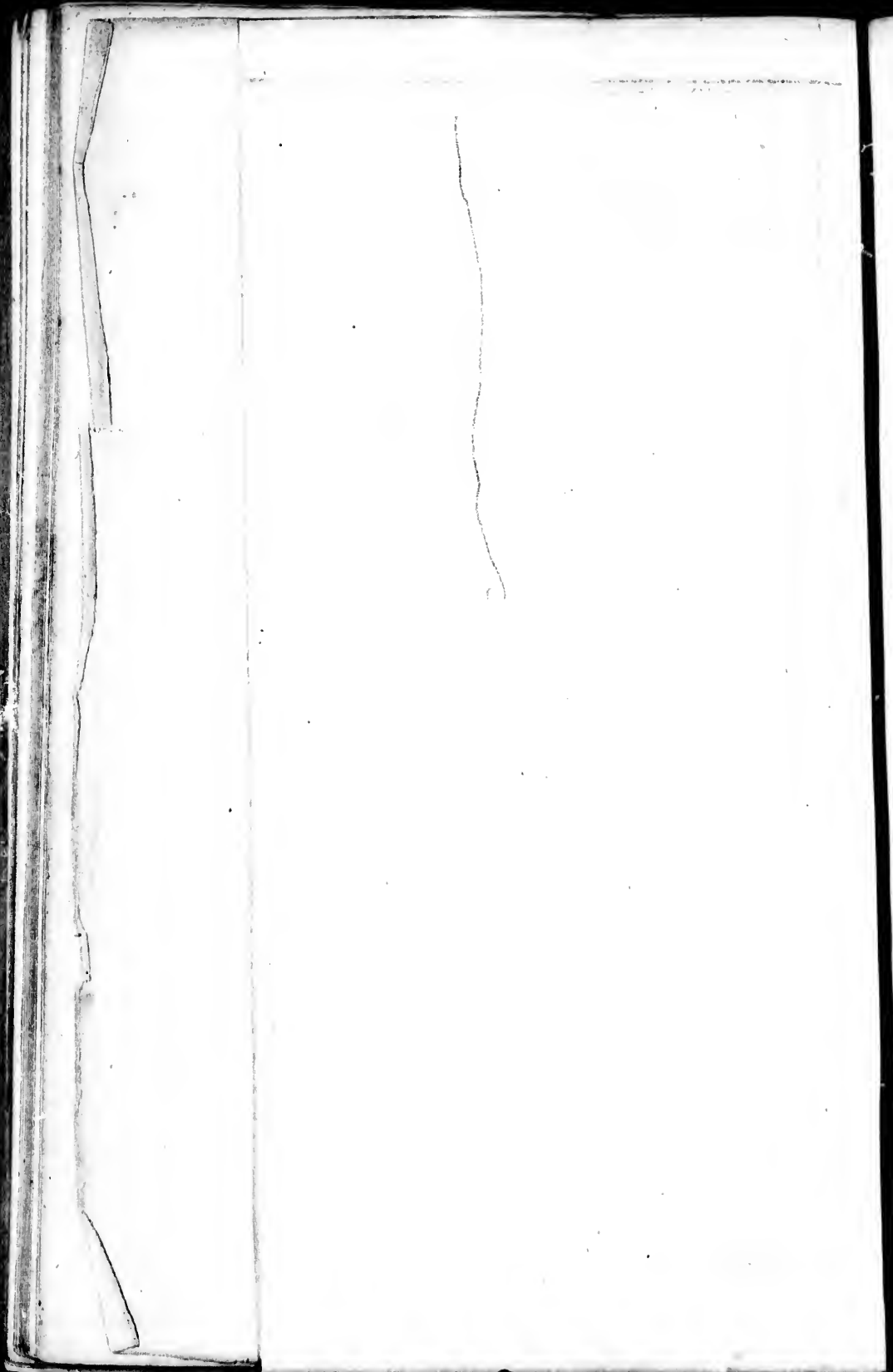
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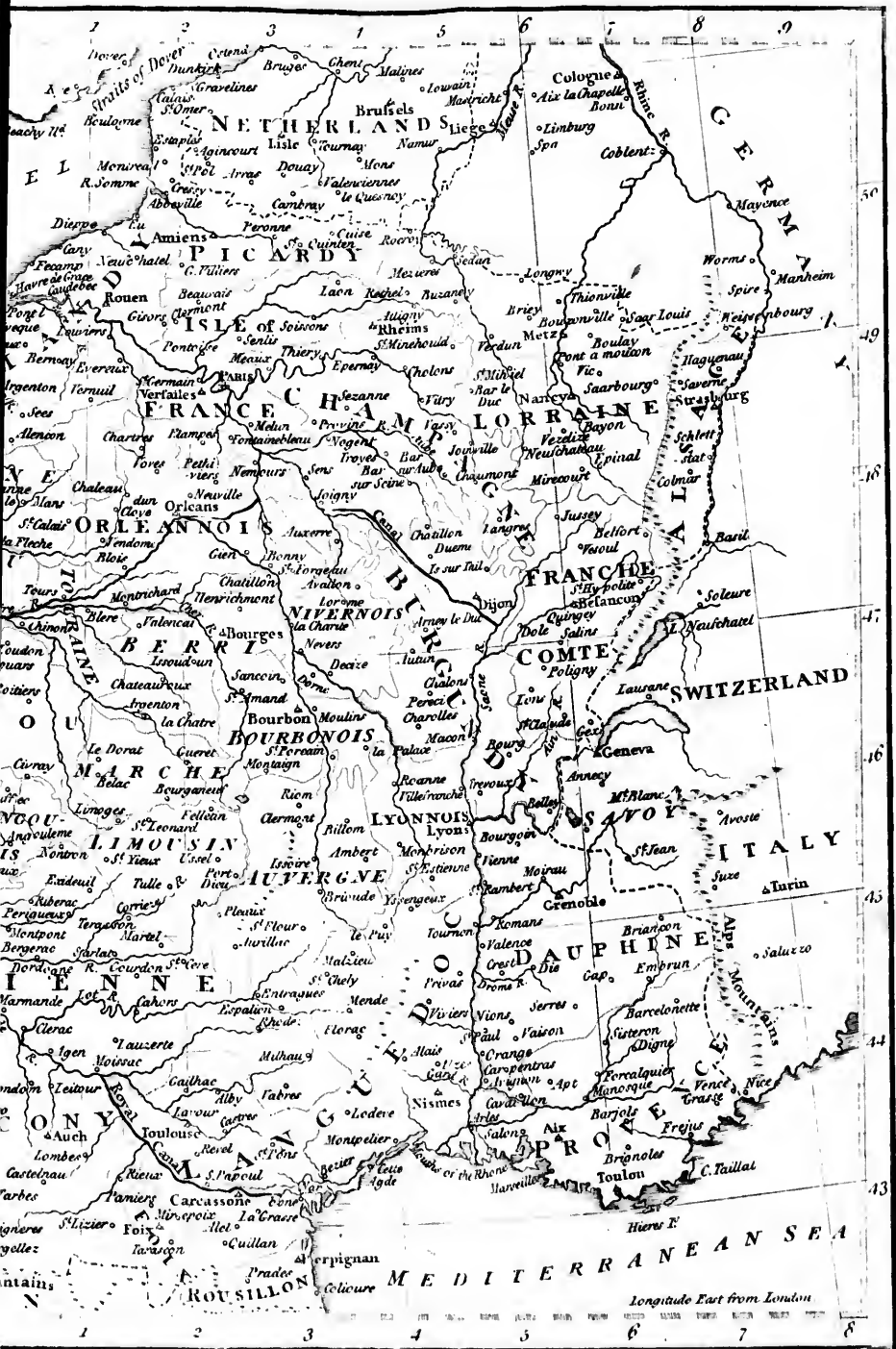






FRANCE.
Divided into
MILITARY GOVERNMENTS.

Longitude West from London.



Ancient Provinces.	Departments.	Chief Towns.	Square Miles.	Popula- tion.
Champagne	Seine & Marne	Melun	1787	298,815
	Marne	Chaloussur Marne	2473	310,493
	Ardennes	Sedan	1820	264,036
	Aube	Troyes	1820	240,661
Lorrain	Upper Marne	Chaumont	1907	225,350
	Meuse	Bar sur Ornain	1830	275,898
	Moselle	Metz	1910	353,788
	Meurthe	Nancy	1875	342,107
Alsace	Vosges	Epinal	1992	308,052
	Lower Rhine	Strasbourg	1661	444,858
	Upper Rhine	Colmar	1758	382,285
Bretagne	Isleand Vilaine	Rennes	2037	488,605
	Lower Loire	Nantes	2232	368,506
	Cotes du Nord	St. Brioux	2207	499,927
	Finisterre	Quimper	2226	474,349
Maine & Perche	Morbihan	Vannes	2061	425,485
	Sarthe	Le Mans	1886	387,166
Anjou	Mayenne	Laval	1590	328,597
	Mayenne and Loire	Angers	2227	376,033
Touraine	Indre and Loire	Tours	1882	278,758
Orleanois	Loiret	Orleans	2035	289,728
	Eure and Loire	Chartres	1794	259,967
	Loire and Cher	Blois	1959	211,152
Berry	Cher	Bourges	2154	218,297
	Indre	Chateauroux	2157	207,911
Nivernois	Nievre	Nevers	2148	251,158
Bourbonnois	Allier	Moulins	2165	272,616
Burgundy	Yonne	Auxerre	2257	333,278
	Côte d'Or	Dijon	2681	347,842
	Saoneand Loire	Macon	2600	447,565
	Upper Saone	Vesoul	1628	237,461
Franche Comté	Doubs	Besançon	1557	227,075
	Jura	Lons le Souldier	1538	289,865
	Ain	Bourg	1681	284,455
Poitou	Vienne	Poitiers	2141	250,807
	Deux Sevres	Niort	1848	242,658
	Vendée	Fontenay le Comte	2112	270,271
Saintonge and Aunis	Lower Cha- rente	Saintes	2114	402,105
Angoumois	Charente	Angouleme	1840	321,477
Marche	Creuse	Gueret	1721	216,255
Limosin	Upper Vienne	Limoges	1750	259,795
	Correze	Tulles	1708	243,654
Auvergne	Puy de Dome	Clermont	2464	508,444
	Cantal	St. Flour	1731	237,224
Lyonnois	Rhone	Lyon	856	345,644
	Loire	Montbrison	1498	292,588
Dauphiné	Iser	Grenoble	2494	441,208
	Drome	Valence	2020	211,188
Guyenne	Upper Alps	Gap	1648	118,322
	Gironde	Bordeaux	3287	519,685

FRANCE.

Ancient Provinces.	Departments.	Chief Towns.	Square Miles.	Popula- tion.
Perigord	{ Dordogne....	Perigueux	2766	410,350
		Lot & Garonne	Agen	1780
Quercy	Lot	Cahors	2168	383,683
Rovergue and Marche	{ Aveyron	Rodes	2764	328,195
		Landes	Mont de Marson	2763
Gascony	{ Gers	Auch	2055	291,845
		Arriège	Foix	1473
	{ Upper Pyre- nees	Tarbes	1440	206,680
		Lower Pyre- nees	Pau	2354
Rousillon	Eastern Pyre- nees	Perpignan	1265	117,764
Languedoc	{ Upper Ga- ronne	Toulouse	2356	432,263
		Tarn	Alby	1774
	Aude	Carcassone	1908	226,198
	Herault	Montpellier	1982	291,957
	Gard	Nismes	1832	309,052
Cevennes	{ Lozere	Mende	1572	155,936
		Ardeche	Privas	1665
	Upper Loire ..	Le Puy	1540	237,901
Provence	{ Mouths of the Rhone	Aix	1550	320,072
		Lower Alps ..	Digne	2162
	Var	Toulon	2190	269,142
Corsica	{ Golo	Bastia	953	103,466
		Liamone	Ajaccio	862

NEW UNITED DEPARTMENTS.

Ancient Names.	Departments.	Chief Towns.	Square Miles.	Popula- tion.
Territory of Avig- non and Coun- ty of Venaissin	{ Vaucluse	Avignon	1079	190,180
		Mont Blanc ..	Chambery	564
Savoy	Maritime Alps	Nice	1008	87,071
County of Nice	{ Lemman	Geneva	1140	215,884
City and territory of Geneva				

NETHERLANDS.

Ancient Names.	Departments.	Chief Towns.	Square Miles.	Popula- tion.
Flanders	{ Lys	Bruges	1068	470,707
		Scheldt	Ghent	1061
	Jemmappe ...	Mons	1127	412,129
Brabant	{ Deux Nethe s	Antwerp	771	249,876
		Dyle	Brussels	951

Ancient Names.	Departments.	Chief Towns.	Square Miles.	Popula- tion.
Duchy of Guel- derland.....	Lower Meuse	Maestricht	2056	232,662
Liege and Duchy of Limbourg .				
County of Na- mur	Sambre and Meuse	Namur	1343	165,192
Duchy of Lux- emburg				
	Forets	Luxemburg	2065	225,549

GERMAN TERRITORY ON THE LEFT BANK OF THE RHINE.

Ancient Names.	Departments.	Chief Towns.	Square Miles.	Popula- tion.
Archbishopric of Cologne	Roer	Aix-la-Chapelle..	1953	516,246
Archbishopric of Treyes	Rhine and Mo- selle	Coblentz	1415	203,290
Duchy of Deux Ponts	Sarre			
Archbishopric of Mentz	Mont Tonnerre	Mentz	1779	342,316

PIEDMONT.

Ivrea	Ivrea	1383	252,200
Marengo	Alexandria.....	990	373,400
Po	Turin	778	437,500
Sesia	Vergeil	576	206,200
Stara	Coni	1800	396,500
Tanaro	Asti	864	281,000

Each department is divided into three, four, or five districts, called *communal arrondissements*. These districts are again subdivided into cantons, which are composed of a certain number of *communes*. A commune is sometimes a single town, and sometimes a union of several villages, possessing a mayor and communal municipality. All the considerable cities are divided into several communes.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY.] France is in general a plain country, and its appearance is very various in different parts. The departments of Upper Vienne and Correze, and others in the south, afford many rich and beautiful landscapes; while those of the old provinces of Bretagne, Anjou, and Maine, present extensive wastes of heath, and have almost the appearance of a desert.

MOUNTAINS.] The chief mountains in France, or its borders, are the Alps, which divide France from Italy; the Pyrenees, which divide France from Spain; the Vosges, which separate the department of that name from the departments of Upper Saone and Upper Rhine; Mount Jura, which divides France from Switzerland; the Cevennes, in the late province of Languedoc; and Mont d'Or, in Puy de Dome.

FORESTS.] The chief forests of France are those of Orleans, which contain 14,000 acres of wood of various kinds, oak, elm, ash, &c., and the forest of Fontainebleau, near as large; and near Morchismoir is a forest of tall, straight timber, of 4000 trees. Besides these, there are numbers of woods, some of them deserving the name of forests, in dif-

ferent departments; but too remote from sea-carriage to be of much national utility.

LAKES.] Few lakes are found in this country. There is one at the top of a hill near Alegre, which is so deep that the vulgar report it to be bottomless. There is another at Issoire, in Puy de Dome: and one at La Besse, into which if a stone be thrown, it causes a noise like thunder.

RIVERS.] The principal rivers in France are the Loire, the Rhône, 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 Rhône flows on the south-west to Lyons, and then runs on due south, till it falls into the Mediterranean. The Garonne rises in the Pyrenean mountains, takes its course first north-east, and has a communication with the Mediterranean, by means of a canal, the work of Lewis XIV. The Seine, soon after its rise, runs to the north-west, visiting Troyes, Paris, and Rouen, in its way, and falls into the English Channel at Havre. To these we may add the Saone, which falls into the Rhône at Lyons; the Charente, which rises near Havre de Grace, and discharges itself in the Bay of Biscay at Rochefort; the Rhine, which rises in Switzerland, is the eastern boundary between France and Germany, and receives the Moselle and the Sarte in its passage; the Somme, which rises in the department of Aisne, and passing by St. Quentin, Peronne, and Amiens, falls into the English Channel below Abbeville; the Var, which rises in the Alps, and runs south, dividing France from Italy, and falling into the Mediterranean, west of Nice; and the Adour, which rises in the department of the Upper Pyrenees, and, running from east to west by Tarbes and Dax, falls into the Bay of Biscay, below Bayonne.

CANALS.] 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 expense for 100 miles, over hills and valleys, and even through a mountain in one place, it has not answered that purpose. By the canal of Paris, travellers easily pass by water from thence to St. Omer, Graveline, Dunkirk, Ypres, and other places. The canal of Orleans is another noble work, and runs a course of eighteen leagues, to the immense benefit of the public and the royal revenue. France abounds with other canals of the like kind, which render her inland navigation inexpressibly commodious and beneficial.

MINERAL WATERS AND } REMARKABLE SPRINGS. } The waters of Barrege, which lie near the borders of Spain, under the Pyrenean mountains, have been preferred to all the others of France, for the recovery of health: but probably 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 to the virtues of the waters. The waters of Sultzbach, in the department of the Upper Rhine, are said to cure the palsy, weak nerves, and the stone. At Bagneres, not far from Barrege, are celebrated mineral-waters and baths, to which people resort as to the English baths, at spring and autumn. Forges, in the department of the Lower Seine, is celebrated for its mineral waters; and those of St. Amand cure the gravel and obstructions. It would be

endless to enumerate all the other real or pretended mineral-wells in France, as well as many remarkable springs; but there is one near Aigne, in Puy de Dome, 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, it is said, die instantly.

METALS AND MINERALS.] France has many unworked *mines*, which would be very productive, if duly attended to; but at present do not yield minerals sufficient for consumption. The value of the iron, copper, tin, and other metals, imported from abroad, in a raw state, amounted, in the year 1787, to 900,000*l.*, and that of manufactured steel to above 250,000*l.* Exertions have, however, since been made to work the native mines of iron, with which the northern departments especially abound; and, in 1798, it was computed that there were 2000 furnaces and forges for the working of iron and steel. The late province of 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. Bretagne abounds in mines of iron, copper, tin, and lead. Salt-petre is made in every part of the kingdom, and *sea-salt* is now procured free from oppressive duty, but not remarkable for its purity. 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 dyeing, particularly the best drab cloth: 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 free-stone open all over the kingdom.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND AGRICULTURE.] The air, particularly that of the interior parts of the country, is in general mild and wholesome; but some authors think it is not nearly 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 indeed 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. The soil is excellent, and produces corn, wine, oil, and almost every luxury of life. Some of the fruits have a higher flavour than those of England; but neither the pasturage nor tillage are comparable to ours. The heats, in many parts, burn up the ground, so that it has no verdure; and the soil barely produces as much rye and chesnuts as serve to subsist the poor inhabitants.

Notwithstanding great efforts made in agriculture, much of the land remains uncultivated; and although some provinces, as Alsace and Languedoc, yield an exuberance of corn, it is frequently imported.

VEGETABLES.] 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. France abounds in esculent roots, in all kinds of sallads, and in excellent fruits, particularly grapes, figs, prunes, chesnuts, apples in the northern provinces, and capers in the southern. It produces annually, though not enough for consumption, above twelve million pounds of tobacco, besides hemp, flax, manna, saffron, and many drugs. Alsace, Burgundy, Lorraine, and especially the Pyrenean mountains, supply it plentifully with timber and other wood. Silk is so abundantly produced, besides what is im-

ported, as to afford a considerable trade. The province of Gatinois 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.

Wine, the staple, is made to the value of 15,000,000*l.* annually, more than an eighth part of which, besides brandy and vinegar, was exported. Olive oil is made in large quantities, particularly in the provinces next the Mediterranean ; but the consumption is so great, that much of it is imported from Italy ; the inferior sort supplies the soap manufactories of Marseilles. Languedoc produces an herb called kali, which, when burnt, makes excellent barilla, or pot-ashes. The French formerly were famous for horticulture, but they are at present far inferior to the English both in the 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 and wild boars. Their horses, black cattle, and sheep, 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 the sea-coast, with salt-water fish.

NATURAL CURIOSITIES.] The natural curiosities of France consist chiefly in subterraneous caverns and remarkable springs. Near Salins, in the department of Jura, are several remarkable caves, the extent of which, taken together, is about 400 feet in length, and 60 in breadth. The descent into them is by 40 stone steps, and 20 of wood. At the bottom, by the aid of lighted torches, may be seen six springs of salt water, and two of fresh, gushing out and running with great rapidity. The streams are kept separate by proper trenches, which conduct them into other vaults, supported by large pillars ; wherein are placed reservoirs for the reception of the salt water, which is afterwards conveyed to the top by proper engines, and, being put into pans, great quantities of salt are extracted from it. At Baulme, 12 miles from Besançon, is a cavern above 300 feet under ground, full of icicles, and at the bottom a little river, which, it is said, flows in the winter, and is frozen in the summer. In the neighbourhood of Nismes is a subterraneous cavern, which, the vulgar pretend, reaches to Arles, passing under the Rhone a distance of 20 miles.

Among the natural curiosities of this country may likewise be reckoned the plain of La Crau, in Provence, near the mouth of the Rhone, which is the most singular stoney desert perhaps in Europe. It is about five leagues in diameter, and contains between 20 and 25 square leagues, or about 150,000 English acres. It is entirely composed of shingle, or round gravel ; some of the stones are as large as the head of a man.

POPULATION.] The population of France, before the revolution, was estimated at about 20,000,000 ; but the number of inhabitants in the original territory of France is now found to amount, according to the enumeration lately published by the French government, to 27,989,924. To which if we add the population of the recently united

departments, or the countries which the ambition of that government has violently annexed to its own territory, including Piedmont, the whole will be swelled to the prodigious amount of 35,051,143.

NATIONAL CHARACTER, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS. } 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 ladies are celebrated more for their sprightly wit than personal beauty: the peasantry in general are remarkably ordinary, and are best described by being contrasted with women of the same rank in England. The upper classes accomplish themselves in the 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, before the revolution, had left off their heavy jack-boots, their huge war-saddle, and monstrous curb bridle, in that exercise, and accommodated themselves to the English manners.

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 impels them to actions to which true courage inspires other nations. This character has been conspicuous both in the higher and middling ranks, where it produces excellent officers; and in the common soldiers of France, who, it must be confessed, in the late war against the allied powers, exhibited prodigies of valour.

The French affect freedom and wit; but fashionable dresses and diversions engross too much of their conversation. 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; though in prosperity many of them are apt to be insolent, vain, arbitrary, and imperious.

The French have been much censured for insincerity; but this charge has been carried too far, and the imputation is generally owing to their excess of civility, which renders their candour suspicious: in private life, they have certainly many amiable qualities; and a great number of instances of generosity and disinterestedness may be found amongst them.

It is doing the French no more than justice to acknowledge, that, as they are themselves polite, so they have given a polish to the ferocious manners, and even virtues, of other nations. Before the revolution, they were disposed to think very favourably of the English. They both imitate and admire our writers; the names of Bacon, Locke, Newton, Milton, Pope, Addison, Hume, Robertson, Richardson, and many others, are sacred among the French of any education.

With several defects, the French have many good qualities; politeness of manners, attention to strangers, and a general taste for literature among those in the better ranks of life.

The French dress of both sexes is so well known, that it is needless to expatiate upon it 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 service to their manufactures.

CITIES AND CHIEF TOWNS.] Paris, the capital of France, is divided into three parts,—the city, the university, and that which was formerly called the town. The city is old Paris; the university and the town are the new. Paris contains more works of public magnificence than utility. Its palaces are showy, and some of its streets, squares, hotels, hospitals, and churches, superbly decorated with a profusion of paintings, tapestry, images, and statues; but Paris, notwithstanding its boasted police, is greatly inferior to London in many of the conveniences of life, and the solid enjoyments of society. Without entering into more minute disquisitions, Paris, it must be owned, is the paradise of splendour and dissipation. The tapestry of the Gobelins* is unequalled for beauty and richness. The Louvre is a building that does honour to architecture itself: it was adorned by many excellent institutions for the arts and sciences, particularly the three academies, and ennobled by the residence of the learned. The Tuilleries, the palace of Luxemburg, where a valuable collection of paintings are shown, the royal palace and 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 streets are very narrow, and the houses very high, many of them seven stories. The houses are built of stone, and often contain 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 eyes 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 is undoubtedly owing to the reputation of their language, their public buildings, 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, Paris, in general, will not bear a comparison with London, in the more essential circumstances of a thriving foreign and domestic trade, the cleanliness of their streets, neatness 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,

* One Goblei, a noted dyer at Rheims, was the first who settled in this place, in the reign of Francis I., and the house has retained his name ever since: and here the great Colbert, about the year 1667, established that valuable manufactory.

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. Their shops are but poorly stored with goods; and the shop-keepers and tradesmen are an indolent, loitering people. There is a remarkable contrast between this class of persons 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, and the invincible force of their armies. The splendour of the grand monarch used to be also with them a favourite topic of conversation, previous to the change in their political system. The Parisians, however, as well as the natives of France in general, are remarkably temperate in their living; and to be intoxicated with liquor is considered as infamous. Bread, and all manner of butcher's meat and poultry, are extremely good in Paris; the beef is excellent; the wine they generally drink is a very thin kind of Burgundy. The common people, in the summer season, live chiefly on bread, butter, grapes, and small wine. The Parisians, till lately, scarcely knew the use of tea; but they have coffee in plenty. The population of this city has been greatly exaggerated both by the Parisians and by travellers: the number of inhabitants, according to the official statements of the government, is 546,856.

The environs of Paris are very pleasant, and contain a number of fine seats, small towns, and villages; some of them, being scattered on the edges of hills rising from the Seine, are remarkably delightful.

The palace of Versailles, which stands twelve miles from Paris, though magnificent and expensive beyond conception, and adorned with all that art can furnish, is a collection of buildings, each of exquisite architecture, but not forming a whole, agreeable to the grand and sublime of that art. The gardens, and water-works (which are supplied by means of prodigious engines, across the Seine at Marli, about three miles distance), are astonishing proofs of the fertile genius of man, and highly worthy of a stranger's attention. Trianon, Marli, St. Germain en Laye, Meudon, and other royal palaces, are laid out with taste and judgement; each has its peculiar beauties for the entertainment and amusement of that luxurious court which lately occupied them.

Bordeaux and Marseilles were formerly cities of extensive commerce and opulence. They still rank next to Paris in population, the former containing 112,844, and the latter 111,130 inhabitants.

Lyons a rich manufacturing city, suffered greatly in the civil wars of the revolution, but is stated still to contain 109,500 inhabitants.

The ancient city of Orleans stands on the Loire, in the department of Loiret, about sixty miles to the south of Paris. It has a noble cathedral, which commands a view of the Loire for an extent of thirty miles, and a stately bridge of nine elliptic arches, nearly a quarter of a mile in length, and forty-five feet broad. The centre arch is above a hundred feet wide. The population of this city is, however, only 36,175.

Strasburg is a strongly fortified city, and has a Gothic cathedral, the spire of which is 574 feet high.

Brest is a small but very strong town upon the English channel, with a most spacious and finely 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 there are docks, magazines for all kinds of naval stores, rope-yards, store-houses, &c.

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. 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 store-house 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 or fathoms in length, with three-arched walks. Its general magazine supplies whatever may be wanting in the particular store-houses, and contains an immense quantity of all kinds of stores, disposed in the greatest order.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] Next to Henry IV., justly styled the Great, the famous Colbert, minister to Lewis XIV., may be called the father of the French commerce and manufactures. Under him there was a great appearance that France would make as illustrious a figure, as a trading, as she did then as a warlike people; but the truth is, the French do not naturally possess that undaunted perseverance which is necessary for commerce and colonisation; 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 great inland and neighbouring trade.

The silk manufacture was introduced into France so late as the reign of Henry IV.; and in the age of his grandson Lewis XIV. the city of Tours alone employed 8000 looms and 800 mills. The city of Lyons then employed 18,000 looms; but after the impolitic and unjust revocation of the edict of Nantes, the expulsion of the protestants, and the ruinous wars maintained by France, they decreased to 4000; and their silk manufacture is now rivalled by that of England, where the French protestants took refuge, and were happily encouraged. Next to Tours and Lyons, Paris, Chatillon, and Nismes, are most celebrated for silk manufactures. France before the revolution contained 1,500 silk mills, 21,000 looms for stuffs, 12,000 for ribands and lace, 20,000 for silk stockings, all of which employed two millions of people. They also manufacture gloves and stockings from spider-silk. On the other hand, the French woollen cloths and stuffs, more especially at Abbeville, Amiens, and Paris, are said to be now little inferior to those of England, and have greatly injured them, particularly in the Turkish market, assisted by the clandestine importation of English and Irish wool, and workmen from this country.

In manufactures, the French have always been distinguished for their invention, and the English for their superior improvement. Abbeville is famous for cloth, linen, sail-cloth, and soap; Auvergne for fine thread, lace, stuffs, and paper; Nismes for fine serges; Cambrai for cambrics; St. Quintin for lawns; and Picardy for plate glass.

Mr. Anderson gives the following account of the trade of France before the revolution: "Her land trade to Switzerland and Italy is by way of Lyons—to Germany, through Metz and Strasbourg—to the Netherlands, through Lisle—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 in Europe, to the great advantage of France, more especially respecting what is carried on with England, Holland, and Italy. The trade from her Mediterranean ports (more particularly from Marseilles) with Turkey and

Africa, has long been very considerable. The negro trade from Guinea supplies her sugar colonies, besides the gold, ivory, and drugs, got from thence."

The exports are wine, vinegar, brandy, oil, silks, satins, linens, woollen cloth, tapestries, laces, gold and silver embroideries, toys, trinkets, perfumery, paper, prints, books, drugs, dyes, &c. The imports are hardware, earthen ware, cottons, metals, hemp, flax, silk, wool, horses, East and West India goods, &c. Before the revolution France employed one million tons of shipping, with near 50,000 seamen; the imports were valued at 9,583,333*l.* the exports at 12,500,000*l.* and the nation had a *balance* of trade of more than two million in its favour; but its manufactures have since greatly declined, and its foreign commerce may be considered as annihilated while the war with England continues, the superiority of the British navy not suffering a French trading vessel to appear on the seas.

[CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] France, by the revolution in 1789, founded a *new constitution*, upon the principle that all men are free, and equal in their rights. After the death of the king, in the year 1793, another constitution was framed, and adopted, which was again succeeded by another, usually called the *constitution of the third year*. By this constitution the government was vested in a directory of five members; and a legislative body composed of a council of ancients, of two hundred and fifty members, and a council of five hundred.

But in November 1799 this constitution was likewise overthrown, and a new form of government erected, consisting of what is called a conservative senate of eighty members; a tribunate of one hundred; a legislative body of three hundred; and three consuls, nominated for ten years and indefinitely re-eligible. The first consul, which office was held by general Bonaparte, possessed all the real powers of government. Bonaparte afterwards procured himself to be declared consul for life; and has since, with equal arrogance and vanity, assumed the title of *Emperor*, and remains in the possession and exercise of the most arbitrary power. The imperial authority is declared hereditary in the male line of his posterity, or, that failing, in that of his imperial brothers Joseph and Louis Bonaparte.

[LAWS.] With respect to the judicial administration of the country, when the will of the present despot does not interfere, the laws are grounded on the Roman, or civil and particular local customs. Each district has a primary judicial tribunal, and each department a criminal tribunal.—Every three departments possess a tribunal of appeal, which takes cognizance by appeal of all the causes determined by the tribunals of the districts under its jurisdiction. Each canton has a justice of the peace. All the tribunals of appeal acknowledge a superior tribunal, called the *court of cassation*, possessing the power of annulling the sentences of the tribunals of appeal which appear to it illegal, and of referring the examination of the cause to any other tribunal it shall please to appoint.

[REVENUE.] The revenue in the year 1788, before the revolution, was 20 millions and a half sterling; and its ordinary expenditure exceeded the revenue five millions and a half.

The extraordinary expenses of the war carried on by the republic have been principally defrayed by the seizure of church lands, confiscations, requisitions and contributions imposed on the conquered countries, which are very different from permanent revenue.

In the year 1797, Gilbert, a member of the council of five hundred,

stated the revenue for the 6th year at 479,593,579 livres, or 19,980,000 *l.* sterling.

On the 13th of October, 1799, the executive directory sent a message to the council of five hundred, stating the amount of the receipts of the 7th year of the republic at 476,000,000 livres, or somewhat above 19,800,000 *l.* sterling. The expenses of the year they stated, at the same time, at 726,000,000 livres, or 30,250,000 *l.* sterling.

The annual contributions now charged on the one hundred and two departments, for land tax, tax on moveables and sumptuary, houses and windows, additional hundredths, &c. amount, according to official statements, to 351,438,997 livres, or 14,643,291 *l.*

[ARMY AND NAVY.] The peace establishment of the army, for the year 1792, was 111,000 infantry, 30,000 cavalry, and 11,000 artillery; in the whole 152,000 men. But when the allied powers made war on the French, the number of forces the latter brought into the field almost exceeds belief. In the year 1798, they had 780,000 men in arms. The military establishment of France, in the beginning of the year 1802, was,

	Men.
84 Regiments of cavalry, amounting to	46,350
110 Regiments of infantry	341,000
10 Demi brigades of veterans	13,960
Artillery, foot and horse	26,600
Total	427,910

The repeated victories of the English by sea, in the course of the late and present war, have now extremely reduced, and, indeed, nearly annihilated, the navy of France. She may, perhaps, however still possess about forty ships of the line, and some frigates; but they are ill-manned, and are blocked up in the ports in which they lie, by the British squadrons.

[TITLES, &c.] The first national assembly abolished all nobility, hereditary distinctions, difference of orders, titles, denominations, and prerogatives. Even the appellation of *Monsieur* was disused, and that of *Citizen* substituted in its stead. Since, however, the accession of Bonaparte to sovereign power, the term citizen is laid aside, and that of *Monsieur* revived. He has himself taken the title of *His Imperial Majesty*, and his brothers are styled *Their Imperial Highnesses*. He has appointed marshals of the empire, grand dignitaries, an arch-elect, arch-chancellor, &c. He has likewise instituted what is called a *legion of honour*, the commanders and members of which are nominated by himself, and which may perhaps be intended as an introduction to orders of nobility and hereditary distinctions to be derived from the imperial fountain of honour.

[RELIGION.] By the laws of the constitution framed by the first national assembly, no man was to be molested for his opinions, or interrupted in the exercise of his religion. The territorial possessions of the Gallican church were claimed as national property, and disposed of through the medium of a paper money, called assignats, for the creditors of the state: and the clergy made dependent upon pensionary establishments, paid out of the national treasury; out of which were also paid the expenses of worship, the religious, and the poor. All monastic establishments were suppressed; but the friars and nuns were allowed to observe their vows, and nuns optionally to remain in their convents, or retire upon pensions. By subsequent constitutions, it was declared that

there is no predominant religion in France, and that none is patronised or paid by the state; but that all sects and modes of worship shall enjoy equal toleration.

But since the administration of the government has been vested in Bonaparte, he has concluded a *concordat* or convention with the pope, by which the catholic religion is declared the religion of the great majority of the French citizens, and the government engages to make a suitable provision for the bishops and ministers. No bull or brief, however, of the court of Rome can have any effect in France without the consent of the government; and none of the clergy are to give the nuptial benediction, except to those who have been married by the civil officers. The concordat bears date, September 10, 1801.

The protestant religion, as professed by the different reformed churches, is also tolerated, and the maintenance of the ministers, when necessary, provided for in like manner by the state.

Before the revolution there were in France nineteen archbishoprics, and 118 bishoprics: by the *concordat* there are 10 archbishoprics: Paris, Maines, Bengançon, Lyons, Aix, Toulouse, Bourdeaux, Bourges, Tours, and Rouen; and 50 bishoprics.

LITERATURE.] 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, who greatly distinguished themselves by their writings; among whom were Budæus, Clement Marot, Peter du Chatel, Rabelais, and Peter Ramus. The names of Henry and Robert Stephens are also mentioned by every real scholar with respect. It was not, however, till the seventeenth century, that the French began to write with elegance in their own language. The Académie Française 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, which was universally despised; Furetières, a single academician, published another, that met 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 12,000*l.* per annum, have gained him more glory than all the military enterprises upon which he expended so many millions. The learned men who appeared in France during this reign are too numerous to be mentioned. The tragic poets, Racine and Corneille, have deservedly obtained a very high reputation; the first was distinguished for skill in moving the passions; the second, for majesty; and both, for the strength and justness of their painting, the elegance of their taste, and their strict adherence to the rules of the drama. Moliere would have exhausted the subjects of comedy, were they not every-where inexhaustible, and particularly in

France. In works of satire and criticism, Boileau, who was a close imitator of the ancients, possessed uncommon merit. But France has not yet produced an epic poem that can be mentioned with Milton's; nor a genius of the same extensive and universal kind with Shakspeare, equally fitted for the gay and the serious, the humorous and the sublime. In the eloquence of the pulpit and of the bar, the French are greatly our superiors; Bossuet, Bourdaloue, Flechier, and Massillon, have carried pulpit eloquence to a degree of perfection which we may approach to, but can hardly be expected ever to surpass. The genius, however, of their religion and government was extremely unfavourable to all improvements in the most useful branches of philosophy. All the establishments of Lewis XIV. for the advancement of science, were not able to counterbalance the influence of the clergy, whose interest it was to keep mankind ignorant in matters of religion and morality; and the influence of the court and ministry, who had an equal interest in concealing the natural rights of mankind, and every sound principle of government. The French have not therefore so many good writers on moral, religious, or political subjects, as have appeared in Great Britain. But France has produced some great men, who do honour to humanity; whose career no obstacle could stop; whose freedom no government, however despotic, no religion, however superstitious, could curb or restrain. As an historian, De Thou is entitled to the highest praise; and who is ignorant of Pascal, or of the archbishop of Cambray? Few men have done more service to religion, either by their writings or their lives. As for Montesquieu, he is the legislator of nations: his works are read in every country and language; and wherever they are read, they enlighten and invigorate the human mind. And indeed the distinguished literary productions of the reign of Lewis XV. universally breathe sentiments incompatible with superstition or despotism; but too many of them incur the opposite reproach of irreligion and licentiousness.

In the belles lettres, the lighter kinds of poetry, and lively essays, no nation ever produced more agreeable writers; among whom we may place Montaigne, D'Argens, and Voltaire, as the most considerable.

Before the immortal Newton appeared in England, Descartes was the greatest philosopher in modern times. He was the first who applied algebra to the solution of geometrical problems; which naturally prepared the way for the analytical discoveries of Newton. Many eminent mathematicians have flourished in the present age, particularly Clairaut, Bezout, and D'Alembert; the latter of whom, to the precision of a geometer, has united the talents of a fine writer.

Since the beginning of the last century, the French have almost vied with the English in natural philosophy. Buffon would deserve to be reckoned among men of science, were he not still more remarkable for his eloquence than for his philosophy. He is to be regarded as a philosophical painter of nature; and, under this view, his *Natural History* is the first work of its kind.

Their painters, Poussin, Le Brun, and, above all, Le Sueur, did honour to the age of Lewis XIV. They have none at present to compare with them in the more noble kind of painting: but M. Greuse, for portraits and conversation pieces, never perhaps was excelled.

Sculpture is in general better understood in France than in most other countries of Europe. Their engravings on copper-plates have been universally and justly celebrated; but such a liberal patronage has been afforded to English artists, that they are now thought to excel their ingenious neighbours, and have rivalled them also in the manufacture

of paper proper for such impressions. 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 are their equals in this art.

UNIVERSITIES, PUBLIC COLLEGES, } Before the révolution, there
AND ACADEMIES. } were in France twenty-eight
universities or public colleges, as follow: Aix, Angers, Arles, Avignon, Besançon, Bourdeaux, Bourges, Caen, Cahors, Dol, Douay, La Flèche, Montauban, Montpellier, Nantes, Orange, Orléans, Paris, Perpignan, Poitiers, Pont-à-Mousson, Richlieu, Rheims, Soissons, Strasbourg, Toulouse, Tournon, and Valence. Among these, the Sorbonne at Paris was the most celebrated:

The following literary establishments were supported out of the national treasury: the French Academy, Academy of Belles Lettres, Academy of Sciences, Royal Society of Medicine, King's Library, Observatory, and the Free School of Design. Under the republic, primary, central, and special schools have been established; a primary school for each canton; a central school for each department; and special schools for the higher sciences, such as astronomy, and for those arts which require a particular education for the public service, such as medicine and surgery. Education in these establishments is at the public expense, but the scholars are maintained by their parents or friends.

An academy called the *National Institute* has likewise been founded, the installation of which took place in the hall of the former Academy of Sciences, in the palace of the National Museum, formerly the Louvre. It is composed of a hundred and forty-four members; among the first of whom were found the names of La Lande, La Place, Fourcroy, Reynel, Marmontel, Volney, Berthollet, Bitaube, &c. This national academy holds a public meeting on the 15th of every month; its conferences point out and promote the progress of the arts and sciences; but it has no authority whatever over the schools.

LANGUAGE.] The French language is chiefly composed of words radically Latin, with many German derivatives introduced by the Franks. It is now rather 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 too often disregard that purity of expression which alone can render a language classical and permanent. 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 arts, sciences, and politeness.

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; and well accommodated to dalliance, compliments, and common conversation.

The Lord's Prayer in French is as follows:—*Nôtre Père, qui es aux cieux; ton nom soit sanctifié; ton regne vienne; ta volonté soit faite en la terre comme au ciel; donne nous aujourd'hui nôtre pain quotidien; pardonne nous nos offenses, comme nous pardonnons à ceux qui nous ont offensés; et ne nous induis point en tentation, mais nous delivre du mal: car à toi est le regne, la puissance, et la gloire, aux siècles des siècles. Amen.*

ANTIQUITIES.] Few countries, if we except Italy, can boast of more valuable remains of antiquity than France. Some of the French antiquities belong to the time of the Celts; and consequently, compared to them, those of Rome are modern. Father Mabillon has given us a most curious account of the sepulchres of their kings, which have been discovered so far back as Pharamond; and some of which, when broken open, were found to contain ornaments and jewels of value. At Rheims, and other parts of France, are to be seen triumphal arches: but the most entire is at Orange, erected on account of the victory obtained over the Cimbri and the Teutones by Caius Marius and Luctatius Catulus. After Gaul was reduced to a Roman province, the Romans took 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 in 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: it consists of three bridges, or tiers of arches, one above another; the height is 174 feet, and the length extends to 723. Many other ruins of antiquity are found at Nismes; but the chief are the temple of Diana, and 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 Carrée*. The architecture and sculpture of this building are so exquisitely beautiful, that it enchants even the most ignorant: and it is still entire, being very little affected either by the ravages of time or the havoc of war. At Paris, in la Rue de la Harpe, may be seen the remains of the *Thermae*, supposed to have been built by the emperor Julian, surnamed the Apostate, about the year 356, after the same model as the baths of Dioclesian. The remains of this ancient edifice are many arches, and within them a large saloon. It is fabricated of a kind of mastic, the composition of which is not now known, intermixed with small square pieces of free-stone and bricks. But the most extraordinary of all artificial curiosities is the subterraneous cavern at Paris. For the first building of that city, it was necessary to get the stone in the environs. As Paris was enlarged, the streets and suburbs extended to and were built on the ancient quarries from which the stone had been taken; and hence proceed the caverns or frightful cavities which are found under the houses in several quarters of the city. Eight persons some years since perished in one of them, a gulf of 150 feet deep, which excited the police and government to cause the buildings of several quarters to be privately propped up. All the suburbs of St. James's, Harpe-street, and even the street of Tournon, stand upon the ancient quarries; and pillars have been erected to support the weight of the houses; but as the lofty buildings, towers, and steeples, now tell the eye that what is seen in the air is wanting under the feet, so it would not require a very violent shock to throw back the stones to the places from whence they were raised.

At Arles in Provence is an obelisk of oriental granite, 52 feet high, and seven feet diameter at the base, and all but one stone. Roman temples and aqueducts are frequent in France. The most remarkable are in Burgundy and Guienne; the passage cut through the middle of a rock near Briançon in Dauphiné is thought to be a Roman work, if

not of greater antiquity. The round buckler of massy silver, taken out of the Rhône 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.

HISTORY.] The history of no country is better authenticated than that of France, and it is particularly interesting to an English reader. This country, 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 Salli, who lived on the banks of the river Sale, and who cultivated the principles of jurisprudence better than their neighbours. These Salli 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 by the feudal barons.

The first Christian monarch of the Franks (according to Daniel, one of the best French historians) was Clovis, who began his reign anno 481; and was baptised, and introduced Christianity, in the year 496. The mind of Clovis had been affected by the pathetic tale of the passion and the death of Christ; and, insensible of the beneficial consequences of the mysterious sacrifice, he exclaimed, with religious fervour, "Had I been present with my valiant Franks, I would have revenged his injuries!" But though he publicly professed to acknowledge the truth of the gospel, its divine precepts were but little respected. From this period the French history exhibits a series of great events; and we find them generally engaged in domestic broils, or 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, the glory of those 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 Norway, Denmark, and other parts of Scandinavia, ravaged the kingdom of France; and, about the year 900, obliged the French to yield 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, which 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 it engaged that nation in almost perpetual wars with England, for which it was not an equal match, notwithstanding its numbers, and the assistance it received from Scotland.

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 many 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 many of the nobility, who died abroad without heirs.

But, passing over the dark ages of the crusades, the expedition to the Holy Land, and wars with England, which have already been mentioned, we shall proceed to that period when the French began to extend their influence over Europe, in the reign of Francis I., contemporary with Henry VIII. of England. This prince, though he was brave to excess in his own person, and had defeated the Swiss, who till then were deemed invincible, was an unfortunate warrior. He had great abilities and great defects. He was a candidate for the empire of Germany, but lost the imperial crown—Charles V. of the house of Austria, and king of Spain, being chosen. In the year 1520, Francis having invited Henry VIII. of England to an interview, the two kings met in an open plain, near Calais; where they and their attendants displayed their magnificence, with such emulation and profuse expense, as gave it the name of the *Field of the Cloth of Gold*. Feats of chivalry, parties of gallantry, together with such exercises and pastimes as were in that age reckoned manly or elegant, rather than serious business, occupied both courts during eighteen days that they continued together*. Francis made some successful 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 his adventurous expedition into Italy, he was taken prisoner at the battle of Pavia, in the year 1524, and obliged to agree to dishonourable

* The French and English historians describe the pomp of this interview, and the various spectacles, with great minuteness. One circumstance mentioned by the mareschal de Fleuranges, who was present, and which appears singular in the present age, is commonly omitted. "After the tournament," says he, "the French and English wrestlers made their appearance, and wrestled in presence of the kings and the ladies; and as there were many stout wrestlers there, it afforded excellent pastime; but as the king of France had neglected to bring any wrestlers out of Bretagne, the English gained the prize.—After this the kings of France and England retired to a tent, where they drank together; and the king of England seizing the king of France by the collar, said, "My brother, I must wrestle with you," and endeavoured, once or twice, to trip up his heels; but the king of France, who was a dextrous wrestler, twisted him round, and threw him on the earth with prodigious violence. The king of England wanted to renew the combat, but was prevented." — *Mémoires de Fleuranger*, 12mo. Paris, 1753, p. 329.

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. Quentin 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, and only thirteen years of age, 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. Antony, 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, which had adopted the cause of Huguenotism, was broken in pieces, when the sudden death of Francis happened, in the year 1560.

This event took place while the prince of Condé, 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 assassinated by one Poltrot, at the siege of Orleans; and the murderer was unjustly 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. At length the court pretended to grant the Huguenots a very advantageous peace; and a match was concluded between Henry, the young king of Navarre; 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. The 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 Coligni fell. The signal for the inhuman slaughter of so many thousands was to be made by striking the great bell of the palace. At that dreadful knell, the work of death was begun, and humanity recoils from the horrors of the fatal night of St. Bartholomew; yet the reader may expect, amidst the general carnage, that some few moments should be devoted to the fate of Coligni. He had long retired to rest, when he was aroused by the noise of the assassins, who had surrounded his house. A German, named Besme, entered his chamber; and the admiral, apprehending his intentions, prepared to meet death with that fortitude which had ever distinguished him. Incapable of resistance, from the wounds he had received by

two balls, in a late attempt to assassinate him, with an undismayed countenance, he had scarce uttered the words—"Young man, respect these grey hairs, nor stain them with blood," when Besime plunged his sword into his bosom, and, with his barbarous associates, threw the body into the court. The young duke of Guise contemplated it in silence; but Henry, count d'Angoulême, natural brother to Charles, spurned it with his foot, exclaiming—"Courage, my friends! we have begun well; let us finish in the same manner." It is said that about 30,000 protestants were murdered at Paris, and 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 Huguenots. 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 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. The civil war was finished within the year, by another pretended peace. The king, from his first accession to the crown, had plunged himself into a course of infamous debauchery and religious extravagances. 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 pretensions. To secure himself on the throne, 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 eyes, basely assassinated in 1588. The leaguers, upon this, declared that Henry had forfeited his 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

* A small kingdom lying upon the Pyrenean mountains, of the greatest part of which, Upper Navarre, Henry's predecessors had been unjustly dispossessed by Ferdinand, king of Spain, about the year 1512.

the house of Bourbon, and the next heir by the Salic law, had to encounter before he mounted the throne. The leaguers were headed by the duke of Maine, brother to the late duke of Guise; and they drew from his cell the decrepit cardinal of Bourbon, uncle of the king of Navarre, to proclaim him king of France. Their party 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 religion. The leaguers, on the other hand, split among themselves; and the French nation in general were jealous of the Spaniards. Henry, after experiencing a variety of good and bad fortune, came secretly to a resolution of declaring himself a Roman-catholic. This was called a measure of prudence, if not 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 fortune. In 1598, he published the famous edict of Nantes, which secured to his old friends, 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 (assisted in all his undertakings by his minister, the great Sully) to cultivate the happiness of his people, by encouraging manufactures, particularly that of silk, the benefit of which France experiences at this day. Having re-established the tranquillity, and in a great measure secured the happiness, of his people, he formed connexions 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, and 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 these 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 Ravailac, another young enthusiast like Clement, in 1610.

Lewis XIII. son to Henry IV. 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 religious establishment of the protestants there, by taking from them Rochelle; though Charles I. of England, who had married the French king's sister, made some weak efforts, by his fleet and armies, 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 vil-

ages, two thousand churches, two thousand monasteries, and ten thousand houses, were burnt or otherwise destroyed during their continuance.

Richelieu, by a masterly train of politics, though himself bigoted to popery, supported the protestants of Germany, and Gustavus Adolphus, against the house of Austria. 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 non-age, 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 trifling causes, and upon the most despicable principles. The prince of Condé flamed 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 papist. The nation of France was involved at once in civil wars and domestic dissensions. But the queen-mother having made choice of cardinal Mazarin 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 Mazarin, to put the domestic administration of his affairs into the hands of Colbert ; who formed new systems for the glory, commerce, and manufactures of France, in all of which he was extremely successful.

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. By his impolitic and unjust revocation of the edict of Nantes in the year 1685, and his persecutions of the protestants, he obliged them to take shelter in England, Holland, and different parts of Germany, where they established the silk manufacture, 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 own conveniency, 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 the Austrians under the prince Eugene, rendered the latter part of his life as miserable as the beginning of it had been splendid. His reign, from the year 1702 to 1712, 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 expense of many thousand lives. 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 tory ministry deserting the cause, withdrawing from their allies, and concluding the peace of Utrecht in 1713. He survived his deliverance but two years ; and, in his last hours, displayed a greatness of mind

worthy of his elevated situation: "Why do you weep?" said he to his domestics; "did you think me immortal?" He died on the 1st of September, 1715, and was succeeded by his great-grandson, Lewis XV.

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 Orléans, a man of sense and spirit, and the next legitimate prince of the blood; who having embroiled himself with Spain, the king was declared of age in 1722, and the regent, on the 5th of December, 1723, was carried off by an apoplexy.

Among the first acts of the government of Lewis XV. 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 in 1734, 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 Lorraine, during the remainder of his life. The connexion between France and Spain forced the former to become principals in a war against Great Britain, which was terminated by the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748.

In the year 1757, Francis Damien, an unhappy wretch, whose sullen mind, naturally unsettled, was inflamed by the disputes between the king and his parliament relative to religion, embraced the desperate resolution of attempting the life of his sovereign. In the dusk of the evening, as the king prepared to enter his coach, he was suddenly wounded, though slightly, with a penknife, between the fourth and fifth ribs, in the presence of his son, and in the midst of his guards. The daring assassin had mingled with the crowd of courtiers, but was instantly betrayed by his distracted countenance. He declared it was never his intention to kill the king; but that he only meant to wound him, that God might touch his heart, and incline him to restore the tranquillity of his dominions by re-establishing the parliament, and banishing the archbishop of Paris, whom he regarded as the source of the present commotions. In these frantic and incoherent declarations he persisted, amidst the most exquisite tortures; and after human ingenuity had been exhausted in devising new modes of torment, his judges, tired out with his obstinacy, consigned him to a death, the inhumanity of which is increased by the evident madness that stimulated him to the desperate attempt, and which might fill the hearts of savages with horror; he was conducted to the common place of execution, amidst a vast concourse of the populace; stripped naked, and fastened to the scaffold by iron gyves. One of his hands was then burnt in liquid flaming sulphur; his thighs, legs, and arms, were torn with red hot pincers; boiling oil, melted lead, resin, and sulphur, were poured into the wounds; and, to complete the horrid catastrophe, he was torn to pieces by horses.

The Jesuits, having rendered themselves universally odious by their share in the conspiracy against the late king of Portugal, fell in France under the lash of the civil power, for certain fraudulent mercantile transactions. They refused to discharge the debts of one of their body, who had become bankrupt for a large sum, and who was supposed to act for the benefit of the whole society. As a monk, indeed, he must necessarily do so. The parliaments eagerly seized an opportunity of humbling their spiritual enemies. The Jesuits were every-where cited be-

fore those high tribunals in 1761, and ordered to do justice to their creditors. They seemed to acquiesce in the decision, but delayed payment under various pretences. New suits were commenced against them in 1762, on account of the pernicious tendency of their writings. In the course of these proceedings, which the king endeavoured in vain to prevent, they were compelled to produce their *Institute*, or the rules of their order, hitherto studiously concealed. That mysterious volume, which was found to contain maxims subversive of all civil government, and even of the fundamental principles of morals, completed their ruin. All their colleges were seized, all their effects confiscated; and the king, ashamed or afraid to protect them, not only resigned them to their fate, but finally expelled them the kingdom by a solemn edict, and utterly abolished the order of Jesus in France.

Elated with this victory over ecclesiastical tyranny, the French parliaments attempted to set bounds to the absolute power of the crown, and seemed determined to confine it within the limits of law. Not satisfied with refusing, as usual, to register certain oppressive edicts, or with remonstrating against them, they ordered criminal prosecutions to be commenced against the governors of several provinces, acting in the king's name, who had enforced the registration of those edicts. The magnanimity of these assemblies had awakened new ideas in the bosoms of the French; they were taught by the late remonstrances to consider their inherent rights; and this flame, in the succeeding reign, burst forth with accumulated force, and overwhelmed the throne of despotism.

As to the war with Great Britain, which was ended by the peace of Fontainebleau in 1763, the chief events attending it, so humiliating to France, have been already mentioned in the history of England, and therefore need not be recapitulated here.

Corsica, a small island in the Mediterranean, had long resisted with manly firmness the oppressive councils of the Genoese, who claimed the sovereignty over it by right of conquest. But, unable to support those pretensions, Genoa transferred them to France, on condition that Lewis should put her in full possession of the adjacent island of Capraia, which the Corsicans had lately invaded and reduced. To execute his engagements, powerful armaments were fitted out by Lewis, at Antibes and Toulon; twenty battalions of French were landed in Corsica; and the natives, whose free suffrages had summoned Paoli, one of their principal chiefs, to the supreme government of the island, determined to defend their liberties to the utmost.

A sharp and bloody war, such as suited the inferior numbers of the inhabitants and the nature of the country, was carried on in all the fastnesses and mountainous parts of the island; and it was not till after the French had fatally experienced, in two successive campaigns, the enthusiastic courage which animates the champions of freedom, that they overwhelmed, by their superior numbers, this unfortunate people; nor had Lewis much reason to triumph in an acquisition, to attain which he had sacrificed several thousands of his bravest troops, and only extended his dominion over a ragged and unproductive island.

The late unfortunate king, Lewis XVI., succeeded his grandfather, Lewis XV. on the 10th of May, 1774. Several regulations were made after his accession, highly favourable to the general interests of the nation; particularly the suppression of the Mousquetaires, and some other corps, which, being adapted more to the parade of guarding the royal person than any real military service, were supported at a great ex-

without an adequate return of benefit to the state. One remarkable circumstance which attended this reign, was the placing of M. Necker, a protestant and a native of Switzerland, at the head of the French finances, in 1776. Possessed of distinguished and acknowledged abilities, his appointment would have excited no surprise, had it not been contrary to the constant policy of France, which had carefully excluded the aliens of her country and faith from the controul of the revenue. Under the direction of Necker, a general reform took place in France, through every department of the revenue. When hostilities commenced, in 1777, between France and Great Britain, in consequence of the assistance afforded by the former to the revolted British colonies in America, the people of France were not burdened with new taxes for carrying on the war; but the public revenue was augmented by the economy, improvements, and reformation, that were introduced into the management of the finances. In consequence of this national economy, the navy of France was also raised to so great a height as to become truly formidable to Great Britain.

In the beginning of the year 1780, in consequence of the representations of Mr. Necker, a variety of unnecessary offices in the household of the queen were abolished; and sundry other important regulations adopted for the ease of the subject, and the general benefit of the kingdom. Could we implicitly credit his memorial, he changed the excess of the disbursements (at least one million sterling) of the year 1776, into an excess of revenue in the year 1780, to the amount of 445,000*l*. But the measures of Mr. Necker were not calculated to procure him friends at court: the vain, the interested, and the ambitious, naturally became his enemies; and the king appears not to have possessed sufficient firmness of mind to support an upright and able minister. He was therefore displaced, and is said to have been particularly opposed by the queen's party.

The freedom of America had been the grand object of France; and that having been acknowledged in the fullest and most express terms by Great Britain, the preliminary articles of peace were signed at Paris on the 20th of January, 1783; but the immense expenses incurred were found at last to be much more than the revenues of the kingdom could by any means support; and the miserable exigencies to which government was reduced contributed no doubt to bring about the late revolution.

The ambition of the French government made its subjects acquainted with liberty, by assisting the insurgents in America and Holland; and excited a spirit among the people, which could not well admit of the continuance of arbitrary power at home. Mr. Necker having been dismissed from the direction of public affairs, and succeeding ministers being endowed neither with his integrity nor abilities, the finances of the nation were on the point of being entirely ruined. When the edict for registering the loan at the conclusion of 1785, which amounted to the sum of three millions three hundred and thirty thousand pounds, was presented to the parliament of Paris, the murmurs of the people, and the remonstrances of that assembly, assumed a more legal and formidable appearance. The king, however, signified to the select deputations that were commissioned to convey to him their remonstrances, that he expected to be obeyed without farther delay. The ceremony of registering took place on the next day, but was accompanied with a resolution, importing, that public economy was the only genuine source of abundant revenue, the only means of providing for the necessity of the state,

and restoring that credit which borrowing had reduced to the brink of ruin.

This proceeding was no sooner known, than the king required the attendance of the grand deputation of parliament; he erased from their records the resolution that had been adopted; and declared himself satisfied with the conduct of monsieur de Calonne, his comptroller-general.

However gratified by the support of his sovereign, monsieur de Calonne could not fail of feeling himself deeply mortified by the opposition of the parliament. An anxious inquiry into the state of the public finances had convinced him that the expenditure had far exceeded the revenues; in the present situation, to impose new taxes was impossible, to continue the method of borrowing was ruinous, and to have recourse only to economical reforms would be found wholly inadequate; and he hesitated not to declare, that it would be impossible to place the finances on a solid basis, but by the reformation of whatever was vicious in the constitution of the state. To give weight to this reform, the minister was sensible that something more was necessary than royal authority; he perceived that the parliament was neither a fit instrument for introducing a new order into public affairs, nor would submit to be a passive machine for sanctioning the plans of a minister, even if those plans were the emanations of perfect wisdom.

Under these circumstances, the only alternative that seemed to remain was to have recourse to some other assembly, more dignified and solemn in its character; and that should consist, in a greater degree, of members from the various orders of the state, and the different provinces of the kingdom. But the true and legitimate assembly of the nation, the states-general, had not met since the year 1614. Another assembly had occasionally been substituted in the room of the states-general;—this was distinguished by the title of the *notables*, or men of note, and consisted of a number of persons from all parts of the kingdom, chiefly selected from the higher orders of the state, and nominated by the king himself. This assembly had been convened by Henry the Fourth, and again by Lewis the Thirteenth; and was now once more summoned by the authority of the present monarch; and the 29th of January, 1787, was the period appointed for their opening.

It was under great difficulties that monsieur de Calonne first met the assembly of the notables, and opened his long-expected plan. He began by stating, that the public expenditure had for centuries past exceeded the revenues; that a very considerable deficiency had of course existed; and that, at his own accession to office, it was three millions three hundred and thirty thousand pounds.

To remedy this evil, the comptroller-general recommended a territorial impost, in the nature of the English land-tax, from which no rank or order of men were to be exempted; and an inquiry into the possessions of the clergy, which hitherto had been exempted from bearing a proportion of the public burdens. The various branches of internal taxation were also to undergo a strict examination; and a considerable resource was presented in mortgaging the demesne lands of the crown.

Before monsieur Necker retired from the management of the finances, he had published his "Compte rendu au Roi," in which France was represented as possessing a clear surplus of four hundred and twenty-five thousand pounds sterling. This performance had been read with avidity, and had been considered as an æra in the history of France. The credit of this statement was ably vindicated by monsieur de Brienne, archbi-

shop of Toulouse, and by the count de Mirabeau, a still more formidable enemy to Calonne. His eloquence, however, might have successfully vindicated his system and reputation against the calculations of Brienne, and invectives of Mirabeau, but the genius of the comptroller-general sunk under the influence of the three great bodies of the nation. The grand and essential object of reform was to equalise the public burdens, and, by rendering the taxes general, to diminish the load of the lower and most useful classes of the people. The ancient nobility and the clergy had ever been free from all public assessment; the crowds of new noblesse, who had purchased their patents, were by that shameful custom exempted, both themselves and their posterity, from contributing proportionably to the expenses of the state: the magistracies likewise throughout the kingdom enjoyed their share of exemptions: so that the whole weight of the taxes fell on those who were least able to bear them. Thus the nobility, the clergy, and the magistracy, were united against the minister; and the event was such as might be expected. The intrigues of those three bodies raised against him so loud a clamour, that, finding it impossible to stem the torrent, monsieur de Calonne not only resigned his place on the 12th of April, but soon after retired to England from the storm of persecution.

The notables proceeded in their inquiries; and it was now suggested that an assembly of the states should be called, as the notables were not competent to impose a new tax. As the deliberations of the notables were not carried on in secret, this proposal was instantly circulated through the capital, and supposed to be a new discovery. The notables were soon after dissolved, without having accomplished any thing except the justification of monsieur Necker.

The stamp-act, however, was established, and a bed of justice was held by the king on the 5th of August, 1787, at which the parliament of Paris was obliged to attend, and the edict was registered, notwithstanding their protest to the contrary. But the parliament, though defeated, were far from subdued: on the day after the king had held his bed of justice, they entered a formal protest against the concession that had been extorted from them.

Painful as every appearance of violence must have proved to the mild disposition of Lewis, he could not consent to surrender, without a struggle, that authority which had been so long exercised by his predecessors. Since the commencement of the present discontents, the capital had been gradually filled with considerable bodies of troops; and about a week after the parliament had entered the protest, an officer of the French guards, with a party of soldiers, went at break of day to the house of each individual member, to signify to him the king's command, that he should immediately get into his carriage and proceed to Troyes, a city of Champagne, about seventy miles from Paris, without writing or speaking to any person out of his own house before his departure. These orders were served at the same instant; and before the citizens of Paris were acquainted with the transaction, the parliament were already on the road to the scene of their banishment.

So great was the resentment of the whole nation on account of the banishment of the parliament, that after a month's exile it was recalled. This was scarcely done, when they were desired to register a loan; at which they hesitated, notwithstanding all the manœuvres of the ministers. At last the king came to the house, and held what is called a royal session. The edicts were now registered; but the duke of Orléans protested, in the presence of the king, against the legality of the pro-

ceeding. The parliament protested against the legality of the session itself, but to no purpose. The duke of Orléans, with four others, were banished; the king called for the journals of the house, destroyed the protest, and forbade it to be inserted again. Great clamours were raised by the banishment of the duke of Orléans, and the other members of parliament; remonstrances were presented by the parliaments of Paris, Bourdeaux, and Rennes; but the exiles were not recalled till the spring of 1788.

No alternative remained now to Lewis, but to plunge his country into all the calamity of civil war; or to comply with the wishes of his people, and re-establish the states-general. In the first case, he must have expected to encounter the majority of the people, animated by the exhortations and examples of their magistrates: the peers of the realm had expressed the strongest disapprobation of his measures, nor could he even depend any longer on the princes of his blood; but what afforded most serious matter of alarm was the spirit lately displayed among the military, who, during the disturbances in the provinces, had reluctantly been brought to draw their swords against their countrymen; and many of those officers, who had recently served in America, publicly proclaimed their abhorrence of despotism.

It was under these impressions, in the beginning of August, an *arrêt* was published, which fixed the meeting of the states-general to the first of May in the ensuing year, viz. 1789; at the same time every step was taken to secure the favourable opinion of the public. New arrangements took place in the administration; and monsieur Necker, whom the confidence of the people had long followed, was again introduced into the management of the finances; the torture, which by a former edict had been restricted in part, was entirely abolished; every person accused was allowed the assistance of counsel, and permitted to avail himself of any point of law; and it was decreed, that, in future, sentence of death should not be passed on any person, unless the party accused should be pronounced guilty by a majority at least of three judges.

The eyes of all Europe were now turned on the states-general, or national assembly, whose re-establishment, in the month of May, 1789, presented a new æra in the government of France. But the moment of this meeting was far from auspicious to the court, but greatly so to the interests of the nation. The minds of the French had long been agitated by various rumours; the unanimity that had been expected from the different orders of the states was extinguished by the jarring pretensions of each; and their mutual jealousies were attributed by the suspicions of the people to the intrigues of the court, who were supposed already to repent of the hasty assent that had been extorted. A dearth that pervaded the kingdom increased the general gloom and discontent; and the people, pressed by hunger and inflamed by resentment, were ripe for revolt. The sovereign also, equally impatient of the obstacles he incessantly encountered, could not conceal his chagrin; the influence of the queen in the cabinet was again established, and was attended by the immediate removal of monsieur Necker. This step, which evinced a total change of resolutions, and which, from the popularity of the minister, was likely to produce a violent fermentation in every order of men, was followed by others equally injudicious. The states-general were driven into the Salle des Etats, where they held their meetings, by detachments of the guards, who surrounded them, and who waited only the orders of the court to proceed to greater extremities against the obnoxious representatives of the nation.

Had these manifestations of vigour been only sustained by instantly attacking and entering Paris, it is not to be doubted, that, unprepared as it still was, and unwilling to expose to the licence of an incensed soldiery the lives and properties of its citizens, the capital would have been without difficulty reduced to obedience. But the delay which succeeded gave the inhabitants time to recover from their first emotions of surprise and apprehension. They saw the timidity and imbecility of the government, which, having sounded the charge, dared not advance to the attack. They profited by this want of exertion; and passing from one extreme rapidly to another, they almost unanimously took up arms against their rulers. Joined by the French guards, who, from a long residence in the capital, had been peculiarly exposed to seduction, and who at this decisive moment abandoned their sovereign, the Parisians broke through every obstacle by which they had hitherto been restrained. The supplies of arms and ammunition which had been provided for their subjugation, were turned against the crown; and the *Hôtel des Invalides*, the great repository of military stores, after a faint resistance, surrendered.

The prince de Lambesc, who alone, of all the officers commanding the royal troops in the vicinity of Paris, attempted to carry into execution the plan for disarming the capital, was repulsed in a premature and injudicious attack, which he made at the head of his dragoons, near the entrance of the garden of the Tuilleries. Already the *Prévôt des Marchands*, *monsieur de Flesselles*, convicted of entertaining a correspondence with the court, and detected in sending private intelligence to *monsieur de Launay*, governor of the Bastile, had been seized by the people, and fallen the first victim to general indignation. His head, borne on a lance, exhibited an alarming spectacle of the danger to which adherence to the sovereign must expose in a time of anarchy and insurrection.

The Bastile alone remained: and while it continued in the power of the crown, Paris could not be regarded as secure from the severest chastisement. It was instantly invested, on the 14th of July, 1789, by a mixed multitude, composed of citizens and soldiers who had joined the popular banner. *De Launay*, who commanded in the castle, by an act of perfidy unjustifiable under any circumstances, and which rendered his fate less regretted, rather accelerated than delayed the capture of that important fortress. He displayed a flag of truce, and demanded a parley; but abusing the confidence which these signals inspired, he discharged a heavy fire from the cannon and musketry of the place upon the besiegers, and made considerable carnage. Far from intimidating he only augmented, by so treacherous a breach of faith, the rage of an incensed populace. They renewed their exertions with a valour raised to phrensy, and were crowned with success. The Bastile, that awful engine of despotism, whose name alone diffused terror, and which for many ages had been sacred to silence and despair, was entered by the victorious assailants. *De Launay*, seized and dragged to the *Place de Grève*, was instantly dispatched, and his head carried in triumph through the streets of Paris.

In this prison were found the most horrible engines for putting to the severest tortures those unhappy persons whom the cruelty or jealousy of despotism had determined to destroy. An iron cage, about twelve tons in weight, was found with the skeleton of a man in it, who had probably lingered out a great part of his days in that horrid mansion. Among the prisoners released by its destruction, were major White a Scotsman,

earl Massarene an Irish nobleman, and the count de Lorges. The former appeared to have his intellectual faculties almost totally impaired by the long confinement and miseries he had endured; and, by being unaccustomed to converse with any human creature, had forgotten the use of speech. Earl Massarene, at his arrival on the British shore, eagerly jumped out of the boat, fell down on his knees, and, kissing the ground thrice, exclaimed, "God bless this land of liberty!" The count de Lorges, at a very advanced period of life, was also liberated, and exhibited to the public curiosity in the Palais Royal. His squalid appearance, his white beard which descended to his waist, and, above all, his imbecility, resulting probably from the effect of an imprisonment of thirty-two years, were objects highly calculated to operate upon the senses and passions of every beholder. It is indeed impossible not to participate in the exultation which a capital and a country, so long oppressed, must have experienced at the extinction of this detestable and justly-dreaded prison of state.

With the Bastile expired the despotism of the French princes, which long prescription, submission, and military strength, seemed to render equally sacred and unassailable; which neither the calamities of the close of Lewis XIV.'s reign, the profligacy and enormities of the succeeding regency, nor the state of degradation into which the monarchy sunk under Lewis XV., had ever shaken: that power which appeared to derive its support almost as much from the loyalty and veneration as from the dread and terrors of the subject, fell prostrate in the dust, and never betrayed any symptom of returning life.

The next morning after the capture of the Bastile, the monarch appeared in the national assembly, but without the pomp and parade of despotism. His address was affectionate and consolatory. He lamented the disturbances at Paris; disavowed all consciousness of any meditated attack on the persons of the deputies; and added, that he had issued orders for the immediate removal of the troops from the vicinity of the metropolis. The tear of sympathy started into almost every eye. An expressive silence first pervaded the assembly, which presently was succeeded by a burst of applause and acclamation. On the 16th the king having intimated to the national assembly his intention of visiting Paris the following day, he accordingly, on the morning of the 17th, left Versailles in a plain dress, and with no other equipage than two carriages with eight horses each, in the first of which he rode himself. A part of the national assembly in their robes accompanied him on foot; and the militia of Versailles composed his only guard till the procession arrived at the Seine, where they were relieved by the Paris militia, with the marquis de la Fayette at their head: and from this place the suite of the monarch amounted to about 20,000 men. The progress was remarkably slow; and no shout was to be heard but *Vive la nation!* Mr. Bailly, on presenting the keys of the city, addressed his majesty in a short speech, the exordium of which was:—"These, sir, are the keys which were presented to Henry IV. He came to re-conquer his people; it is our happiness to have re-conquered our king." On receiving the complimentary addresses of the mayor, &c. the king exclaimed, with an air of pathetic emotion which scarcely allowed him utterance, "My people may always rely upon my affection." He received from the hands of the mayor the national cockade; and when he showed himself at the window with this badge of patriotism, the joy of the people could no longer be restrained; the shout of *Vive le Roi!* which had scarcely been heard in the former part of the day, filled the whole atmosphere, and

resounded from one extremity of the city to the other. The return of the king to Versailles was a real triumph. The citizens, almost intoxicated with joy, surrounded his carriage: his countenance, which in the morning bore the aspect of melancholy, was now cheerful and smiling; and he appeared sincerely to partake in the general satisfaction.

The events which followed, are, by the candid of all parties, allowed to be enveloped in an almost impenetrable veil of obscurity. An incident which occurred at Versailles contributed to excite a most unhappy commotion. On the 1st of October an entertainment was given by the *gardes-du-corps*, or king's body-guards, to the officers of a regiment of Flanders, who had just joined them in the service of guarding the monarch. Several of the officers of the national guard, with others of the military, were invited. At the second course four toasts were given—"the king, the queen, the dauphin, and the royal family." "The nation" was proposed, but, according to a number of witnesses, expressly rejected by the *gardes-du-corps*. After this, the queen, having been informed of the gaiety of the scene, persuaded his majesty, who was just returned from hunting, to accompany her, with the heir apparent, to the saloon. She appeared with the dauphin in her arms, affectionate as she was lovely, and carried the royal infant through the saloon, amidst the acclamations and murmurs of the spectators. Fired with enthusiasm, the soldiers drank the health of the king, the queen, and the dauphin, with their swords drawn; and the royal guests bowed respectfully and retired.

The entertainment, which had hitherto been conducted with some degree of order, now became a scene of entire confusion. Nothing was omitted, to inflame the passions of the military. The music played the favourite air—"O Richard, O my king, the world abandons thee!" The ladies of the court distributed *white cockades*, the anti-patriot ensign; and even some of the national guard, it is said, did not refuse to accept them.

During these transactions, the city of Paris was afflicted with all the evils of famine. At this juncture the news arrived of the fatal banquet at Versailles, with every circumstance greatly magnified. Early on the morning of the memorable 5th of October, a woman sallied out from the quarter of St. Eustache, and entering the *corps-de-garde*, and seizing a drum, paraded the adjacent streets beating an alarm, and exciting the people by clamours respecting the scarcity of bread. She was soon joined by a very numerous mob, chiefly of women, to the amount of 800, who proceeded to Versailles; where the king, upon hearing their complaints, signed an order for bringing corn from Senlis and Lagni, and for removing every obstacle which impeded the supply of Paris. This order was reported to the women, and they retired with gratitude and joy.

This band of Amazons was no sooner dispersed, than it was succeeded by another. The national assembly continued sitting; but the session was tumultuous, and interrupted by the shouts and harangues of the Parisian fish-women, who filled the galleries; their applause was mingled with affecting murmurs and complaints—the multitude crying out that they were actually starving, and that the majority of them had eaten nothing for upwards of twenty-four hours. The president therefore humanely ordered that provisions should be sought for in every part of the town; and the hall of the assembly was the scene of a miserable, scanty, and tumultuous banquet. Indeed, such was the dreadful famine, that

the horse of one of the *gardes-du-corps* being killed in a tumult, it was immediately roasted, and greedily devoured by the mob.

Darkness and a deluge of rain added to the horrors of the night. The wretched multitudes who had travelled from Paris, were exposed, almost famished, to the inclemencies of the weather, in the open streets: within the castle all was trepidation; nothing was to be heard from without but imprecations, and the voices of enraged multitudes demanding the life of the queen and the *gardes-du-corps*. Toward midnight, however, all appeared tolerably still and peaceable; when the beating of drums, and the light of innumerable torches, announced the approach of the Parisian army.

The day began to break at about half past five; and at this period crowds of women, and other desperate persons, breathing vengeance, and thirsting for blood, advanced to the castle, which, in an hour of fatal security, was left unguarded in several places. An immense crowd found its way into every part. The queen had been awakened a quarter of an hour before by the clamours of the women who assembled upon the terrace; but her waiting-woman had satisfied her, by saying "that they were only the women of Paris, who, she supposed, not being able to find a lodging, were walking about." But the tumult approaching, and becoming apparently more serious, she rose, dressed herself in haste, and ran to the king's apartment by a private passage. In her way she heard the noise of a pistol and a musquet, which redoubled her terror. "My friend," said she to every person she met, "save me and my children!" In the king's chamber she found the Dauphin, who had been brought thither by one of her women; but the king was gone. Awakened by the tumult, he had seen from a window the multitude pressing towards the stair-case; and alarmed for the queen, he hastened to her apartment, and entered it at one door at the moment she had quitted it by the other. He returned without loss of time; and having with the queen brought the princess-royal into the chamber, they prepared to face the multitude.

In the mean time the noise and tumult increased, and appeared at the very door of the chamber. Nothing was to be heard but the most dreadful exclamations, with violent and repeated blows against the outer door; a pannel of which was broken, and instant death was expected by the royal company. Suddenly, however, the tumult seemed to cease—every thing was quiet, and a moment after a gentle rap was heard at the door. The door was opened, and in an instant the apartments were filled with the Parisian guard. The officer who conducted them ordered them to ground their arms. "We come," said he, "to save the king;" and turning to such of the *gardes-du-corps* as were in the apartments, "We will save you also, gentlemen; let us from this moment be united."

The royal family now ventured to show themselves at the balcony, and received the most lively acclamations of respect from the soldiers and the people. A single voice, or a few voices, exclaimed—"The king to Paris!" and this was instantly followed by an universal acclamation enforcing the same demand. The king addressed them:—"You wish me to go to Paris:—I will go, on the condition that I am to be accompanied by my wife and children."—He was answered by re-iterated acclamations of "*Vive le roi!*" It was two in the afternoon before the procession set out. During the progress all was gaiety and joy among the soldiers and spectators: and such was the respect in which

the French nation still held the name and person of their king, that the multitude were superstitiously persuaded that the royal presence would actually put an end to the famine. On his arrival, the king was congratulated by the municipality, and declared his approbation of the loyalty which the city of Paris manifested.

The spirit of the nation was so entirely averse from the principles of the high aristocratic party, that numbers of them, particularly the king's two brothers, and some of the first rank and fortune, took refuge in foreign countries, where they applied themselves indefatigably to the purpose of exciting war against their country.

Great preparations were made for the celebration of a grand confederation; in which the representatives of the nation, the king, the soldiery, and all who were in ostensible situations, should solemnly, and in the face of the whole nation, renew their oaths of fidelity to the new constitution; and this confederation was decreed to take place on the 14th of July 1790, in honour of the taking of the Bastille, and of the first establishment of Gallic liberty. The *Champ de Mars*, so famous for having been the rendezvous of the troops which in the preceding year were intended to over-awe the capital, was chosen for this solemnity. This piece of ground, which is about 400 toises (or 800 yards) in diameter, is bounded on the right and left by lofty trees, and commands at the further extremity, a view of the Military Academy. In the middle of this vast plain an altar was erected for the purpose of administering the civic oath; and round it an immense amphitheatre was thrown up, of a league in circumference, and capable of containing 400,000 spectators. The entrance was through triumphal arches. The king's throne was placed under an elegant pavilion in the middle, and on each side of it were seats for the members of the national assembly.

The important 14th of July at length arrived. The national guards of the departments, distinguished by their respective standards, the battalions of infantry, and the different troops of cavalry, the marine of France, and the foreigners who served under its banners, being arranged in military order, the king and the national assembly took a solemn oath to maintain the constitution; the armed citizens repeated it amongst the applauses of innumerable spectators. They swore to live free, or die; and this oath was taken on the same day through the whole extent of the kingdom.

The escape of the king and queen with their infant children, and monsieur and madame, on the 20th of June 1791, menaced France with the convulsions of anarchy and the horrors of civil war. The route of the royal fugitives, which had been expected to have been towards the Austrian Netherlands, the nearest frontier of the kingdom, was in fact directed towards Metz; from the presence of so gallant and accomplished a royalist as M. de Bouillé in that quarter, from its vicinity to the prince of Condé's army in Germany, and from the probable reluctance of Leopold to hazard the tranquillity of his Netherlands by permitting any incursion from them into France.—They reached St. Menelould, a small town about 150 miles from Paris. The king was there recognised by the postillion, who said to him, "*Mon roi, je vous connais, mais je ne vous trahirai pas.*" "I know you, my king, but I will not betray you." But the post-master, M. Drouet, less full of monarchic prejudice, adopted a different conduct. He avoided, with great dexterity and presence of mind, betraying his knowledge of the rank of the royal travellers, being much struck with the resemblance which his majesty's countenance bore to his effigy on an assignat of 50 livres. The car-

riages taking the road to Varennes, he went a cross-road to rejoin them; and arriving before them at Varennes, he alarmed the town and assembled the national guards, who, notwithstanding the detachment of hussars by which they were escorted, disarmed them, and the KING was then *made a prisoner*; and at six o'clock in the afternoon of the 25th of June, their majesties, with the dauphin and madame royale, arrived at the Tuilleries.

The new constitution was presented to the king on the 3d of September 1791: who, on the 13th, signified his acceptance of it in writing; and the following day appeared in the assembly, introduced by a deputation of sixty members, and solemnly consecrated the assent which he had already given, and concluded with an oath "to be faithful to the nation and to the law, and to employ the powers vested in him for the maintenance of the constitution, and the due execution of the law." Soon after this, the second national council assembled, with abilities far inferior to the first.

The dubious and undecided conduct of the emperor, and the refuge and protection found in the German empire by the emigrant princes, excited France to vigorous resolutions; and a manifesto, addressed to all states and nations, made its appearance. The forcible measures pursued, had the effect of intimidating the German princes; and the emigrants were constrained to an ignominious dispersion from the frontiers. But the protection of the emperor and the Prussian king afforded them asylums more remote and less obtrusive. Irresolution seemed to preside in the councils of the emperor; a monarch more eminent for the mild virtues of peace, than for the exertions of war. He had acknowledged the national flag; he had declared that he regarded the king of the French as absolutely free;—while the league of Pilnitz (which, as was avowed by the court of Vienna, was not only intended to secure Germany from such a revolution as France had experienced, but even to extinguish the dreaded source), and the protection afforded to the emigrants, were infallible proofs that the emperor could not be regarded as a friend. His sudden death, on the first of March 1792, excited great consternation among the aristocrats, and afforded joy and exultation to the supporters of the constitution. Another event, no less unexpected, happened in the death of the Swedish monarch, on the 29th of the same month; and the superstitious vulgar imagined that they beheld the peculiar protection of heaven in the removal of the two chief foes of France in so short a time.

In the progress of the negotiations between the national assembly and the court of Vienna, the young king of Hungary, excited by the influence of Prussia, began to exhibit more enmity, and to use severer language. At length, on the 5th of April, M. de Noailles, in his dispatches to the French minister for foreign affairs, explained the propositions of the Imperial court—that satisfaction should be given to the German princes, proprietors of Alsace; that Avignon, which had been appropriated by France, should be restored to the pope; and that the internal government of France should be invested with sufficient efficiency, that the other powers might have no apprehensions of being troubled by France. These terms produced a declaration of war against Francis I., king of Hungary and Bohemia; decreed by the assembly, and ratified by the French king, on the 24th of April.

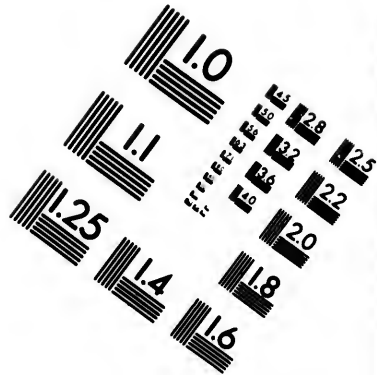
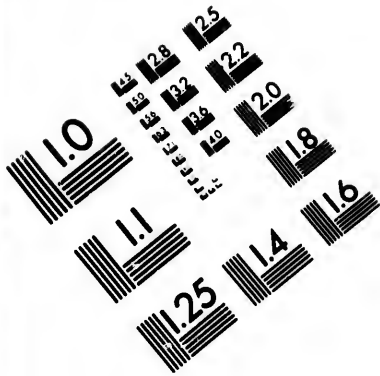
The first movement of the French was stained with defeat; and with the unpropitious murder of Theobald Dillon, their leader, who fell a prey to the suspicious and savage ferocity of some of his soldiers, who

fled from the enemy, but attacked their general. The court of Vienna had, in the beginning of July, published a declaration, explaining the cause of the war, and retorting on the French nation some of the heavy charges contained in its declaration of war against the king of Hungary and Bohemia, now emperor of Germany. On the 20th day of the same month, the Prussian monarch issued a concise exposition of the reasons which determined him to take up arms against France. He pleaded his alliance with the emperor; and that, as sovereign of a German state, he was bound to interfere to prevent the violation of the rights of the German princes of Alsace and Lorraine, and the invasion of the territories of others: and he concluded by honestly avowing that it was his intention to repress the too great liberty of France, which might afford a dangerous example to neighbouring countries. At the same time the duke of Brunswick, general of the combined armies of Austria and Prussia, published, at Coblenz, a declaration to the inhabitants of France, conceived in the most haughty and presumptuous terms: he declared his intention of putting a stop to the anarchy which prevailed in France, and of restoring the king to his power; and yet he afterwards says his design was not to interfere in the internal government. It is unnecessary to dwell on the other parts of this insolent memorial; in which France was already regarded as a conquered country, and directions were given to the magistrates, national guards, and inhabitants at large: but the threat that the city of Paris should be given up to military execution, in case the least outrage should be offered to the king, queen, or royal family, is worthy of a Hun.

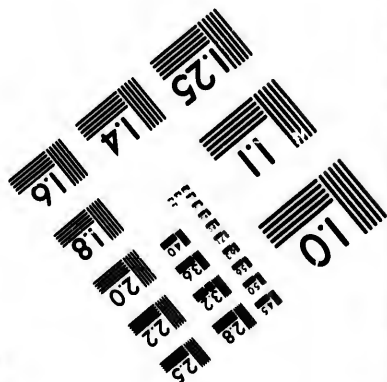
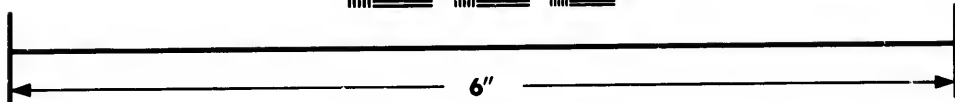
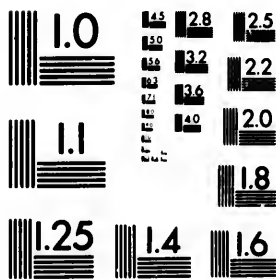
The excesses of the night between the 9th and 10th of August we relate with pain. At midnight the alarm-bell sounded in every quarter of Paris, the *générale* was beat, and the citizens flew to arms. The palace of the Tuilleries was attacked by the multitude; and the king, queen, and royal family, were forced to take refuge in the national assembly. At first the Swiss guards (who were obnoxious to the people, and had been ineffectually proscribed by repeated decrees of the assembly, the king not being allowed to have a foreign guard) repelled the populace; but these being re-inforced by the Marseillois, and federates from Brest, (bodies which the Jacobins seem to have brought to Paris to balance the Swiss), and by national guards, the gates of the palace were burst open. The artillery joined the assailants. The consequences were, that, after a slaughter of about four hundred on each side, the Swiss guards were exterminated, and the palace ransacked.

The month of September seemed pregnant with the total ruin of French freedom; while the three following months reversed the scene, and exhibited a tide of success on the part of France, perhaps unexampled in modern history.—It is with infinite concern that we direct the attention of our readers to the prison scene, which occurred on the 2d and 3d of September. The horrid massacre of the defenceless prisoners, and other aristocrats, which took place at that period, is an eternal disgrace to the Parisian populace; who, in their fury, spared not even that gentle sex which all civilised nations hold in the highest respect. The number of the slain has doubtless been exaggerated, as usual; yet supposing that, by the most moderate account, only two thousand perished, the enormity of the deed remains the same. Some extenuation might be offered for the affair of the 10th of August in which a people; who supposed themselves betrayed to slavery and all its evils, so recently experienced and shaken off, assumed their revenge and their cause into their own hands: but no defence can be offered for this unnecessary





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crime. Had the combined armies besieged Paris, it is difficult to conceive what aid they could have found from two or three thousand aristocrats, and many of these secured in chains.

A national convention had been called, to determine on the charges brought against the king. They met on the 24th of September: and, on the first day of the meeting, the abolition of royalty in France was decreed by acclamation; and the following day it was ordered that all public acts should be dated "the first year of the French republic." But hardly was this convention constituted, when a violent faction appeared, headed by Marat*, Robespierre, and others, who repeatedly degraded its transactions by their fanaticism; and, being supported by the Jacobins and Parisian populace, proved too powerful for the convention to punish them as it wished. Repeated instances have proved that the convention was not free, but must vote as the mob of Paris dictated; the moderation of the members being often obliged to yield to the indecent applauses and hisses of the galleries.

So rapid was the progress of the French arms; and so great were the distresses in the combined armies, arising from a scarcity of provisions, from a long rainy season, and from a considerable mortality among the Prussians (by the French accounts, estimated at one half), that the Prussians retreated from the dominions of France: which example the Austrians soon followed.

Even at the very time when Paris was in the greatest danger, the invasion of Savoy was ordered. On the 21st of September general Montesquiou entered the Savoyard territories, seized on the frontier posts and castles without resistance, and two days after took Montmelian. Chamberry and all Savoy soon followed; but the conquest, not being resisted, was productive of no military glory. The imprudence of the national convention, in permitting Savoy to incorporate itself with France, has excited wonder. After frequent declarations that the French would enter into no war with any view to conquest, their conduct in this respect was absurd and impolitic. It subjected them to the merited reproach that, under the pretence of liberty, they maintained the destructive maxims of their ancient government; and that their wishes to increase their territory, perhaps to subjugate Europe, remained the same. Admiral Trignet, commanding a squadron in the Mediterranean, captured Nice, Villa Franca, and the fortress of Montalban, belonging to the king of Sardinia.

The conquest of Savoy was regarded as a trifle; but when Custine began his acquisitions in Germany, every eye was turned to the rapidity and importance of his progress, till diverted by the wonders of Dumouriez. Spire yielded to the French arms on the 30th of September, and Worms soon after followed: ample supplies of provisions and ammunition were found in these cities. Custine, pursuing his course along the left bank of the Rhine, next captured Mentz, and afterwards Frankfort. He was eager to proceed to Coblenz, that noted seat of the counter-

* Marat fell by the hands of female vengeance. Marie Anne Charlotte Cordey, strongly impressed with the calamities which he had brought upon her country, took a journey to Paris, in July, 1793, on purpose to put a period to his existence. Meeting Marat as he was coming from the bath, and entering into conversation with him (the more certainly to identify his person), she plunged a dagger into his breast; upon which he fell, and soon expired. Glorifying in having exterminated a monster, she delivered herself up to the officers of justice; and with the utmost firmness submitted to her fate, in having her head severed by the guillotine, in the 25th year of her age.

revolutionists; but the Prussians and Austrians at length indicated a renewal of hostilities by garrisoning that town, and encamping in the adjacent country.

The conquest of the Austrian Netherlands forms the next grand object. Dumouriez had promised to pass his Christmas at Brussels; and what was regarded as an idle vaunt proved very modest, for that city was in his hands by the 14th of November. That able general, having entered the Netherlands on the 1st or 2nd of that month, with an army of forty thousand men, and with a most formidable train of artillery, occupied the first five days in repeated engagements with the Austrian army, commanded by the duke of Saxe-Teschén, governor of the Austrian Netherlands, and by general Beau lieu; which, however, exceeded not twenty thousand. At length, on the 6th of November, a decisive battle was fought at Jemappe, which decided the fate of the Netherlands. The contest was very general: all the points of the enemy's flanks and lines were attacked at once; all the bodies of the French were in action, and almost every individual fought personally. The cannonade began at seven in the morning. Dumouriez ordered the village of Carignon to be attacked, because he could not attempt the heights of Jemappe till he had taken that village. At noon the French infantry formed in columns, and rapidly advanced to decide the affair by the bayonet. After an obstinate defence, the Austrians at two o'clock retired in the utmost disorder.

Dumouriez immediately advanced, and took possession of the neighbouring town of Mons, where the French were received as brethren. The tidings arriving at Brussels, the court was struck with an indescribable panic, and instantly fled to Ruremond; whence it was again to be driven by the arms of Miranda. Tournay surrendered to a detachment on the 8th of November. Dumouriez, having refreshed his troops at Mons, advanced to Brussels; where, after an indecisive engagement between his van and the Austrian rear, he was received with acclamations on the 14th of that month.—Ghent, Charleroi, Antwerp, Malines (or Mechlin), Louvain, Ostend, Namur, in short all the Austrian Netherlands except Luxembourg, successively followed the example of the capital; and the conquests of Louis XIV. were not more rapid.

Many of the priests, who were banished, came to England, and were received with great benevolence: this was followed by the decree of the national convention against the emigrants; by which they were declared dead in law, their effects confiscated, and themselves adjudged to immediate death if they appeared in France.

Another decree, of the 19th of November, attracted the attention of every nation in Europe. It is in the following terms: "The national convention declare, in the name of the French nation, that they will grant fraternity and assistance to all those people who wish to procure liberty; and they charge the executive power to send orders to the generals to give assistance to such people, and to defend citizens who have suffered, or are now suffering, in the cause of liberty." This decree, and others of a similar tendency, seemed to institute a political crusade against all the powers of Europe.

No sooner had Antwerp yielded to the French arms, than, in order to conciliate the Belgians, the opening of the navigation of the Scheldt (shut up by the treaty of Munster, in 1648) was projected and ordered; notwithstanding this treaty, so far as respects the shutting up of the navigation of this river, had been confirmed to the Dutch in succeeding treaties, guaranteed both by the courts of Versailles and London. The

Dutch regarded this measure as injurious to their trade; for Antwerp might prove a dangerous rival to Amsterdam. The infraction of this treaty was one of the reasons which induced the parliament of Great Britain to oppose the unwarrantable pretensions of the French.

The memorable trial of the king commenced on the 11th of December. The issue is too well known. The firmness of this unfortunate monarch during his trial, and at the place of execution (on the 21st of January, 1793), increased the commiseration of every indifferent spectator; and callous indeed must be the person who does not partake of the sympathy which was felt through all Europe upon this transaction.

It would be a tedious and disagreeable undertaking to trace minutely and gradually the progress of the dispute between France and England. Without affixing any degree of credit to the reports that Great Britain had early but secretly acceded to the concert of princes, and the treaty of Pilnitz, it is natural to believe that the British ministry had long viewed with a jealous eye the progress of the French revolution towards a turbulent democracy. We must, however, do the French nation the justice to confess, that the unanimous voice of that people was clamorous from the first for peace and alliance with England. A series of events changed this inclination. A bill for forcibly transporting aliens out of the kingdom was introduced into parliament. The ports of Great Britain were shut against the exportation of corn to France, while it was permitted to her enemies. In the end, the ambassador of the republic, M. Chauvelin, was ordered, under the authority of the alien bill, at a short notice, out of the kingdom: immediately after which dismission, the convention declared that the French republic was at war with the king of England, and the stadtholder of the United Provinces.

In consequence of these measures, general Dumouriez proceeded with a large body of troops to invade Holland; exhorting the Batavians, in a violent manifesto, to reject the tyrannic aristocracy of the stadtholder and his party, and to become a free republic. The Dutch made preparations for defending themselves; and the English cabinet seconded their efforts, by an immediate embarkation of troops, to the command of which the duke of York was appointed.

The subjugation of Holland was the first project of general Dumouriez: and when the ease with which he had effected the conquest of the Netherlands, and the courage and ability displayed by him and his army at the famous battle of Jemappe, were considered, there seemed reason to apprehend that he would soon make an impression on these provinces; and the easy surrender of Breda and Gertruydenberg encouraged him to boast that he would terminate the contest by a speedy approach to Amsterdam. Certain events, however, ensued, which effectually prevented the performance of this promise.

General Miranda, who had besieged the city of Maestricht, and summoned the governor to surrender, was attacked by prince Frederic of Brunswick, and defeated with considerable loss. The Austrians, after this, divided themselves into three columns; two of which marched towards Maestricht, and the siege of that place was immediately raised. The third pursued the advanced guard of the republic; and the absence of several commanding officers was supposed to have greatly facilitated the success of the Prussians in these rencounters.

On the 14th of March, the Imperialists advanced from Tongres towards Tirlmont, by St. Tron; and were attacked by general Dumouriez successively on the 15th and following days. The first attempts were attended with success: the Austrian advanced posts were obliged to

retire to St. Tron, through Tirlmont, which they had already passed. On the 18th, a general engagement took place at Neerwinden; the French army being covered on the left by Dormael, and on the right by Landen. The action continued, with great obstinacy on both sides, from seven in the morning till five in the afternoon: when the French were obliged to fall back; and the Austrian cavalry, coming up, put them entirely to flight. The loss in each army was great. The French displayed considerable courage and address; but were overpowered by the superior numbers, and perhaps by the more regular discipline, of their enemies.

Dumouriez was now suspected of treachery; and general Miranda intimated his suspicions, in a confidential letter to Petion, dated the 21st of March. Four commissioners were immediately sent from Paris, with powers to suspend and arrest all generals and military officers whom they should suspect, and bring them to the bar of the convention. These commissioners, on the 1st of April, proceeded to St. Amand, the headquarters of Dumouriez; and, being admitted to his presence, explained to him the object of their mission. After a conference of some hours, the general, finding that he could not persuade them to favour his intentions, gave the signal for a body of soldiers who were in waiting; and ordered the minister of war, Bournonville (who was sent to supersede him), and the commissioners Camus, Blancal, La Marque, and Quinette, to be immediately conveyed to general Clairfait's head-quarters at Tournay, as hostages for the safety of the royal family.

Dumouriez, notwithstanding his splendid talents, found himself grossly mistaken with respect to the disposition of his army. They had resented the affront so imprudently offered to their general: but when he came to explain to them his plan, and propose the restoration of royalty in the person of the prince, they all forsook him; and he was obliged to fly with a very few attendants, making his escape through a dreadful discharge of musketry, which the whole column poured upon him and his associates.

The latter end of June, and the beginning of July, were chiefly distinguished, in the north, by some petty skirmishes between the two grand armies. In the latter part of July, the Austrians obtained some successes of more importance. The garrison of Condé, after sustaining a blockade of three months, surrendered on the 10th, by capitulation, to the prince of Cobourg; and Valenciennes, on the 20th of the same month, to the duke of York, not without some suspicions of treachery in both cases.

Encouraged by these successes, a large detachment from the combined army, under the command of the duke of York, proceeded, without loss of time, to attack the port and town of Dunkirk. On the 22d of August, the duke of York marched from Furnes to attack the French camp at Ghivelde; which was abandoned at his approach, and he was almost immediately enabled to take the ground which it was his intention to occupy during the siege. On the 24th, he attacked the outposts of the French; who, with some loss, were driven into the town. In this action, the famous Austrian general Dalton, and some other officers of note, were killed. The succeeding day, the siege might be said regularly to commence. A considerable naval armament from Great Britain was to have co-operated in the siege; but, by some neglect, admiral Macbride was not able to sail so early as was expected. In the mean time, the hostile army was extremely harassed by the gun-boats of the French; a successful sortie was effected by the garrison on the 6th of

September; and the French collecting in superior force, the duke of York, on the 7th, after several severe actions, in which the allied forces suffered very considerably, was compelled to raise the siege, and leave behind him his numerous train of artillery. General Houchard was afterwards impeached by the convention, and beheaded, for not having improved his success to the best advantage; as it was asserted that he had it in his power to capture almost the whole of the duke of York's army.

The disaffection of the southern provinces of France was at this time productive of serious dangers to the new republic. It is well known that the deputies and people of these provinces were among the most active to promote the dethroning of the king on the 10th of August, 1792. It is, therefore, somewhat extraordinary, that the same men should be among the first to rebel against the authority of the convention. The formidable union which took place, under the name of *federate republicanism*, between the cities of Marseilles, Lyons, and Toulon, in the course of the months of June and July, seemed to threaten almost the dissolution of the existing authorities. A considerable army was, however, dispatched against Lyons, and the city closely besieged. The Marseillois, in the mean time, opened their gates on the approach of the republican army, and submitted: but the people of Toulon entered into a negotiation with the English admiral, lord Hood, who was then cruising in the Mediterranean; and he took possession both of the town and shipping, in the name of Lewis XVII., and under the positive stipulation that he should assist in restoring the constitution of 1789.

Among the victims of popular resentment who fell about this period, was the celebrated general Custine; whose former services, whatever might have been his subsequent demerits, ought to have secured him more lenient treatment. He was recalled to Paris, from the command of the northern army, in the beginning of July; and, on the 22d, committed, under a decree of the convention, a prisoner to the Abbey. He was tried by the revolutionary tribunal; and accused of having maintained an improper correspondence with the Prussians while he commanded on the Rhine, and of having neglected various opportunities of throwing reinforcements into Valenciennes. It is needless to say that he was found guilty; to be suspected was then to be condemned: and the populace of Paris, now accustomed to such scenes, beheld the sacrifice of their former defender with calm indifference, or with blind exultation.

The trial and condemnation of the queen immediately followed that of general Custine. She had been removed, on the night of the 1st of August, from the Temple, to a small and miserable apartment in the prison of the Conciergerie; where she remained till she was brought before the revolutionary tribunal, on the 15th of October. The act of accusation consisted of several charges, many of which were frivolous and incredible, and few of them appeared to be sufficiently substantiated by evidence; but had the conduct of Marie Antoinette been more unexceptionable than there is reason to believe it was, it is not very probable that she would have escaped. After an hour's consultation, therefore, the jury brought in their verdict—"Guilty of all the charges."

The queen heard the sanguinary sentence with dignity and resignation; perhaps, indeed, it might be considered by her less as a punishment than as a release. On the 16th of October, at about eleven o'clock in the forenoon, she was conducted in a coach, from the prison

of the Conciergerie, to a scaffold prepared in the Place de la Révolution, where her unfortunate husband had previously suffered. The people, who crowded the streets as she passed, exhibited no signs of pity or compunction. Her behaviour, as her last sufferings approached, was decent and composed. She met her fate in the thirty-eighth year of her age.

Soon after the convention had brought the queen to the scaffold, they entered upon the trial of Brissot, and his supposed accomplices. Brissot was charged with having said and written, at the commencement of the revolution, that Fayette's retiring from the public service was a national misfortune; with having distinguished himself three times in the Jacobin club by speeches, of which one provoked the ruin of the colonies, another the massacre of the patriots in the Champ de Mars, and the third the war against Austria.

Upon these and other vague accusations, Brissot, and twenty-one more of the convention, were brought to trial before the revolutionary tribunal, on the 24th of October: a few days afterwards the jury declared all the accused members to be accomplices in a conspiracy which had existed against the unity and indivisibility of the French republic; and the tribunal immediately condemned them all to the punishment of death. Valazé, after he had heard his sentence, stabbed himself; and the remaining twenty-one were executed on the 30th of October.

The wretched and intriguing Egalité, late duke of Orléans, was soon after brought to the block. He was accused of having aspired to the sovereignty from the commencement of the revolution; but how well founded the charge was, it is not easy to determine. He was conveyed in a cart, on the evening of the 6th of November, to the place of execution; and suffered with great firmness, amidst the insults and reproaches of the populace.

In the south of France, neither the exertions of the allies, nor the surrender of the Toulonese, were sufficient to produce the expected consequence of establishing a monarchical government. On the 30th of November, the garrison of Toulon made a vigorous sortie, in order to destroy some batteries which the French were erecting on certain heights within cannon-shot of the city. The detachment sent for this purpose accomplished it; and the French troops were surprised, and fled. The allies, too much elated with their success, pursued the fugitives till they unexpectedly encountered a considerable force which had been sent to cover their retreat. At this moment, general O'Hara, commander in chief at Toulon, came up; and, while he was exerting himself to bring off his troops with regularity, received a wound in his arm, and was made prisoner by the republicans. Near a thousand of the British and allied forces were killed, wounded, or taken prisoners, on this occasion.

Soon after the capture of the British general O'Hara, the city of Toulon was evacuated by the allies. On the morning of the 19th of December, the attack began before all the republican forces had time to come up. It was chiefly directed against an English redoubt (Fort Mulgrave) defended by more than three thousand men, twenty pieces of cannon, and several mortars. This formidable post was attacked about five o'clock in the morning, and at six the republican flag was flying upon it.

The town was then bombarded from noon till ten o'clock the same night; when the allies and part of the inhabitants, having first set fire to the town and shipping, precipitated their flight. Two chaloupes,

filled with the fugitives, were sunk by the batteries. The precipitation with which the evacuation was effected, caused a great part of the ships and property to fall into the hands of the French, and was attended with the most melancholy consequences to the wretched inhabitants—who, as soon as they observed the preparations for flight, crowded to the shores, and demanded the protection which had been promised them on the faith of the British crown. A scene of confusion, riot, and plunder, ensued; and though great efforts were made to convey as many as possible of the people into the ships, thousands were left to all the horrors of falling into the hands of their enraged countrymen. Many of them plunged into the sea, and made a vain attempt to swim on board the ships; others were seen to shoot themselves on the beach, that they might not endure the greater tortures they might expect from the republicans. During all this, the flames were spreading in every direction; and the ships that had been set on fire were threatening every instant to explode, and blow all around them into the air. This is but a faint description of the scene on shore, and it was scarcely less dreadful on board the ships—loaded with the heterogenous mixture of nations; with aged men and infants, as well as women; with the sick from all the hospitals, and with the mangled soldiers from the posts just deserted, their wounds still undrest. Nothing could equal the horrors of the sight; except the still more appalling cries of distraction and agony, that filled the ear, for husbands, fathers, and children, left on shore.

In the latter end of March, the party called the Hebertists, consisting of Hebert, Momoro, Vincent, and some others, were arrested, brought to trial before the revolutionary tribunal, and twenty of them executed. A few days after, the celebrated Danton, Fabre d'Eglantine, Bazire, Chabot, and others, were arrested as conspirators against the republic, tried in a very summary way, and sentenced to death; which sentence was executed on the 5th of April, 1794.

In consequence of these executions, the government of France, however nominally republican, became almost entirely vested in one man, the usurper Robespierre—a name which will probably be transmitted with infamy to late posterity. Under his sanguinary administration, the prisons of Paris, at one time, contained between seven and eight thousand persons. Of the number of those tried and executed, we have no precise account; but they in general appeared rather to be sacrificed in multitudes to a jealous and cowardly cruelty, than condemned with even the shadow of justice. In one of these barbarous slaughters, the princess Elizabeth, the sister of the late unfortunate monarch, having been condemned on the most frivolous pretexts, was executed the last of twenty-six persons who were carried to the scaffold on the same day.

But, after the death of Danton, the fall of this tyrannical demagogue rapidly approached. A strong party was secretly formed against him in the convention; headed by Tallien, Legendre, and some others. Finding themselves sufficiently strong, Tallien moved the arrest of Robespierre and his creatures; which decree was passed with applauses from every quarter. The president then ordered one of the ushers of the hall to take Robespierre into custody: but such was the awe which the presence of this man was accustomed to inspire, that the officer hesitated to perform his duty; till Robespierre himself made a sign of obedience, and followed the usher out of the hall. The prisoners were conducted by a few peace-officers to the prison of the Luxembourg: but the administrator of the police on duty there, who was one of their creatures,

refused to receive them; and they were then led, rather in triumph than as prisoners, to the Hôtel de Ville.

In the mean time, Henriot, another leader of the party, had also been arrested, but found means to escape and raise his partisans; who took post with him and Robespierre in the Hôtel de Ville, where they pretended to form themselves into a new convention, and declared the other representatives traitors to their country. The people, however, did not espouse their cause; the national guard, who had at first obeyed their orders with reluctance, forsook them; and the deputies who had been dispatched for that purpose, attacked them in the Hôtel de Ville. Bourdon de l'Oise, after having read the proclamation of the convention, rushed into the hall of the commune, with a sabre and pistols; the insurgents were completely deserted, and now endeavoured to turn their arms against themselves. Robespierre the elder discharged a pistol in his mouth; which, however, failed of its effect, and only wounded him in the jaw, while he received another wound from a gendarme in the side. The younger Robespierre threw himself out of a window, and broke a leg and an arm; Le Bas shot himself upon the spot; Couthon stabbed himself twice with a knife; and Henriot was thrown out of a window.

The prisoners were immediately conveyed before the revolutionary tribunal; and their persons being identified, they were condemned to suffer death in the Place de la Révolution: where the two Robespierres, and nineteen others, were executed at seven in the evening of the 28th of July, 1794.

In the campaign of this year, the arms of the new republic were successful on every side against the allies. In Flanders, general Jourdan gained the battle of Fleurus; and Charleroi, Ypres, Bruges, and Courtray, surrendered to the French: Ostend was evacuated; general Clairfait defeated near Mons, which immediately surrendered; and the prince of Cobourg compelled to abandon the whole of the Netherlands, while the victors, without opposition, entered Brussels and Antwerp. Landrecy, Quesnoy, Valenciennes, and Condé, were successively taken; and the French armies, pursuing their success, took Aix-la-Chapelle, defeated Clairfait near Juliers, and made themselves masters of Cologne and Bonn. Maestricht and Nimeguen were likewise taken.

The United Provinces began now to be seriously alarmed. The states of Friesland were the first to feel their danger; and, in the month of October, these states determined to acknowledge the French republic, to break their alliance with England, and to enter into a treaty of peace and alliance with France. In some of the other provinces, resolutions hostile to the stadtholder and his government were likewise passed; and such appeared to be the temper of the people, even at Amsterdam, that on the 17th of October, the government of Holland published a proclamation, prohibiting the presenting of any petition or memorial upon public or political subjects, and all popular meetings or assemblies of the people upon any occasion.

On the 7th of December, the French made a feeble attempt to cross the Waal, but were repulsed with loss; but on the 15th the frost set in with unusual rigour, and opened a new road to the French armies. In the course of a week, the Maes and the Waal were both frozen over; and on the 27th, a strong column of French crossed the Maes, near the village of Driel. They attacked the allied army for an extent of above twelve leagues; and, according to the report of general Pichegru, "were, as usual, victorious in every quarter." The army of the allies retreated

before them; and, in its retreat, endured incredible hardships from the severity of the weather and the want of necessaries. On the 10th of January, 1795, general Pichegru, having completed his arrangements, made his grand movement. The French crossed the Waal at different points; with a force, according to some accounts, of 70,000 men. A general attack was made upon Walmoden's position between Nineguen and Arnheim. The allies were defeated in every quarter; and, utterly unprepared either for resistance or for flight, suffered equally from the elements and the enemy.

It was in vain that the stadtholder issued manifestoes, proclamations, and exhortations to the Dutch peasantry, conjuring them to rise in a mass for the defence of the country. The French continued to advance, and the allies to fly before them, till Utrecht surrendered to them on the 16th of January, Rotterdam on the 18th, and Dort on the succeeding day. The utmost consternation now prevailed among the partisans of the stadtholder. The princess of Orange, with the younger and female part of the family, and with all the plate, jewels, and moveables, that could be packed up, escaped on the 15th. The stadtholder and the hereditary prince did not leave Holland till the 19th. His serene highness embarked at Scheveling, in an open boat, with only three men to navigate her; and arrived safe at Harwich. In England, the palace of Hampton-court was assigned him for his residence.

On the 20th of January, general Pichegru entered Amsterdam in triumph, at the head of 5,000 men; and was received by the inhabitants with the loudest acclamations. The whole of the United Provinces either submitted to, or was reduced by, the French, in a few weeks. An assembly of the provisional representatives of the people met on the 27th of January; and the whole government was changed, and modelled nearly after the French plan.

In the mean time, the king of Prussia, finding he could derive no advantage from the war, began to relax his efforts. The Prussian and Austrian forces, as well as their leaders, were on bad terms with each other; but it was not suspected that any defection was about to take place on the part of the Prussians, till they began to retreat towards the Rhine, which they soon after passed. A negotiation between Prussia and France followed; which ended in a treaty of peace signed at Basle, on the 5th of April, 1795, by which his Prussian majesty entirely abandoned the coalition.

The Prussian negotiation was followed by the treaty made between the French republic and Spain, in which country the arms of France had made a progress equally successful and rapid. Fontarabia, which guards the entrance of Spain, and which had cost the duke of Berwick 8,000 men, had been taken, almost immediately, by a detachment from the French army: Rosas was likewise taken; and the troops of the republic had made themselves masters of the greater part of the rich provinces of Biscay and Catalonia, and were, in fact, in full march for the capital of the kingdom. Orders were therefore dispatched to M. D'Yriarte, at Basle, immediately to conclude a treaty; which was accordingly signed by the Spanish minister and M. Bartheleini, at Basle, on the 22d of July.

About the middle of this year, died the infant son of the unfortunate Lewis XVI. An unjust and close imprisonment, if it did not produce, at least, it is probable, hastened his fate. He had always been an unhealthy child, and subject to a scrofulous complaint; a disorder in which confinement and inactivity are frequently fatal. For some time previous

to his decease, he had been afflicted with a swelling in his knee, and another in his wrist. His appetite failed, and he was at length attacked with a fever. It does not appear that medical aid was denied him, or neglected. The disease, however, continued to increase; and on the morning of the 9th of June, he expired in the prison of the Temple, where he had been confined from the fatal autumn of 1792.

Moved perhaps by this event, or influenced by the general sympathy of the people of France, the committee of public safety, in the beginning of July, proposed the exchange of the princess, sister of the dauphin (who was likewise a prisoner in the Temple), for the deputies delivered up to Austria by the treachery of Dumouriez; and for the two ambassadors Semonville and Maret, who had been seized, contrary to the law of nations, on a neutral territory, by an Austrian corps. The emperor, after some hesitation, acceded to the proposal; and before the conclusion of the year, the princess was delivered to the Austrian envoy, at Basle in Switzerland, and the deputies were restored to their country.

In the course of this year, an expedition was planned by the English ministry, to invade the coast of France, in that part where the royalists (known by the name of Chouans) were in arms against the republicans. The force employed consisted chiefly of emigrants; under the command of M. Puisaye, M. d'Hervilly, and the count de Sombreuil. They landed in the bay of Quiberon, and took the fort of the same name; but soon after experienced a sad reverse:—the fort being surprised by the republican troops, under the command of general Hoche; who killed or made prisoners the greater part of the emigrants, Chouans, and English, in the fort, amounting nearly to 10,000 men. The count de Sombreuil, the bishop of Dol (with his clergy who accompanied him), and most of the emigrant officers, who were made prisoners, were tried by a military tribunal, and put to death. Before the month of April in the ensuing year (1796), the force of the insurgents in this part of France was entirely broken; and their chiefs, Charette and Stofflet, taken prisoners and put to death.

In Germany, the French army had crossed the Rhine near Mannheim, and blockaded Mentz, to which they had already laid siege for several months. In this attempt, however, they were unsuccessful: they suffered a defeat from the Austrians, and were compelled to re-pass the river. A suspension of arms, for three months, was soon after agreed to by the generals of the contending armies, which was ratified by the respective powers.

In the succeeding year (1796), the campaign opened in the south, on the 9th of April; when the rapid and signal victories of the republican troops, under the command of the then obscure and little known, but now celebrated Buonaparté (which name he has since chosen to write Bonaparte) ended, in little more than a month, the war with Sardinia. The battles of Millesimo, Dego, Mondovi, Monte Lerno, and Monte Notte, compelled his Sardinian majesty to accept such terms as the conquerors thought proper to offer; and a treaty of peace, by which he ceded Savoy and Nice to France, was signed on the 17th of May.

Buonaparte pursued his success; and, again defeating Beaulieu, the Austrian general, at the battle of the bridge of Lodi, forced the shattered remains of the Austrian army to retire towards Mantua, pursued by one part of the republican forces: while the remainder entered Milan on the 18th of May without further resistance, and the French armies gained possession of the whole of Lombardy.

The armistice which had been concluded on the Rhine,⁴ was afterwards prolonged, but at length declared to be at an end on the 31st of May: when the army of the Sambre and Meuse, under general Jourdan, gaining considerable advantages over the Austrians, advanced into the heart of the empire; while another army, under general Moreau, passed the Rhine at Strasbourg, took the fort of Kehl (a post of great importance on the opposite bank), and, penetrating through Bavaria nearly to Ratisbon, endeavoured to form a junction with the army of Jourdan. This attempt, however, did not succeed; both armies experienced a reverse of fortune, and were obliged to retreat till they recrossed the Rhine. The situation of general Moreau was highly critical; and his retreat is acknowledged, on all sides, to have been conducted with great military skill. The archduke Charles, who commanded the Austrian army, followed Moreau in his retreat; and laid siege to the fort of Kehl, which he re-took after a most obstinate resistance on the part of the French.

To restore the affairs of Italy, the emperor assembled a new army, composed of the flower of the German troops serving on the Rhine; and gave the command of it to general Wurmser, one of the oldest and ablest of the Imperial generals. This force, on its first arrival, was successful: the French were repulsed, defeated, and compelled to raise the siege of Mantua. Bonaparte, however, soon returned to the charge; and, after a series of hotly-contested actions, the army of Wurmser was so reduced and harassed, that he was obliged to shut himself up in Mantua: where he was closely besieged by the victors, who at the same time made incursions into the Tyrol; and, by the battle of Roveredo, and the possession of Trent, became masters of the passes that led to Vienna. The Austrians, at the same time, made a great effort, under general Alvinzy, to rescue the gallant Wurmser and his besieged army; but the battle of Arcole completely defeated their design, and Mantua was soon after obliged to surrender.

The victories of Buonaparte compelled the pope, the king of Naples, and the inferior princes of Italy, to conclude such treaties as the French thought proper to dictate. The victors likewise founded a new republic in Italy, at first called the Cispadane, but afterwards the Cisalpine republic, to which they annexed such parts of the papal territory as they judged convenient.

After the taking of Mantua, the victorious Buonaparte penetrated into the Tyrol, and directed his course towards the Imperial capital. The archduke Charles was opposed to him, but was unable to check his progress. The republican armies had at length advanced so near to Vienna, that the utmost alarm and confusion prevailed in that city. The bank suspended its payments; and the emperor was preparing to forsake his capital, and remove to Olmutz. In this critical situation of his affairs, his Imperial majesty opened a negotiation with Buonaparte; a short armistice was agreed to; and the preliminaries of peace between the emperor and king of Hungary, and the French republic, were signed at Leoben, in the month of April, 1797.

In the mean time, a tumult having taken place at Venice, in which a number of the French soldiers were murdered in the hospitals of that city, the French armies, on their return, abolished the ancient government of Venice, planted the tree of liberty in St. Mark's Place, established a municipality, and proposed to annex the city and territory to the new Cisalpine republic. But the conclusion of the definitive treaty of peace with the emperor being protracted on account of the French

refusing to restore Mantua, as it is alleged it was stipulated they should, in the preliminaries, they at length agreed to cede to him the city and a part of the territory of Venice, in compensation for Mantua.

The definitive treaty of peace between France and the emperor was signed at Campo Formio, on the 17th of October, 1797. By this treaty the emperor ceded to France the whole of the Netherlands, and all his former territory in Italy. He received in return the city of Venice, Istria, and Dalmatia, and the Venetian islands in the Adriatic: the French were to possess the other Venetian islands.

While the negotiation which terminated in this treaty was carrying on, the disputes of two contending parties were producing a new revolution in France. On the 5th of March, the two councils drew the lots, which deprived one third of their members of their seats in the legislature, and the new deputies elected in their room took their seats on the 20th of the same month. It soon appeared that the anti-directorial party had received a considerable accession of strength. The conduct of the directory was very freely canvassed; retrenchment of expense in both civil and military offices was proposed; the laws relative to polygamy were ordered to be revised; and the severity of those against priests and emigrants was greatly relaxed. The proceedings of the directory, with respect to the Venetian, Genoese, and Helvetic republics, were severely censured, and it was evident that an open rupture between the directory and the councils was inevitable. Unfortunately for the party in opposition to the directory, the armies took part with the latter. The army of Italy transmitted to the directory a most violent address relative to these disputes, and its example was followed by the other armies of the republic. The opposition party were slow and irresolute in the measures they took for their defence: they probably relied with too much confidence on their supposed strength, as they had a decisive majority in the council of five hundred, and two out of the five directors, Carnot and Barthelemi; were in their interests. Barras, however, and his party, supported by the armies, resolved on a prompt and violent measure, which effectually decided the contest.

On the morning of the 4th of September, at the early hour of three o'clock, Barras, and the two directors who acted with him, ordered the alarm-guns to be fired, and the halls of the councils to be surrounded with a military force. General Augereau, who was charged with the execution of these orders, repaired to the barracks, and addressed the guard of the legislative body, assuring them that he came only to preserve the republic from the conspiracy of royalists. The soldiers declared, with shouts of approbation, that he had only to command, and they were ready to obey. Thus reinforced by the very men to whom alone the councils could look for defence, Augereau entered the hall of the five hundred, and seized Pichegru, the president, with his own hands, and ordered about eighteen others of the most conspicuous characters to be arrested and committed to the temple. The halls were shut up, and the members of both councils appointed to meet in other places which were pointed out to them. Carnot and Barthelemi were implicated in the fate of their friends in the councils. The former took advantage of the tumult and fled; the latter calmly awaited the storm, and was put under arrest. Barthelemi, Pichegru, and a number of the deputies who were seized by Augereau, were transported to Cayenne, whence the two former, and some others, afterwards found means to return to Europe.

The power of the directory, or rather of the party of Barras, being now

rendered complete by this decisive victory over the councils, they projected new schemes of ambition and conquest, in order to give employment to the armies, and afford them an opportunity of enriching themselves by plunder. A tumult having taken place at Rome, in which a French general was killed, they subverted the government of that city, deposed the pope, and erected a new republic, which they called the Roman republic. They likewise found a pretext to invade and levy heavy contributions on Switzerland, which they endeavoured to transform into a new republic, under the title of the Helvetic republic; the government of which would, in consequence, be delivered into the hands of their own officers and partisans. Of these invasions the reader will find a further account under the heads of Italy and Switzerland.

In the beginning of the year 1798, a congress of deputies from the states of the German empire met at Rastadt, to negotiate a peace between France and the empire, on the basis of the treaty of Campo Formio: Bonaparte repaired thither, met the assembled plenipotentiaries, and exchanged with count Meerfeldt the ratification of the treaty of peace with the court of Vienna; after which he returned to Paris, leaving the commissioners, Trielhard and Bonnier, to conduct the negotiations, which were protracted to a great length.

After the conclusion of peace with the emperor, the army became a burthen which it was found difficult to support; and though a part of it had been employed in the plundering of Rome, and the oppression of Switzerland, there still remained a large body of troops in a state of inactivity that might ultimately prove dangerous to the government. An immediate invasion of England was therefore announced to be resolved on, and an army collected along the coasts of France opposite to Great Britain, to which was given the pompous title of the Army of England. Convinced, however, of the impracticability of such an invasion, if ever it were really intended, the project was changed for another, likewise sufficiently absurd, which was an expedition to Egypt, under the command of Bonaparte; and the ultimate object of which, it is believed, was to penetrate, either by the Isthmus of Suez, or by the Red Sea, to the Indian Ocean, embark the troops, and, by a co-operation with Tippoo Sultan, endeavour to effect the overthrow of the British empire in the East. While preparations were secretly making for this expedition, the public were amused with strange and monstrous stories of rafts to be constructed for the invasion of England, and troops were collected on the northern coast of France, while the navy of the republic were secretly repairing to Toulon. At length the preparations being completed, Bonaparte embarked on board the fleet, under the command of admiral Brueys, with about 40,000 men, chiefly the veterans of the Italian army, and sailed from Toulon in the latter end of May. On the 9th of June he arrived off the island of Malta, where he demanded leave to water the fleet, which was refused by the grand-master, in consequence of which the French on the following day landed a body of troops. The little island of Gozzo was taken by one detachment, while the southern parts of Malta were reduced by another. The greater part of the inhabitants took refuge in the garrison, which, however, made but a feeble resistance, the grand-master on the 11th agreeing to a capitulation, by which the whole island and its dependencies were surrendered to the French republic.

After leaving a garrison of 4,000 men in Malta, Bonaparte proceeded on his voyage, about the 21st of June, and arrived at Alexandria on the 1st of July, having escaped the British squadron which was detached in

pursuit of him under the command of admiral Nelson. His usual good fortune appeared to attend him in all his first attempts. The town of Alexandria was taken by assault, on the night of the 5th, with the loss of between two and three hundred men, and on the 21st the French army appeared before Cairo, which was defended by Morad Bey with a considerable body of the Mamalukes; but on the 23d it was attacked and carried. The beys, however, attempted to rally, and collected a formidable force in the neighbourhood of Cairo; but the battle of the pyramids, which was fought on the 26th, rendered the French masters of the greater part of the country. In that engagement, twenty-three beys, with all the forces they could bring into the field, were completely defeated. Two thousand of the Mamalukes were slain, and four hundred camels with their baggage, and fifty pieces of cannon, were taken, with a very trifling loss on the part of the French.

The conquest of Egypt now appeared to be complete; but on the 1st of August the expedition received a terrible blow in the defeat and destruction of the fleet, by admiral Nelson, of which an account has already been given in our historical summary of the affairs of England. The French land-forces, however, remained in possession of Egypt; and, to secure his conquest, Bonaparte advanced into Syria, where, after gaining some advantages, he received a decisive check before St. John d'Acre. The English squadron, under sir Sydney Smith, intercepted a flotilla which was bringing his battering artillery and ammunition from Egypt; and, sir Sydney acting in concert with the Turks, he was completely repulsed in every assault, and obliged to raise the siege, and retreat back to Egypt with the shattered remains of his army. From Egypt, Bonaparte soon after took an opportunity to make his escape to France; where, as we shall presently see, he became the author of a new and extraordinary revolution in the constitution and government.

The unprincipled attack on Egypt, contrary to the faith of treaties, so incensed the Turks, that they immediately declared war against the French republic; and the emperor of Russia, having accepted a subsidy from Great Britain, entered into a treaty of alliance with the Ottoman Porte and with England, and gave orders for a large body of troops to be raised to act against France. Austria likewise appeared disposed to avail itself of the assistance of this new ally; and the French directory having applied to the emperor for an explanation on this subject, and received none which they deemed satisfactory, sent orders to general Jourdan to pass the Rhine, with the avowed intention of forcing the diet of Ratisbon to declare against the march of the Russian troops. He executed these orders on the 1st of March, 1799; and nearly about the same time, general Bernadotte, at the head of an army of observation, passed the Rhine at Waldeck, invested Philipsburg, and summoned that fortress to surrender, while general Ney sent a similar summons to Mannheim, which immediately opened its gates to him. Yet, notwithstanding these proceedings, the French ambassador declared to the congress of Rastadt, which, though it had sat so long, had as yet come to no conclusion, that these hostile movements were undertaken solely to prevent the interference of the court of Petersburg, and accelerate a general peace. The congress soon after was broken up, and two of the three French plenipotentiaries basely and inhumanly murdered, as they were leaving the town, by some Austrian hussars, or persons who had assumed that disguise.

The cabinet of Vienna being now certain of the aid of Russia, the Austrian army, under the command of the archduke Charles, passed the Lech, on the 4th of March; and the war, which had so long desolated

Europe, was renewed. Fortune, at first, appeared to declare in favour of the French. A body of troops of that nation, advancing through Schaffhausen towards Suabia, were opposed by a detachment of Austrians, whom they defeated, taking the general and three thousand men prisoners. They were also successful for a short time in Italy. Their troops occupied the whole of Tuscany; and the king of Sardinia was reduced, in the month of January, to the cruel necessity of formally renouncing the sovereignty of Piedmont, and retiring with his family and adherents to the island whence he derived his title. The king of Naples likewise, having taken up arms and invaded the Roman republic, after being at first so successful as to obtain possession of Rome, was totally defeated, and obliged to take refuge in the island of Sicily.

But soon after the commencement of hostilities with Austria, the French arms experienced a fatal reverse. On the 25th of March, general Jourdan attacked the Austrians near Stockach, but was defeated, and obliged to retire in disorder; and on the 20th of the same month general Kray beat the French on the Adige near Verona, and again defeated them on the 30th. On the 14th of April, marshal Suwarrow arrived with the first column of the Russian troops, and the successes of the allies became rapid and uninterrupted. On the 24th of the same month, the Austrians and Russians passed the Oglio, and drove the French before them. They then crossed the Adda, and Suwarrow, on the 27th, defeated Moreau at Cassano: and so decisive was his victory, that general Serrurier and three thousand men were taken prisoners, and Milan opened its gates to the conquerors on the 30th. Peschiera was taken on the 6th of May, and, on the 10th, Pizzighetone surrendered to general Kray: on the 12th the Austrians entered Bologna, and took twelve hundred prisoners; and on the 23d they took possession of Ferrara. In Piedmont, the French, notwithstanding the efforts of Moreau, Macdonald, and Joubert, beheld themselves successively deprived of all their strong holds. The Austrians entered Turin on the 27th of May, and the citadel surrendered on the 20th of June. Mantua, after a short siege for so strong a place, surrendered on the 30th of July; the city of Alessandria on the same day; and such was the success of the campaign, that the French were obliged to abandon the whole of Italy—Genoa, and a small portion of the adjoining territory, only excepted. On the 25th of August a desperate battle was fought between the French and the Austrians and Russians at Novi, to the territory of Genoa, in which the French are supposed to have lost less than ten thousand men; but this victory was purchased with a loss nearly as great on the part of the allies.

On the side of Switzerland, the affairs of the republic at first wore a less disastrous aspect—Massena having obtained some slight advantages. These, however, were soon counterbalanced by events more favourable to the allies; the French general being obliged to abandon Zurich, which was immediately occupied by the Austrian troops under Hotze.

Italy being now rescued from the power of the French, it was resolved that Suwarrow should proceed with his army to Switzerland, to drive the French back into their own territories, and enter France: where he was to endeavour to re-establish the fallen monarchy. The directory were now convinced of their danger, and made every exertion to reinforce their armies in Switzerland, and the most active preparations for a vigorous defence. General Massena, who commanded the republican army in that country, displayed great military genius, and evinced uncommon abilities in all his enterprises. Knowing that if Suwarrow effected a junction with the troops already acting against him, he must

be inevitably overpowered, he determined to attack the latter; and in a variety of actions, during four whole days between the 14th and 20th of September, repeatedly defeated the Austrian and Russian armies—many thousands being killed and taken prisoners, among the former of which was the brave Austrian general Hotze.

Suwarrow, in consequence, on his arrival in Switzerland, found it impossible to join his defeated and dispirited allies; his plans were all rendered abortive; he was under the necessity of immediately withdrawing into Germany; and during his retreat over mountains covered with snow, and through roads nearly impassable, he suffered as much loss as could have ensued after a signal defeat.

On the 13th of October, Bonaparte, having found means to escape from Egypt, and elude the vigilance of the British cruisers, arrived in France, accompanied by general Berthier and some other officers. The recent losses which the republic had sustained, and the imminent danger which threatened its very existence, had greatly weakened the authority of the directory, and prepared the way for the total alteration of the constitution and government which had probably been projected by the abbé Sieyès, and which the popularity and enterprising spirit of Bonaparte enabled him to carry into execution.

The first step towards this revolution was taken by the council of ancients; which, on the 9th of November, passed a decree consisting of five articles, the chief of which were, that the legislative body should, on the next day, be removed to St. Cloud; that Bonaparte should be commissioned to carry into execution this decree; and, for this purpose, should be appointed commandant of all the troops in Paris or its neighbourhood, of the guard of the legislative body, of that of the directory, and of the stationary national guard; that this decree should be communicated by message to the council of five hundred, and to the executive directory, and transmitted to all the communes of the republic by extraordinary couriers. After this decree had been passed, the council of ancients proceeded to publish an address to the French nation, justificatory of their own conduct, and asserting "that the common safety, and common prosperity, were the objects of this constitutional measure: the inhabitants of Paris were desired to remain tranquil, since the presence of the legislative body would soon be restored to them, and the result would show whether the legislative body was worthy and capable of preparing the means of happiness."—General Bonaparte soon after appeared at the bar, accompanied by several officers of his staff, and addressed the council in a short speech, in which he represented that the republic was perishing, and they knew it, but that the decree they had just passed had saved it:—"Yes," said he, "we will have a republic founded on true liberty, and national representation. I swear it in my name, and that of my companions in arms." Most of the members present received these exclamations with applauses; and the assembly broke up with shouts of "Live the republic!"

On the same day the council of five hundred, having been informed, by a message from the council of ancients, of the decree passed by the latter, adjourned, in consequence, to the following day, when they were to meet at St. Cloud. In the sitting which was held there on the 10th, they appointed a committee of seven members, commissioned to make a report on the situation of affairs. The sitting was very tumultuous, many members exclaiming—"No dictator! No dictatorship!" The secretary read a letter from the director Barras, stating that "the glory which accompanied the return of the illustrious warrior, to whom

he had had the happiness to open the career of renown, the distinguished marks of confidence shown him by the legislative body, and the decree of the national representation, had convinced him that the perils of liberty were then surmounted, and the interest of the armies secured; and that he returned with joy to the rank of a simple citizen, happy to transfer, complete, and render more respectable than ever, the destinies of the republic, of which he had been one of the depositaries."

While some of the members were urging the propriety of choosing another director in the room of Barras, general Bonaparte entered the hall, attended by some officers and grenadiers, and walked up towards the president. A violent agitation immediately ensued among the members, some of whom rushed precipitately from their seats, and endeavoured to seize him by the collar; others cried—"Outlaw him!" and one attempted to stab him with a dagger, but the blow was warded off by a grenadier. The tumult increased to a most violent degree. All the members quitted their seats;—the president, Lucien Bonaparte, laid down his badge of office on the table, and resigned; upon which the doors of the hall were opened, and an officer entered with a guard, exclaiming—"General Bonaparte orders the hall to be cleared." The order was carried into effect in a few minutes.

The sittings were resumed in the evening, and Lucien Bonaparte took the president's chair. A decree was passed, abolishing the directory, and appointing a consular government of three, namely, Sieyes, Bonaparte, and Roger Ducos, who all appeared, and took the oath to be faithful to the republic; after which, the council adjourned its sittings till the 20th of February. On the same day, the council of ancients met also at St. Cloud, the proceedings of which day were almost a copy of those of the council of five hundred. They likewise voted the abolishing of the directory, the appointment of a consular executive of three persons, and then adjourned till the 20th of February. By the same decrees, sixty-one members were expelled from the legislative body; and thus was the national representation, and the vaunted constitution of the third year, overturned by one man, and the bayonets of a few soldiers.

A new constitution was then formed, which was accepted by the armies, and, apparently at least, by the people. By this constitution, the whole of the executive, and indeed all other power, was vested in the first consul, general Bonaparte, who entered on the administration of his government by making propositions for commencing negotiations for peace. His applications to the government of Great Britain on that subject have been already mentioned in our account of the affairs of England. He afterwards made similar applications to the court of Vienna, but his overtures, which indeed appear to have been sufficiently vague, being rejected by both those powers, the most active preparations were made on all sides for the prosecution of the war.

The last campaign had closed with the taking of Coni, and the retreat of the French army into the territory of Genoa, which was now the only important place in Italy that remained in its possession. The Austrians took the field on the 6th of April 1800; and Massena, who commanded the French army, was attacked by general Melas, and forced to retire to Savona and Vado, whence he was compelled to fall back to Genoa, with the remainder of his army, which consisted of 18,000 men. In Genoa he defended himself during two months with the most determined obstinacy, and did not surrender till every hope of succour had vanished; till every kind of provision had been exhausted;

till 15,000 of the inhabitants of the city had perished by the famine, and his army was reduced to only 8000 men. Genoa was given up to the Austrians on the 5th of June.

In the mean time Bonaparte, having assembled an army at Dijon, put himself at the head of it on the 6th of May, passed the mountains St. Gothard and St. Bernard, and, surmounting apparently insuperable obstacles, entered Italy, where he immediately made himself master of Milan, Pavia, Piacenza, Cremona, and the whole course of the Po. The Austrian general Melas appears to have been so confident that it was impossible for an army to enter Italy by the route the French had taken, that he took no measures to oppose the passage of Bonaparte till it was too late. At length he dispatched general Otto with thirty battalions, to stop the progress of the French army which was marching towards Piedmont; but that general was defeated at Casteggio, with the loss of 3000 men killed, and 6000 taken prisoners.

This victory was the prelude to the great and decisive battle of Marengo, fought five days afterwards, and which fixed the fate of Italy. Melas, having assembled the whole of his forces, marched to meet his enemy, and took post in the village of Marengo. In the battle which ensued, victory appeared at first to have declared decidedly for the Austrians. The centre of the French was compelled to retreat with great slaughter; but the body of reserve, under general Desaix, impetuously charging the Austrians, who were thrown into some confusion by the eagerness of pursuit, and their confidence that the battle was gained, turned the fortune of the day; and, though Desaix himself fell in the attack, gave the French a complete victory. The Austrians lost, by the French accounts, in killed, wounded, and prisoners, 15,000 men; and the loss of the French could not be much less. Yet so important was this battle in its consequences, that the next day, general Melas, finding his situation no longer tenable, proposed an armistice, which was accepted by Bonaparte, and by which Genoa was immediately surrendered to the French, together with all the strong places of Lombardy and Piedmont.

In Germany the French had opened the campaign with similar success. They crossed the Rhine in three divisions, at Kehl, Brisac, and Basle, and forced the Austrian army to fall back on the line of Stockach, where a battle took place on the 4th of May, in which the French were victorious, and which in a great degree decided the fate of the campaign, as the Austrians were not able afterwards to make any effectual resistance, but continued to retreat and suffer successive defeats.

When the armistice was concluded in Italy, the Austrian general of the army in Germany endeavoured to avail himself of it, to put an end to the progress of the troops under Moreau, but the French general would not listen to such a proposition: on the contrary, being in possession of Munich, and the greater part of Bavaria, he detached Lecourbe towards the Tyrol to seize upon the Vorarlberg and the Grisons, and form a junction with the army of Italy. The offer of a suspension of arms however having been repeated, and count St. Julien having arrived at Paris, with proposals for peace, an armistice was at length concluded for the armies in Germany, leaving each in possession of the posts it occupied at the time it was signed.

In the negotiations now carried on at Paris, the court of Vienna intimated that it was bound in honour only to treat for peace in concert with Great Britain. The first consul signified his consent that the ne-

gotiations should include a peace with England, but required a naval armistice as a preliminary. This demand, under certain conditions, the British ministry did not reject; but they would not permit the Brest fleet to be supplied with stores, or succours to be sent to the French army in Egypt. This proposal therefore not being accepted, Bonaparte refused to negotiate with England, and the emperor refused to ratify the preliminaries of peace which had been signed by his envoy count St. Julien at Paris.

The rupture of these negotiations was followed by that of the armistice in Germany, which had been renewed by the emperor, at the expense of surrendering the important fortresses of Ulm, Ingolstadt, and Philipsburg, into the hands of the French, as a pledge of his sincere desire of peace. The campaign recommenced on the 24th of November, and in the beginning of December the Austrians were defeated by Moreau in the decisive battle of Hohenlinden, in which the French took 10,000 prisoners, with 80 pieces of cannon: the archduke Charles was likewise defeated, with the loss of 8000 men, and the emperor was convinced that he had no resource but in a peace.

Another armistice was therefore concluded on the 27th of December, and negotiations for peace were opened at Luneville, and carried on with such dispatch, that the preliminary treaty was signed on the 3d of February 1801, by count Cobenzel and Joseph Bonaparte, and soon after ratified by the emperor. By this treaty, the cession of the Belgic provinces to France, as stipulated by the treaty of Campo Formio, was ratified in a more formal manner; and the whole of the country on the left side of the Rhine, the cession of which had been assented to at the congress of Rastadt, was likewise given up to France. The boundaries of the Cisalpine, now called the Italian republic, were enlarged; and the dukes of Tuscany and Modena were compelled to renounce their territories, and accept such indemnities as should be provided for them in Germany.

Of the conclusion of the peace of Amiens between France and England, and the causes of its rupture, a concise account has already been given in our history of England.

As soon as the preliminaries of the latter peace were signed, and the cessation of hostilities with England had left the seas open to the French marine, Bonaparte fitted out a great expedition for St. Domingo, to restore, as he said, the French West India colonies to tranquillity and order. On board the fleet and the transports which accompanied it, an army of 25,000 men, the flower of the French soldiery, and completely equipped, was embarked. The famous negro chief, Toussaint l'Ouverture, who was at the head of a formidable body of negroes, was successively defeated, and at length concluded a capitulation with the French generals; who afterwards seized him, pretending they had discovered that he was engaged in a plot against them, and sent him to France, where he soon ended his days in the dungeon in which he was confined. The recommencement of the war with Great Britain having deprived the first consul of the means of sending any reinforcements to his troops in St. Domingo, the French, after suffering still more from the climate than from the enemy, have been at length entirely driven out of the island.

The unbounded ambition of Bonaparte now began to display itself in its true colours. He had assumed the title of president of the Italian republic, with, in reality, the same unlimited authority which he exercised in France; and not contented with holding the title and

power of first consul, according to the constitution he had introduced, he procured himself to be appointed consul for life, with the power of nominating his successor. These new assumptions were, however, only steps to the throne to which he aspired.

In the beginning of the present year (1804) a conspiracy, it appears, was formed against him, in which the late general Pichegru and Georges, formerly a leader of the insurgents in La Vendée, were engaged. They had endeavoured to induce general Moreau, who lived in retirement, and had never condescended servilely to flatter Bonaparte, to join them; but this, he seems to have refused, probably disapproving some part of their plan. Before they could determine whether they should proceed or abandon their designs, they were discovered and apprehended by the spies and agents of Bonaparte. Pichegru was found dead in his bed, in prison, before his trial, having died, as was said, by his own hands; Georges and eleven others suffered death by the guillotine; and Moreau, who was condemned to two years imprisonment, has been permitted, by the despot, to take his departure for America.

In consequence of this conspiracy, the abject and venal senate of Bonaparte, at the suggestion of his creatures, solicited him to take on himself the imperial dignity, and declare it hereditary in his family, under pretence that the government of the *republic* will thus become permanently established, and secure from the attacks of all its enemies. This application was made by the senate, in a body, on the 20th of May 1804; and the first consul was graciously pleased, for the good of his country, to comply with their request, and has accordingly assumed the title of *Emperor of the French*; and has appointed his imperial highness prince Joseph Bonaparte, grand elector; and his imperial highness prince Louis Bonaparte, constable of the empire. His two colleagues, the second and third consuls, having proved their fidelity to him by not interfering in the smallest degree in the affairs of government, except as directed by him, have been gratified with the high-sounding titles of arch-chancellor and arch-treasurer of the empire.

Thus has the French nation, after wading through rivers of blood, and suffering the greatest calamities for the abolition of royalty, returned to the point from which it set out, and submitted to the same, or a still more arbitrary form of government. May its example not be lost on other nations; since it forcibly displays how certainly all endeavours to establish a visionary and impracticable liberty, lead to the opposite extreme of despotism and slavery!

Lewis XVI. the late unfortunate king of the French, was born August 24, 1754; married April 9, 1770, to Maria-Antoinetta, archduchess of Austria, born November 2, 1755; succeeded his grandfather Lewis XV. May 10, 1774; crowned at Rheims, June 11, 1775; beheaded January 21, 1793.—The issue of Lewis XVI. and Maria-Antoinetta is,

1. Madame Maria-Theresa-Charlotta, born December 19, 1778, married June 10, 1799, to Lewis Antoine, duke d'Angoulême.

Brothers to his late Majesty.

1. Lewis-Stanislaus-Xavier, count de Provence, born November 17, 1755; married, May 14, 1771, Maria-Josepha-Louisa, daughter of the king of Sardinia, born September 2, 1753.

2. Charles-Philip, count d'Artois, born October 9, 1757; married November 6, 1773, to Maria-Theresa, daughter of the king of Sardinia, born January 21, 1776.

Napoleon Bonaparte, who has assumed the title of Emperor of the French, was born August 15, 1769.

NETHERLANDS, OR BELGIUM.

THOUGH the provinces of the Netherlands, which were formerly subject to the house of Austria, are now become part of France, yet, as they have been so recently annexed to that country, and are still distinguished from it by the name of Belgium, as well as by the natural characteristics of the country and its inhabitants, we shall here describe them in a separate article.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

Miles.	Degrees.
Length 180 } between.	{ 49° 20' and 51° 30' North latitude.
Breadth 170 }	{ 2° 30' and 6° 30' East longitude.
Containing 10,572 square miles, with 285 inhabitants to each.	

NAME.] The country formerly divided into seventeen provinces, and known by the name of the Netherlands, was formerly part of Gallia Belgica, and afterwards of the circle of Belgium, or Burgundy, in the German empire. They obtained the general name of the Netherlands, or Low Countries, from their low situation with respect to Germany.

BOUNDARIES.] That part of these provinces, which is now usually called the Netherlands or Belgium, is bounded on the north by Holland; on the east by the part of Germany lately annexed to France; on the south by the French departments of the Moselle, Ardennes and the North; and on the west by the North or English sea.

DIVISION.] The Netherlands, in the full extent of the term, anciently consisted of seventeen provinces, of which seven constituted the seven united provinces, usually known by the name of Holland. The remaining ten, till they were ceded by Austria to France at the conclusion of the late war, were divided between the Dutch, the Austrians, and the French. Austria possessed the whole of the provinces of Antwerp, Malines, and Namur; and the French the whole of those of Artois and Cambresis. Brabant and Limburg were possessed partly by Austria and partly by Holland; and Hainault and Luxemburg were in like manner divided between Austria and France. The province of Flanders was shared between all these three powers, under the names of Austrian, Dutch, and French Flanders. The whole of these ten provinces, except the part of Brabant possessed by Holland, is now incorporated with France, and divided into the nine departments of the Lys, the Scheldt, Jemappe, the two Nethes, the Dyle, the Lower Meuse, Ourthe, Sambre and Meuse, and Forests—See TABLE of the DEPARTMENTS OF FRANCE.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY.] The Netherlands are a flat country, con-



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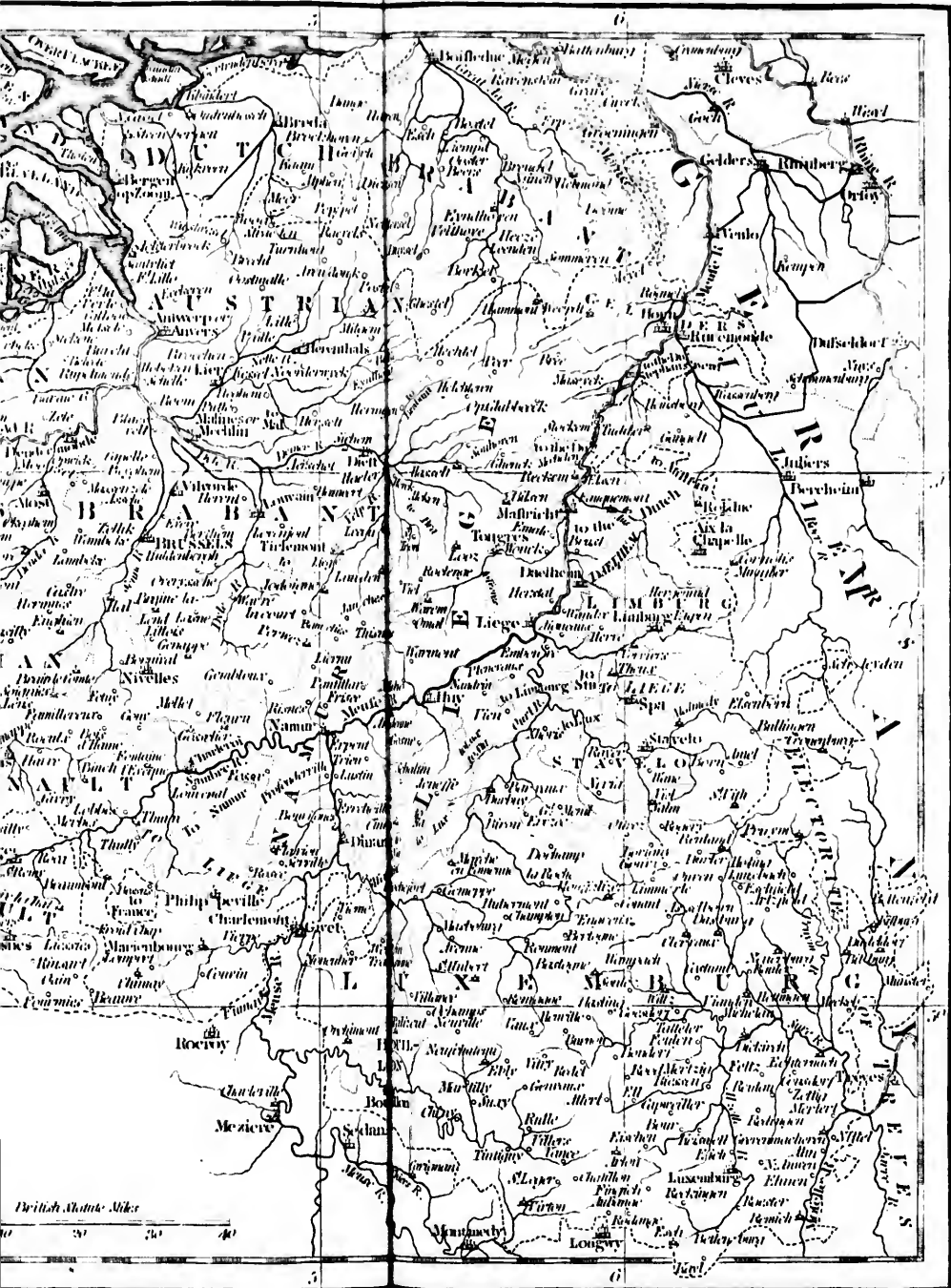
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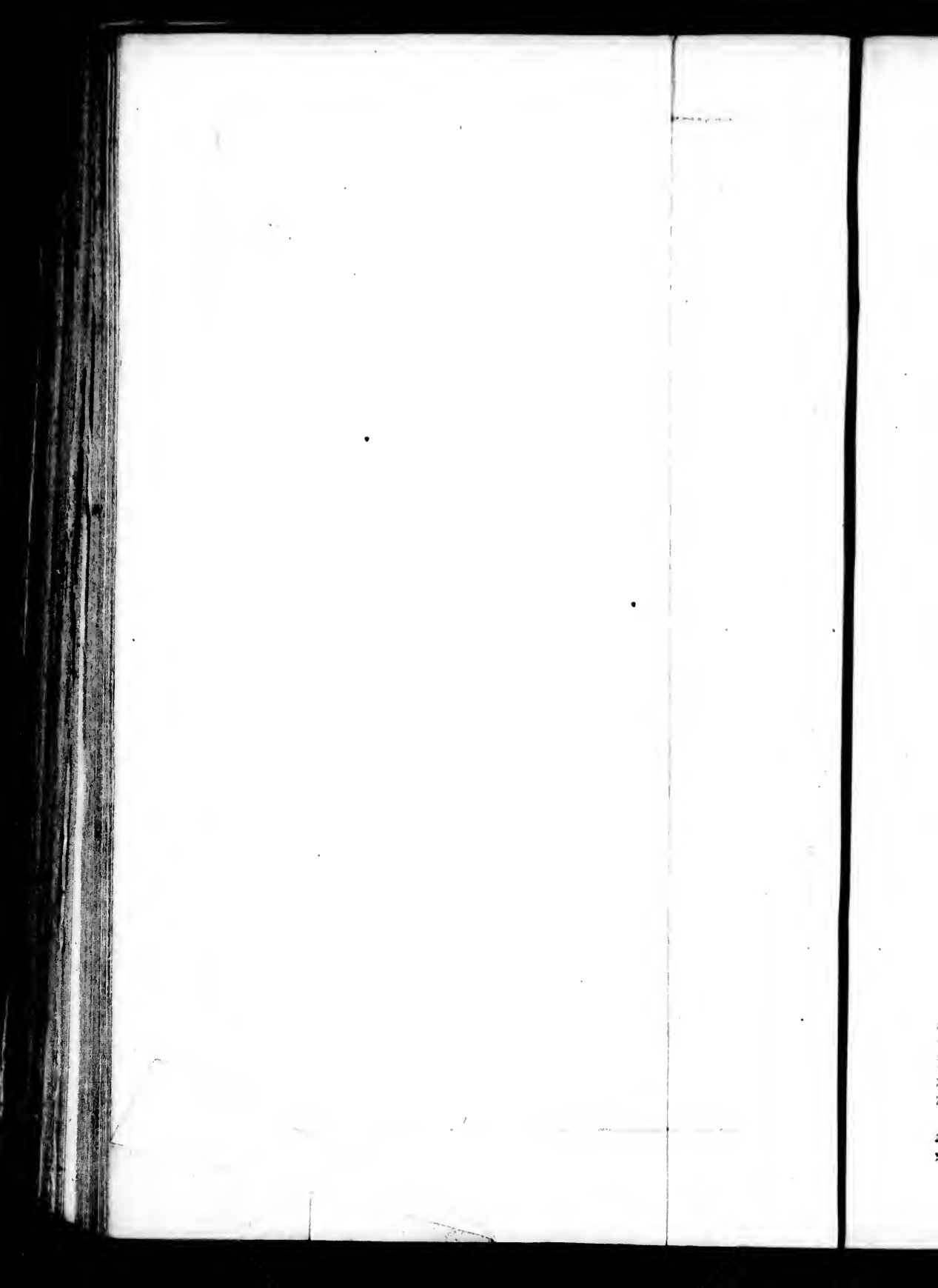
NETHERLANDS,
 from the best
 AUTHORITIES.

British Statute Miles

Longitude East from London



British Metric Miles
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taining no mountains, and but few hills. "The rural scene," says Mr. Shaw, "presents here pleasing prospects on all sides: fields crowned with fruitful crops, meadows covered with numerous herds, neat and commodious farm-houses set singly or in groups, cheerful and extended villages embowered among trees, and divided from each other by small intervals; while through such fair landscapes wind the rivers, and extend the clear canals of Flanders and Brabant." In the duchy of Luxemburg, or the department of the Forests, the country is less cultivated, and presents a less lively scene.

FORESTS.] In the department of Jemappe is the forest of Soignes; and in that of the Forests, are ample remains of the ancient forest of Ardennes, which formerly extended from the Moselle to the sea.

RIVERS, CANALS.] The chief rivers are the Maese or Meuse, Sambre, Demer, Dyle, Nethe, Geet, Sanne, Ruppel, Scheldt, Lis, Scarpe, Deude, and Dender. The principal canals are those of Brussels, Ghent, and Ostend.

METALS, MINERALS.] Mines of iron, copper, lead, and sulphur, are found in Luxemburg and Limburg, at present the departments of the Forests and of Ourthe, as are some marble quarries; and in the province of Namur, or the department of the Sambre and Meuse, there are coal-pits, and a species of bituminous fat earth, proper for fuel, with great plenty of fossile nitre.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AGRICULTURE.] 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. The state of agriculture in the Netherlands has received the highest praise from those well qualified to judge of it; and has, indeed, been celebrated for these 600 years past. Upon the whole, the late Austrian Netherlands, by the culture, commerce, and industry of the inhabitants, was formerly the richest and most beautiful spot in Europe, whether we regard the variety of its manufactures, the magnificence and riches of its cities, the pleasantness of its roads and villages, or the fertility of its land. If it has fallen off in latter times, it is owing partly to the neglect of its government, but chiefly to its vicinity to England and Holland; but it is still a most desirable and agreeable country.

VEGETABLES, ANIMALS.] Great quantities of corn, flax, and madder, are grown in the Netherlands, and the pasturage is particularly abundant. The cattle, which are purchased lean in the more northern countries, soon fatten and grow to a large size. The animals are in general the same as in the neighbouring countries of France and Holland.

NATURAL CURIOSITIES.] No precipices, cataracts, nor any grand and romantic natural scenery can be expected in this flat and low country. A stone quarry, under a hill near Maestricht, which is worked into a kind of subterranean palace, supported by pillars twenty feet high, may be mentioned under this head, though it may seem rather an artificial than a natural curiosity.

POPULATION.] The number of inhabitants in this country has usually been estimated at about two millions; but according to the enumeration published by the French government, the nine departments

of Belgium contain 3,018,703 inhabitants.—See TABLE of the DEPARTMENTS OF FRANCE.

NATIONAL CHARACTER, MANNERS.] The Flemings, by which name the natives of the Low Countries were usually called, though the appellation was strictly applicable only to those of Flanders, have been generally esteemed a heavy, blunt, honest people, but their manners are somewhat indelicate. They are ignorant, and fond of religious ceremonies and exhibitions. Their diversions are the same with those of the peasants of the neighbouring countries. In the part of the Netherlands which has been long in possession of the French, the inhabitants are become entirely French in their dress, language, and manners; but in the other parts the peasants dress like the Dutch boors, though the upper classes have long since adopted the French fashions.

CITIES, CHIEF TOWNS, EDIFICES.] Brussels, the former residence of the governor or vice-roy of the Austrian Netherlands, is an elegant city, adorned with a noble square, one side of which is occupied by a spacious town-house. The late palace of the Austrian governor is a magnificent structure. The city stands on the small river Senne, and contained in its flourishing state above 100,000 inhabitants: at present the number is 66,000.

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: the number of inhabitants, however, is still 56,000. Bruges, formerly so noted for its trade and manufactures, but above all for its fine canals, is now dwindled to an inconsiderable place. Antwerp, once the emporium of the European continent, is now reduced to be a tapestry and thread-lace shop, with the houses of some bankers, jewellers, and painters, adjoining. One of the first acts of the Dutch, soon after they threw off the Spanish yoke, was to ruin at once the commerce of Antwerp, by sinking vessels, loaded with stone, in the mouth of the Scheldt; thus shutting up the entrance of that river to ships of large burden. This was the more cruel, as the people of Antwerp had been their friends and fellow-sufferers in the cause of liberty; but they foresaw that the prosperity of their own commerce was at stake. In 1568, when its trade is supposed to have been at its greatest height, it was computed to contain above 200,000 inhabitants: at present the number is only 61,800.

The other principal cities of the Netherlands, are Mons, containing 18,000 inhabitants; Maestricht 17,000; Malines or Mechlin 16,000; Namur 16,000; Bruges 15,000; and Luxemburg 10,000.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The chief manufactures of the Netherlands, are their beautiful linens and laces; in which, notwithstanding the boasted improvements of their neighbours, they are yet unrivaled; particularly in that species called cambrics, from Cambray, the chief place of its manufacture. These manufactures form the principal article of their commerce.

GOVERNMENT.] These provinces, being now incorporated with France, are under the immediate government and laws of that country.

RELIGION.] Before the conquest of this country by the French, the established religion was the Roman-catholic; but protestants, and other sects, were not molested: at present, as making a part of France, it is subject to the regulations of the *Concordat* concluded between that power and the see of Rome.

The archbishopric of Malines or Mechlin was the metropolitan see; Cambrai was also an archbishopric. The bishoprics were Ghent, Bruges, Antwerp, Arras, Ypres, Tournay, St. Omers, Namur, and Ruremonde. In the present ecclesiastical division of France, Malines is an archbishopric, containing seven bishoprics.

[LITERATURE AND THE ARTS.] The societies of Jesuits formerly produced the most learned men in the Austrian Low Countries, in which they had many eligible settlements. Works of theology, and the civil and canon law, Latin poems and plays, were their chief productions. Strada is an elegant historian and poet. The French historians Froissart and Philip de Comines were natives of Flanders; the learned Lipsius was born near Brussels.

The Flemish painters and sculptors have great merit, and form a school by themselves. The works of Reubens and Vandyke cannot be sufficiently admired. The models for heads of Fiamingo, or the Flemings, particularly those of children, have never yet been equalled; and the Flemings formerly engrossed tapestry-weaving to themselves.

[UNIVERSITIES.] These are Louvain, Douay, Tournay, and St. Omers. The first was founded in 1426, by John IV. duke of Brabant, and enjoys great privileges. By a grant of pope Sixtus IV. this university had the privilege of presenting to all the livings in the Netherlands, except in Holland.

[LANGUAGE.] The vernacular language of this country is the Flemish, a dialect of the Dutch; but it is nearly superseded, except among the peasantry, by the French.

[ANTIQUITIES.] Some Roman temples and other buildings, and the remains of Roman roads, are found in the Netherlands. There are also many churches and convents, venerable for their antiquity; and the magnificent old edifices of every kind, in all the cities, give evidence of their former grandeur. In 1607, some labourers found 1600 gold coins, and ancient medals, of Antoninus Pius, Aurelius, and Lucius Verus.

[HISTORY.] The seventeen provinces, and that part of Germany which lies west of the Rhine, were called Gallia Belgica by the Romans. About a century before the Christian æra, the Battæ removed from Hesse to the marshy country bounded by the Rhine and the Maese. They gave the name of Batavia to their new country. Generous and brave, the Batavians were treated by the Romans with great respect, being exempted from tribute, governed by their own laws, and obliged only to perform military services. 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 afterwards being erected into small governments, the heads of which were despotic within their own dominions, Batavia and Holland became independent of Germany, to which it had been united under one of the grandsons of Charlemaigne, in the beginning of the 10th century, when the supreme authority was lodged in the three united powers, of a count, the nobles, and the towns. At last, they were swallowed up by the House of Burgundy, anno 1433.

The emperor Charles V., the heir of that family, transferred them, in the year 1477, to the House of Austria, and ranked them as part of the empire, under the title of the Circle of Burgundy. The tyranny of his son Philip II., who succeeded to the throne of Spain, made the inhabitants attempt to throw off his yoke, which occasioned a general insur-

rection, the counts Hoorn and 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 were forced by persecution to join the malcontents. Philip II. in consequence introduced a kind of inquisition, which, from the inhumanity of its proceedings, was called the "Council of Blood," in order to suppress them; and many thousands were 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 revolters at first were thought so despicable as to be termed *Beggars* by their tyrants, their perseverance and courage were such, under the prince of Orange, and with the assistance afforded them by queen Elizabeth, both in troops and money, that they forced the crown of Spain to declare them a free people, in the year 1609; and afterwards they were acknowledged by all Europe to be an independent state, under the title of THE UNITED PROVINCES.

After the independency of the Seven United Provinces was acknowledged, the Spaniards remained possessed of the other ten provinces, or, as they are termed, the Low Countries, until the duke of Marlborough, as general of the allies, gained the memorable victory of Ramillies, in the year 1706; after which, Brussels, the capital, and great part of these provinces, acknowledged Charles VI., afterwards emperor of Germany, for their sovereign; and his daughter, Maria Theresa, remained possessed of them until the war of 1741, when the French reduced them, except part of the province of Luxemburg; and would have retained them from that time, but for the exertions of the Dutch, and chiefly of the English, in favour of the House of Austria, which continued in undisturbed possession of the part of the Netherlands secured to it by the peace of 1748, till the disputes which took place between these provinces and the emperor Joseph, in the years 1788 and 1789.

The quarrel originated, like those in other countries, concerning the prerogatives assumed by the emperor, which were more extensive than his subjects wished to allow; and the emperor making use of force to assert his claims, the territories of the United States became a refuge for the discontented Brabanters.

On the part of his imperial majesty, the insurgents were not treated with lenity. A proclamation was issued by count Trautmansdorff, governor of Brussels, intimating, that no quarter should be given them, and that the villages in which they concealed themselves should be set on fire. General Dalton marched with 7000 men to retake the forts, proclaiming that he meant to become master of them by assault, and would put every soul he found in them to the sword.

In opposition to this sanguinary proclamation, the patriots issued a manifesto, in which they declared the emperor to have forfeited his authority, by his various oppressions and cruelties, his annulling his oath, and infringing the constitution. Banishment was threatened to such as took part with him; and all were exhorted to take up arms in defence of their country, though strict orders were given that no crowds or mobs should be allowed to pillage; and whoever was found doing so, should be treated as an enemy to his country.

This was dated at Hoogstraten, in Brabant, October the 24th, 1789. Almost every town in Austrian Flanders showed its determination to oppose the emperor, and the most enthusiastic attachment to military

affairs displayed itself in all ranks of men. Even the ecclesiastics manifested their valour on this occasion; which perhaps was naturally to be expected, as the emperor had been very active in depriving them of their revenues. A formidable army was soon raised, which, after some successful skirmishes, made themselves masters of Ghent, Bruges, Tournay, Malines, and Ostend; so that general Dalton was obliged to retire to Brussels. A battle was fought before the city of Ghent, in which the patriots were victorious, though with the loss of 1000 men, besides women and children. It reflects indelible disgrace on the emperor, as well as on the commanders of his troops, that they committed the most dreadful acts of cruelty on the unhappy objects who fell into their hands: Orders were given to plunder and destroy wherever they could obtain any booty; while the merciless savages not only destroyed the men, but killed women and sucking infants. Some of them plunged their bayonets into the bodies of children in the cradle, or pinned them against the walls of the houses. By these monstrous cruelties, they insured success to their adversaries; for the whole countries of Brabant, Flanders, and Malines, almost instantly declared in their favour. They published a memorial for their justification, in which they gave, as reasons for their conduct, the many oppressive edicts with which they had been harassed since the death of the empress-queen; the unwarrantable extension of the imperial prerogatives, contrary to the coronation-oath of the emperor, and which could not be done without perjury on his part; the violence committed on his subjects, by forcibly entering their houses at midnight, and sending them prisoners to Vienna, to perish in a dungeon, or on the banks of the Danube. Not content with this, he had openly massacred his subjects; he had consigned towns and villages to the flames, and entered into a design of exterminating people who contended only for their rights. These things, they owned, might be terrible at the time, and easily impose upon weak minds, but "the natural courage of a nation, roused by repeated injuries, and animated by despair, would rise superior to those last efforts of vindictive tyranny, and render them as impotent and abortive, as they were wicked and unexampled." For all which reasons they declared themselves independent, and for ever released from the house of Austria.

The emperor, now perceiving the bad effects of his cruelty, published proclamations of indemnity, &c., but they were treated with the utmost contempt. The patriots made the most rapid conquests; insomuch, that, before the end of the year, they were masters of every place in the Netherlands, except Antwerp and Luxemburg.

Notwithstanding they thus appeared for ever separated from the house of Austria, yet the death of Joseph, happening soon after, produced such a change in the conduct of government, as gave a very unexpected turn to the situation of affairs; and the mild and pacific disposition of Leopold, who succeeded his brother, the conciliatory measures he adopted, together with the mediation of Great Britain, Prussia, and Holland, made a material alteration in the affairs of these provinces; and a convention, which was signed at Reichenbach, on the 27th of July 1790, by the above-mentioned high contracting powers, had for its object the re-establishment of peace and good order in the Belgic provinces of his imperial majesty.

Their majesties of Great Britain and Prussia, and the states-general of Holland, became, in the most solemn manner, guarantees to the emperor and his successors for the sovereignty of the Belgic provinces, now re-united under his dominion.

The ratification of this convention was exchanged between the contracting parties, within two months from the date of signing, which was executed at the Hague, on the 10th of December 1790.

The incursion of the French into these provinces, their complete conquest, the cession of them to France by the treaty of Campo Formio, and the confirmation of that cession by the peace of Luneville, have already been related in our history of the late transactions of that people.

THE SEVEN UNITED PROVINCES, OR HOLLAND.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

Miles.	Degrees.
Length 150 } Breadth 120 }	between } 51° 20' and 53° 30' North latitude. 3° 30' and 7° 0' East longitude.
Containing 9,400 square miles, with 280 inhabitants to each.	

NAME.] This country was a part of that inhabited by the ancient Batavi: it is usually called Holland, from the name of the chief province; which is formed from the German words *hohl* and *land*, and signifies a *hollow* or low country. Since the revolution occasioned by the incursion of the French in 1795, it has taken the name of the Batavian Republic.

BOUNDARIES.] It is bounded on the north and west by the German ocean, and the Zuyder sea; on the east by Germany; and on the south by the Netherlands, or Belgium.

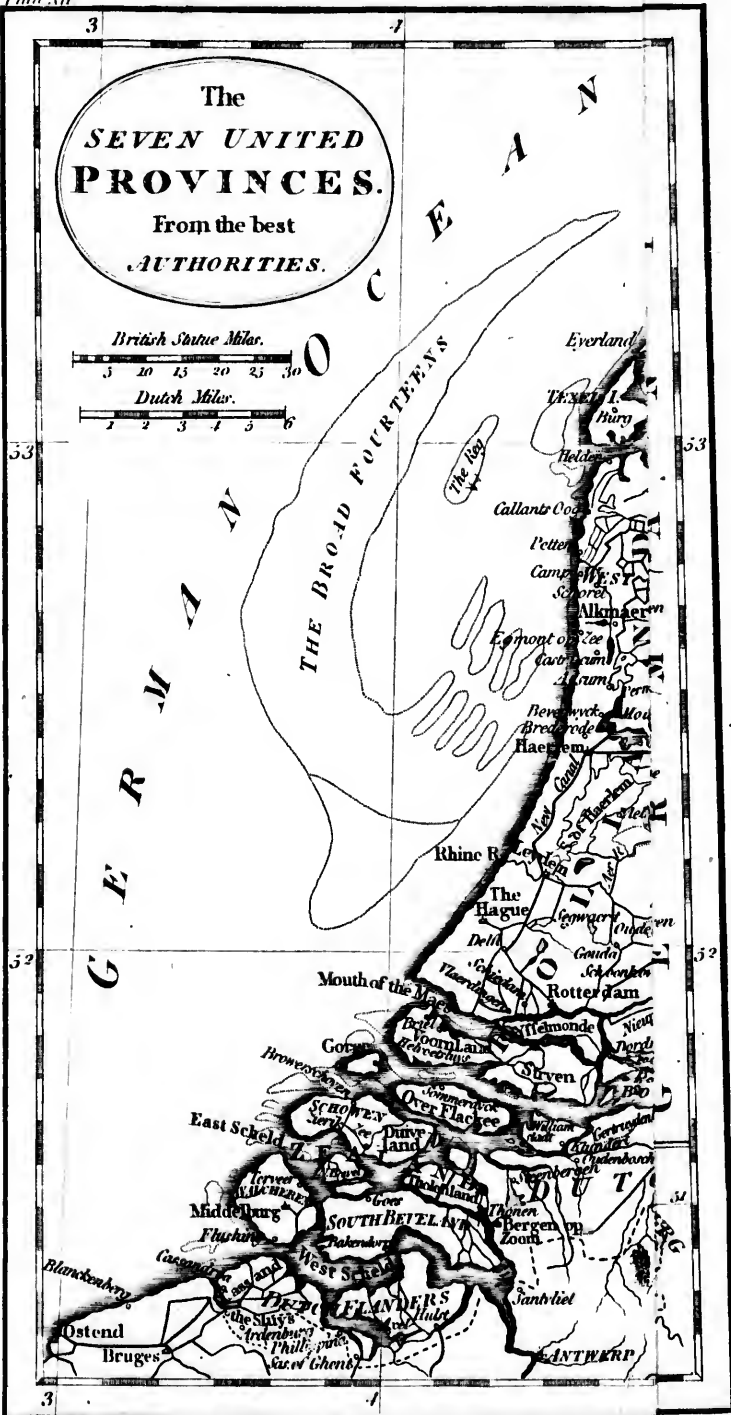
DIVISIONS.] The United Provinces were, properly speaking, eight, viz. Holland, Overysse, Zealand, Friesland, Utrecht, Groningen, Guelderland, and Zutphen; but the two latter forming only one sovereignty, they generally are termed the Seven United Provinces. Besides these, the Dutch republic contained the county of Drenthe, a kind of separate province in Overysse, which had no share in the government; and what was called the Land of the Generality, or Dutch Brabant, Dutch Flanders, and the part of Limburg which belonged to the republic. Of these the two latter are now annexed to France, being included in the new Belgian departments.

The extent and population of these provinces are stated as follows in Bœtticher's Tables:

Provinces.	Sq. miles.	Population.	Chief Towns.
Lower Guelderland } and } county of Zutphen. }	1,840		Nimeguen.
Holland.....	2,000	980,000	Amsterdam. { 52° 22' N. lat. 4° 51' E. lon.
Zealand.....	480	85,000	Middleburg.
Utrecht.....	512	75,000	Utrecht.

The SEVEN UNITED PROVINCES.

From the best AUTHORITIES.



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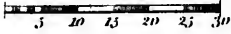
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The SEVEN UNITED PROVINCES.

From the best AUTHORITIES.

British Statue Miles.



Dutch Miles.





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Provinces.	Sq. miles.	Population.	Chief Towns.
Friesland.....	880	140,000	Leuwarden.
Overyssel.....	1,792	Deventer.
Groeningen.....	640	100,000	Groeningen.
County of Drenthe.			
Lands of the Generality	2,000	435,000	

From the latter are now to be deducted about 600 square miles, with 124,000 inhabitants, for the part taken into the French Belgic departments.

Since the expulsion of the stadtholder, and the introduction of a new form of government under the influence of the French, the Batavian republic has been divided into eight departments, as follows :

Ancient Provinces.	Departments.	Chief Towns.
Groeningen and Friesland.....	Ems.	Leuwarden.
Overyssel, and part of Guelderland and Zutphen.....	Old Yssel.	Zwoll.
Remainder of Guelderland and Zutphen, and part of Utrecht }	Rhine.	Arnhem.
Part of Holland.....	Amstel.	Amsterdam.
North part of Holland, and south part, to Leyden inclusive.....	Texel.	Alkmaar.
Remainder of south part of Holland, and remainder of Utrecht.....	Delft.	Utrecht.
Eastern part of Dutch Brabant..	Dommel.	Bois le Duc.
Western part of Dutch Brabant and Zealand.....	Scheldt and Meuse.	Middleburg.

Each of these departments is divided into seven circles or districts.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY.] Holland is situate opposite to England, at the distance of 90 miles, upon the east side of the English Channel; and is only a narrow slip of low swampy land, lying between the mouths of several great rivers; and what the industry of the inhabitants have gained from the sea by means of dykes, which they have raised, and still support, with incredible labour and expense. 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 many of the canals, which in that country serve as high roads, are in the summer months highly offensive to the smell.

RIVERS, LAKES, CANALS.] The chief rivers of Holland are the Rhine (one of the largest rivers in Europe), the Maese or Meuse, the Dommel, the Waal, the Issel, the Scheldt, and the Vecht. There are many other small rivers that fall into these.

The principal lake of Holland is the Sea of Haerlem; there are also some small lakes in the north of the province of Holland, and in Friesland and Groeningen.

The canals of these provinces are almost innumerable. The usual way of passing from town to town is by covered boats, called treckscuits, which are dragged along the canals by horses on a slow uniform trot, so that passengers reach the different towns where they are to stop precisely at the appointed instant of time. This method of travelling,

though to strangers rather dull, is extremely convenient to the inhabitants, and very cheap. By means of these canals an extensive inland commerce is not only carried on through the whole country, but, as they communicate with the Rhine and other large rivers, the productions of every country are conveyed at a small expense into various parts of Germany and Flanders. A treckscoot is divided into two different apartments, called the roof and the ruin; the first for gentlemen, and the other for common people. Near Amsterdam and other large cities, a traveller is astonished when he beholds the effects of an extensive and flourishing commerce. Here the canals are lined for miles together with elegant neat country-houses, seated in the midst of gardens and pleasure-grounds, intermixed with figures, busts, statues, temples, &c. to the very water's edge.

METALS, MINERALS.] Holland produces neither metals nor minerals, except a little iron; nor any mineral waters.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AGRICULTURE.] 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 of 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.

VEGETABLES, ANIMALS.] The quantity of grain produced here is not sufficient for home consumption; but, by draining the bogs and marshes, the Dutch have many excellent meadows, which fatten lean German and Danish cattle to a vast size; and they make prodigious quantities of the best butter and cheese in Europe. Their country produces turf, madder, tobacco, some fruit, and iron; but all the pit-coal and timber used there, and, indeed, most of the comforts, and even the necessaries of life, are imported. They have a good breed of sheep, whose wool is highly valued; and their horses and horned cattle are of a larger size than in any other nation in Europe. It is said that there are some wild bears and wolves here. Storks build and hatch on their chimneys; but being birds of passage, they leave the country about the middle of August, with their young, and return the February following. Their river-fish are much the same as ours; but their sea-fish are generally larger, owing perhaps to their fishing in deep water. No herrings visit their coasts; but they have many excellent oyster-beds about the islands of the Texel, producing very large and well-tasted oysters. Notwithstanding all the inconveniences, the industry of the Hollanders furnishes as great a plenty of the necessaries and commodities of life, and upon as easy terms (except to travellers and strangers), as can be met with in any part of Europe.

CURIOSITIES.] Holland, like the Netherlands, presents none of the vast and grand scenery of nature. The numerous canals with which the country is intersected may be considered as interesting to the curiosity of the traveller; and the prodigious dykes (some of which are said to be seventeen ells in thickness) mounds, and canals, constructed by the Dutch, to preserve their country from those dreadful inundations by which it formerly suffered so much, are works equally stupendous and singular. The Stadthouse of Amsterdam is perhaps the best building of that kind in the world: it stands upon 13,659 large piles, driven into the ground; and the inside is equally convenient and magnificent. Se-

veral museums, containing antiquities and curiosities, artificial and natural, are to be found in Holland and the other provinces, particularly in the university of Leyden.

POPULATION.] The Seven United Provinces are perhaps the best peopled of any spot of the same extent in the world. They contained in 1785, according to a public account then given, 113 cities and towns, 1400 villages, and 2,758,632 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. Later estimates make the population amount at present to 2,633,070.

NATIONAL CHARACTER, MANNERS, CUSTOMS.] The manners, habits, and even the minds of the Dutch (for so the inhabitants of the United Provinces are in general called), seem to be formed by their situation, and to arise from their natural wants. Their country, which is preserved by mounds and dykes, is a perpetual incentive to labour; and the artificial drains, with which it is every where intersected, must be kept in perpetual repair. Even what may be called their natural commodities, their butter and cheese, are produced by a constant attention to the laborious parts of life. Their principal food they earn out of the sea, by their herring fisheries; for they dispose of most of their valuable fish to the English, and other nations, for the sake of gain. The air and temperature of their climate incline them to phlegmatic, slow dispositions, both of body and mind; 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.

The valour of the Dutch becomes warm and active, when they believe their interests at stake; witness their sea-wars with England and France. Their boors, though slow of understanding, are manageable by fair means. Their seamen are plain, blunt, but rough, surly, and an ill-natured sort of people, and appear to be insensible of public spirit and affection for each other. Their tradesmen in general are reckoned honest in their dealings, and very sparing of their words. Smoking tobacco is practised by old and young, of both sexes; and as they are generally plodding upon ways and means of getting money, no people are so unsociable. A Dutchman of low rank, when drunk, is guilty of every species of brutality. The Dutch have also been known to exercise the most dreadful inhumanities for interest abroad, where they thought themselves free from discovery; but they are in general quiet and inoffensive in their own country, which exhibits but few instances of murder, rapine, or violence. As to the habitual tippling and drinking charged upon both sexes, it is owing, in a great measure to the nature of their soil and climate. In general, all appetites and passions seem to run lower and cooler here than in most other countries, that of avarice excepted. Their tempers are not airy enough for joy, or any unusual strains of pleasant humour; nor warm enough for love; so that the softer passions seem no natives of this country; and love itself is little better than a mechanical affection, arising from interest, convenience, or habit; it is talked of sometimes among the young men, but as a thing they have heard of, rather than felt, and as a discourse that becomes them, rather than affects them.

In whatever relates to the management of pecuniary affairs, the Dutch are certainly the most expert of any people; as, to the knowledge of acquiring wealth, they unite the no less necessary science of preserv-

ing it. It is a kind of general rule for every man to spend less than his income, be that what it will; nor does it often enter into the heads of this sagacious people, that the common course of expense should equal the revenue; and when this happens, they think, at least, they have lived that year to no purpose; and the report of it used to discredit a man among them, as much as any vicious or prodigal extravagance does in other countries. But this rigid frugality is not so universal among the Dutch as it was formerly; for a greater degree of luxury and extravagance has been introduced among them, as well as the other nations of Europe. Gaming is likewise practised by many of their fashionable ladies, and some of them discover more propensity to gallantry than was known there in former times. No country can vie with Holland in the number of those inhabitants whose lot, if not riches, is at least a comfortable sufficiency; and no where fewer failures or bankruptcies occur. Hence, in the midst of a world of taxes and contributions, they flourish and grow rich. From this systematic spirit of regularity and moderation, joined to the most obstinate perseverance, they succeeded in the stupendous works of draining their country of those immense deluges of water, that had overflowed so large a part of it during many ages, while, at the same time, they brought under their subjection and command the rivers and seas that surround them, by dykes of incredible thickness and strength, and made them the principal bulwarks on which they rely for the protection and safety of their territories against the danger of an enemy. This they have done by covering their frontiers and cities with innumerable sluices; by means of which, at the shortest notice, the most rapid inundations are let in, and they become, in a few hours, inaccessible. From that frugality and perseverance by which they have been so much characterised, they were enabled, though labouring under the greatest difficulties, not only to throw off the Spanish yoke, but to attack that powerful nation in the most tender parts, by seizing her rich galleons, and forming new establishments in Africa, and the East and West Indies, at the expense of Spain, and thereby becoming, from a despicable province, a most powerful and formidable enemy. Equally wonderful was the rise of their military and marine establishments; maintaining, during their celebrated contention with Lewis XIV. and Charles II. of England, not less than 150,000 men, and upwards of eighty ships of the line. But a spirit of frugality being now less universal among them, the rich traders and mechanics begin to approximate to the luxuries of the English and French; and their nobility and high magistrates, who have retired from trade, rival those of any other part of Europe in their table, buildings, furniture, and equipages.

The diversions of the Dutch differ not much from those of the English, who seem to have borrowed from them the neatness of their drinking 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. They are the best skaters upon the ice in the world. It is amazing to see the crowds in a hard frost upon the ice, and the great dexterity both of men and women in darting along, or rather flying, with inconceivable velocity.

The dress of the Dutch formerly was noted for the large breeches of the men, and the jerkins, plain mobs, 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. These dresses now prevail only among the lower ranks, and more particularly among the sea-faring people.

CITIES, CHIEF TOWNS, EDIFICES.] Amsterdam, which is built upon piles of wood, is thought to contain 212,000 people, and to be, next to London, the most commercial city in the world. It stands on the river Amstel. Its conveniences for commerce, and the grandeur of its public works, are almost beyond description. In this and all other cities of the United Provinces, the beauty of the canals and walks under trees planted on their borders is admirable; but above all, we are struck with the neatness and cleanliness that is every where observed within doors. This city, however, labours under two great disadvantages—bad air, and the want of fresh wholesome water, which obliges the inhabitants to preserve the rain water in reservoirs. Rotterdam is next to Amsterdam for commerce and wealth; its inhabitants are computed at 48,000. 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 forty thousand; it is no place of trade, but it has been for many years noted as an emporium of pleasure and politics. Middleburg in Zealand has a large town-hall, and was the seat of the provincial states, and of the council of Flanders. Leyden and Utrecht are fine cities, as well as famous for their universities. Delft, Dort, and Groeningen, are likewise considerable towns, containing each about 20,000 inhabitants. 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 Guelderland is subject to Prussia, and the capital city is Guelder.

COMMERCE, MANUFACTURES.] An account of the Dutch commerce, previous to the late revolution, would have comprehended that of almost all Europe. There is scarcely a manufacture that they did not carry on, or a state to which they did 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 were the grand magazine of Europe: and goods might be purchased here sometimes cheaper than in the countries where they grow. The East-India company has had the monopoly of the most valuable spices for more than a hundred years, and, till the late and present wars with England, was extremely opulent and powerful. 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 some of the Dutch subjects in Batavia scarcely acknowledge any dependence on the mother country. They have other settlements in India; but the island of Ceylon is now in possession of the English. Not to mention their herring and whale fisheries, which they have carried off from the native proprietors, they are distinguished for their pottery, tobacco-pipes, Delft-ware, finely refined salt; their oil-mills, and starch-manufactures; their hemp and fine paper manufactures; their fine linen and table-damasks; their saw-mills for timber, either for shipping or houses, in immense quantities; their great sugar-baking; their vast woollen, cotton, and silk manufactures; wax-bleaching; leather-dressing; the great quantity of coin and specie, assisted by their banks, especially by that of Amsterdam; their East-India trade; and their general industry and frugality.

Their commerce, however, must have greatly suffered during the late and present war, and especially since the French entered the country.

PUBLIC TRADING COMPANIES.] Of these, the principal is the East-India company, incorporated in 1602, by which formerly the Dutch acquired immense wealth, divided forty per cent. and sometimes sixty, 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 1700, they divided fifteen per cent.; but the Dutch West-India company the same year divided no more than two and a half per cent. This company was incorporated in 1621. The bank of Amsterdam was thought to be inexhaustibly rich, and was 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 was so far from paying any interest, that the money in it was worth somewhat more than the current cash is in common payments. Mr. Anderson supposes, that the cash, bullion, and pawned jewels in this bank, which were kept in the vaults of the Stadthouse, amounted to thirty-six (though others say only to thirty) millions sterling.

CONSTITUTION, GOVERNMENT, LAWS.] Before the French entered Holland, in January 1795, the United Provinces formed a common confederacy; yet each province had an internal government or constitution independent of the others; this government was called the *states* of that province; and the delegates from them formed the *states-general*, in whom the sovereignty of the whole confederacy was vested; but though a province should send two or more delegates, yet such province had no more than one voice in every resolution; and before that resolution could 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* consisted likewise of deputies from the several provinces; but its constitution was different from that of the *states-general*; it was composed of twelve persons, whereof Guelderland sent two; Holland, three; Zealand, two; Utrecht, two; Friesland, one; Overyssel, one; and Groeningen, one. These deputies, however, did not vote provincially, but personally. Their business was to prepare estimates, and ways and means for raising the revenue, as well as other matters that were to be laid before the *states-general*. The states of the provinces were styled "Noble and Mighty Lords;" but those of Holland, "Noble and Most 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, was the chamber of accounts, which was likewise composed of provincial deputies, who audited all public accounts. The admiralty formed a separate board, and the executive part of it was committed to five colleges in the three maritime provinces of Holland, Zealand, and Friesland. In Holland the people had nothing to do either in choosing their representatives or their magistrates. In Amsterdam, which took the lead in all public deliberations, the magistracy was lodged in thirty-six senators, who were chosen for life, and every vacancy among them was filled up by the survivors. The same senate also elected the deputies to represent the cities in the province of Holland.

The above particulars are mentioned, 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 superseded the constitution already described. The stadtholder was president of the states of every province; and such was his power and influence, that he could change the deputies, magistrates, and officers, in every province and city. By this he held the moulding of the assembly of the states-general, though he had no voice in it: in short, though he had not the title, he had more real power and authority than some kings; for, besides the influence and revenue he derived from the stadtholdership, he had several principalities and large estates of his own. The late stadtholder, who was expelled by the French, was William V. prince of Orange and Nassau, son of the stadtholder William Charles, who married Anne, princess royal of Great Britain, and died in 1751.

Though Holland under this constitution was called a republic, yet its government was far from being of the popular kind: nor did the people enjoy that degree of liberty which might at first view be apprehended. It was indeed rather an oligarchy than a commonwealth; for the bulk of the people were not suffered to have the least share in any part of the government, not even in the choice of the deputies. It may also be observed that very few persons in this state dared speak their real sentiments freely; and they were generally educated in principles so extremely cautious, that they could not relinquish them when they entered more into public life.

After the departure of the stadtholder, on the conquest of Holland by the French, in 1795, a convention was assembled to administer the government, and frame a constitution for the new Batavian republic. The first plan they presented was rejected by the people in the primary assemblies; but another was afterwards drawn up, which was accepted. This constitution was again changed in several particulars in 1798; and the Batavian republic is now governed by a directory of twelve members, the president of which is changed every three months, and of which one member goes out annually; and a legislative body of 35 members, which assembles twice, and if necessary oftener, in the year, and appoints a committee of twelve of its members to examine and report on the laws and regulations proposed by the directory.

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.

REVENUE.] The late government of the United Provinces proportioned their taxes according to the abilities of each province or city. Those taxes consisted of an almost general excise, a land-tax, poll-tax, and hearth-money; so that the public revenue amounted annually to about three millions and a half sterling. The province of Holland paid nearly half of this revenue. The following is the rate at which each of the Seven United Provinces contributed towards the public expense:

Of every million of ducats, the province of	
Holland contributed.....	420,000
Zealand	130,000
Friesland	170,000
Utrecht	85,000
Groeningen	75,000
Guelderland	70,000
Overyssel	50,000

Of the 420,000 ducats paid by the province of Holland, the city of Amsterdam furnished upwards of 320,000. The taxes in these provinces are so heavy, and so many, that it is not without reason a certain author asserts, that the only thing which has escaped taxation there is the air they breathe. But for the encouragement of trade, the duties on goods and merchandise are exceedingly low. The expenses occasioned by the present war, and the contributions required by their new allies the French, cannot but have considerably increased their taxes. In the year 1797, after the defeat of the Dutch fleet by admiral Duncan, a tax of eight per cent. on all income was imposed for the re-establishment of their navy. A forced loan of three per cent. on all capital and property, and a tax of seven per cent. besides, on all income, were likewise decreed; and additional taxes of the same kind have since been imposed.

The public debt of the United Provinces is stated by Boetticher at one hundred and thirty millions sterling; but by an estimate lately published, which appears to be from authority, it amounts only to one thousand millions of florins, or about one hundred millions sterling.

ARMY, NAVY.] The number of land forces in the United Provinces, in time of peace, commonly amounted to about forty thousand. At present, though they are at war, they have not more than twenty thousand; but their new allies, the French, oblige them to keep in their pay a numerous body of French troops, generally to the amount of twenty-five or thirty thousand, who hold the country in subjection to France. The marine force of the United Provinces used to be very great, and they formerly fitted out very formidable fleets; but their navy has for many years been much neglected. Their late war with Great Britain obliged them to increase it; and they have great resources for that purpose. At present it must be in a very feeble and shattered state, in consequence of the surrender of admiral Lucas's squadron at the Cape of Good Hope, the victory gained by admiral Duncan, and especially the surrender of the fleet in the Texel to admiral Mitchel. Their naval force may, however, still amount to fifteen ships of the line, and as many frigates.

RELIGION.] Since the irruption of the French into Holland, the new government of the Batavian republic has declared that no religion is established or paid by the state; but prior to that event the established religion here was the presbyterian and Calvinism; none but presbyterians were admitted to any office or post in the government, excepting in the army; yet all religions and sects were tolerated, and had their respective meetings or assemblies for public worship, among which the papists and Jews were very numerous. And, indeed, this country may be considered as a striking instance of the benefits arising to a nation from universal toleration. As every man is allowed to worship God according to the dictates of his own conscience, persons of the most opposite opinions live together in the most perfect harmony and peace. No man in this republic has any reason to complain of being oppressed on account of his religious principles; nor any hopes, by advancing his religion, to form a party, or to break in upon the government; and therefore, in Holland, men live together as citizens of the world; their differences in opinion make none in affection, and they are associated together by the common ties of humanity and bonds of peace, under the protection of the laws of the state, with equal encouragement to arts and industry, and equal freedom of speculation and inquiry.

LITERATURE.] Erasimus and Grotius, who were both natives of this country, stand almost at the head of modern learning. Haarlem disputes the invention of printing with the Germans, and the magistrates keep two copies of a book entitled *Speculum Salvationis*, printed by

Koster in 1440; and the most elegant editions of the classics came from the Dutch presses of Amsterdam, Rotterdam, Utrecht, Leyden, and other towns. The Dutch have excelled in controversial divinity, which insinuated itself so much into the state, that, before principles of universal toleration prevailed, it had almost proved fatal to the government; witness the violent disputes about Arminianism, free-will, predestination, and the like. Besides Boerhaave, they have produced excellent writers in all branches of medicine. Grævius, Gronovius father and son, and Burman, are ranked among the principal of their numerous commentators upon the classics. In the other departments of literature, the Dutch publications are mechanical, and arise chiefly from their employments, in universities, church, or state.

UNIVERSITIES.] These are Leyden, Utrecht, Groeningen, Harderwicke, and Franeker.

The university of Leyden, which was founded in 1575, is the largest and most ancient in all the United Netherlands. Its library, besides a number of printed books, contains above two thousand oriental manuscripts. Here is also a physic-garden, and an anatomical theatre.

The university of Utrecht was changed from a school into an university in 1636; but it has not all the privileges of the other universities, being entirely subject to the magistrates of the city. The physic-garden here is very curious; and for the recreation of the students, on the east side of the city, just without the gate, is a beautiful mall, consisting of seven straight walks, two thousand paces in length, regularly planted with limes; but that in the middle is properly the mall.

There are abundance of youth, of the principal nobility and gentry from most countries in Europe, at these seminaries of literature; and as every one may live as he pleases, without being obliged to be profuse in his expenses, or so much as quitting his night-gown for either weeks or months together, foreigners of all ranks and conditions are to be seen here. The force of example is strikingly exhibited at these universities; for frugality in expense, order, a composed behaviour, attention to study, and assiduity in all things, being the characteristics of the natives, strangers who continue amongst them soon adopt their manners and form of living. And though the students live as they please, and study as much or as little as they think fit, yet they are in general remarkable for their sobriety and good manners, and the assiduity and success with which they apply themselves to their studies. No oaths are imposed, nor any religious tests; so that Roman-catholic parents, and even Jews, send their children here with as little scruple as protestants.

LANGUAGE.] The 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. The Lord's Prayer runs thus: *Onse Vader, die in de hemel is, wesen naam worde geheyligh: wechoningkryk kome: wse wille geschiede gelyck in den hemel zoo ook op den arden, ons dagelicks broot geef ons heeden, ende vergeeft onse schulden gelyk ook wy vergeeven onse schuldenaaren: ende entuut ons niet in versoekinge, muer vertast ons zan der boosen.* Amen.

ANTIQUITIES.] Holland contains few antiquities. Near Catwyk is a ruinous Roman tower; and in the middle of Leyden an artificial mount, on which is a round tower built, according to traditional report, by Hengist the leader of the Saxons who invaded England.

HISTORY.] After the Seven United Provinces had obtained their independence, as related in the preceding summary of the history of the Netherlands, they soon became distinguished as a commercial and mari-

time state; and by their sea-wars with England, under the Commonwealth, Cromwell, and Charles II., justly acquired the reputation of a formidable naval power. 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.

Their conduct towards England in the wars of 1742 and 1756 has been mentioned in the history of that country, as also the occurrences which led to a rupture between them and the English in the year 1780. As it was urged that they refused to fulfil the treaties which subsisted between them and Great Britain, so all the treaties which bound Great Britain to them were declared null and void, as if none had ever existed. By this war, their trade suffered considerably; but Negapatnam, in the East Indies, was the only place not restored to them by the peace of 1783.

Probably, to their separation from Great Britain may be attributed the differences between the States-General and the emperor Joseph II., who, from the exhausted state of several of the European powers, seemed to have a favourable opportunity of accomplishing his designs. In the year 1781, he had been allowed to demolish the Dutch barrier in his dominions, for which they had contended so desperately in the time of queen Anne; and he now seemed willing to encroach upon their territories. A conference concerning the boundaries of their respective nations was proposed to the states; but before this could take place, he began to commit some acts of hostility, and extended his dominions a little by way of preliminary. Two small forts, St. Donat, and St. Paul, were seized upon, as well as some part of the marshes in the neighbourhood of Shuys. As a prelude to the negotiations, he also demanded that the Dutch guard-ship should be removed from before Lillo, in acknowledgement that one of the prerogatives of his Imperial majesty was the free navigation of the Scheldt. This being complied with, the negotiations were opened at Brussels, on the 24th of April, 1784, when several other demands of small portions of territory and little sums of money were made; the most material requisition being the town of Maestricht and its territory. For some time the conferences were carried on in that dry and tedious manner which generally marks the proceedings of the Dutch; but the emperor urged on his demands with great vigour, and matters seemed fast tending towards an open rupture. On the 23d of August, he delivered in his *ultimatum* to the commissioners at Brussels, in which he offered to give up his demand on Maestricht, in consideration of having the free and unlimited navigation of the Scheldt, in both its branches, to the sea; and, in token of his confidence of the good intentions of the states, he determined to consider the river as open from the date of that paper. Any insult on his flags, in the execution of these purposes, he would conclude to be a direct act of hostility, and a formal declaration of war on the part of the republic. To prevent all injuries contrary to the incontestable rights of his Imperial majesty, and to leave no doubts of his unalterable resolution to adhere to the propositions contained in the *ultimatum*, his majesty could not forbear determining to

send to sea, from Antwerp, a ship under his flag, after having declared long enough before in what manner he should consider all violent opposition that might be made to the free passage of the said ship.

The ship was stopped in its passage, as was another, ordered to sail from Ostend up the Scheldt to Antwerp. But the Dutch offered to dismiss the vessels, if the captains would engage to return to their respective places, and not continue their voyage on the river; which they refused to do. This the emperor called insulting his flag, and declared to all foreign courts, he could not look on this fact but as "an effective declaration of war on the part of the republic." In answer to their conduct in stopping the Imperial ships, which the emperor styled an insult to his flag, and by which he declared them to have begun hostilities, the Dutch ministers at Brussels, in a paper delivered to that court, protested "that as their sole aim was to support their uncontrovertible right, they could not, with any appearance of justice, be considered as guilty of a hostile aggression."

Great preparations were made for immediate hostilities against the Dutch; and several hundred of the Imperialists, with some field-pieces, advancing towards the counterscarp of Lillo, the commanding officer of that place ordered the sluices to be opened; November 7, 1784, which effected an inundation that laid under water many miles of the flat country around the forts on the Scheldt, to preserve them from an attack. Both parties exerted themselves in case they should be called forth to open a campaign in the next spring; but France and Prussia interposed as negotiators and mediators, and succeeded in bringing about a reconciliation. However, from the conduct of the emperor in the partition of Poland, and in demolishing the fortifications of the barrier places in the Netherlands, and demanding a free navigation of the Scheldt and to the East Indies—advancing from one pretension to another—it is apparent that the most solemn treaties will be no longer observed, by some courts and statesmen, than till they have an opportunity, with ability, to break them.

During the progress of their contentions with the emperor, this country was greatly distressed by intestine animosities, which it may be proper in this place briefly to state. The continued series of losses which they had sustained in the late war with Great Britain was peculiarly disgraceful to the republic. All their settlements in the West Indies fell into the hands of the British, without resistance; their ships were captured, and trade ruined; while the disasters of the war excited the animosity of the two factions against each other to the highest degree. The patriots, or aristocratic party, attributed these defeats to the stadtholder, who had openly expressed his predilection for the English at the beginning of the American quarrel. To this conduct the patriots now very artfully reverted. They accused him of having advised the aggression of the English, and of contributing to their success by treachery. The evident inequality of the struggle, the notorious deficiency of all warlike articles in the dock-yards and arsenals of the republic, the frequent and public reclamations made by the prince and by the council of state on the subject of that deficiency, were forgotten; and the wilful misconduct of the stadtholder was boldly alleged by the patriots as the sole cause of that miserable succession of defeat and disgrace which immediately followed the commencement of hostilities. Whilst these were the recriminations of the patriots, the monarchical or Orange party accused their antagonists of having involved the country in a dangerous war, at a time when it was entirely unprepared for it.

This produced various accusations and vindications between the two parties, until at last, in the month of May 1786, the stadtholder gave orders to seize on Vreeswick, a post of importance to the city of Utrecht, on account of its situation on the canal between that city and the territories of South Holland; containing also the sluices, by which both these provinces might be overflowed. This brought on a skirmish between the troops of the stadtholder and the burghers of Utrecht, in which the latter proved victorious. Some other unimportant hostilities took place; but while the military operations were carried on in such a languid manner, a violent tumult happened at Amsterdam, in which several persons were killed. This was followed by a revolt of most of the regular troops of Holland, who went over to the stadtholder; but notwithstanding this apparent advantage, and some others which afterwards took place, the disputes still continued with extreme violence, insomuch that the princess of Orange herself was seized, and detained prisoner a night by the patriots.

These turbulent commotions were, however, at last settled by the king of Prussia, who for this purpose marched an army into the territories of the United Provinces, and took possession of the city of Rotterdam, and some other places, without resistance. This so much overawed both parties, that they quickly came to an accommodation, and a treaty was concluded between that monarch and the states of Holland. By this, the two contending parties were formally reconciled, and the courts of London and Berlin guaranteed the stadtholdership, as well as the hereditary government of each province, in the House of Orange, with all the rights and prerogatives settled in the years 1747 and 1748; by which all attempts to disturb the domestic tranquillity of the republic, by means of any foreign interference, appeared to be effectually guarded against by the close union that subsisted between those two important powers.

The late revolution in Holland, in consequence of the irruption of the French, and the expulsion of the stadtholder from that country, has already been briefly narrated in our history of France, to which we must refer the reader.

GERMANY.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

Miles.
 Length 620 } between { 45° 30' and 55° 30' North lat.
 Breadth 530 } { 6° 0' and 19° 0' East long.

Containing 180,000 square miles, with 128 inhabitants to each.

NAME.] GREAT part of modern Germany lay in ancient Gaul, as has been already mentioned: and the word Germany itself may be considered as 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 Teutonic, signifies a warlike man. The Germans were called by various other names, such as *Allemanni*, *Teutones*: which last appears to have been their most ancient designation; and the Germans themselves call their country *Teutschland*.

BOUNDARIES.] Germany is bounded on the north by the German Ocean, Denmark, and the Baltic; on the east by Prussia, Galicia, and Hungary; on the south by the Adriatic Sea, Italy, and Switzerland; and on the west by France, from which it is separated by the Rhine, Holland, and the North Sea.

DIVISIONS.] 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 afterwards detached from the empire, we are to confine ourselves to nine of those divisions, as they now subsist.

Of these, 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		} Upper Rhine. Lower Rhine. Franconia.
The southern circles		

1. CIRCLE OF UPPER SAXONY,
Containing 31,200 square miles.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	S. Miles.	Populat.	Chief Towns.	
Pomerania, sub. to Prussia and Sweden.	Prus. Pomera.	7,200	540,000	} Stettin, lat. 53. 32. N. long. 14. 55. E.	
	Swed. Pomera.	1,200	110,000		Stralsund
Electorate of Brandenburg, sub. to its elector, the k. of Prussia.	Old Mark	} 10,670	} 1,200,000	Stendal	
	Middle Mark			BERLIN, lat. 52. 31. N. lon. 13. 21. E.	
	Priegnitz			Perleberg	
	Ucker Mark			Prentzlow	
Electorate of Saxony, sub. to its elector*.	New Mark	} 10,170	} 600,000	Custria	
	} Meissen			Dresden, lat. 51. 0. N. lon. 13. 50. E	
				} Circles of	ElecCircle
	Thuringia				Langensalza
	Leipsic				Leipsic
	Erzgebirge				Freyberg
	Voigtland				Flauen
	Neustadt				Neustadt
	} Merseburg				Merseburg
					Naumburg
} Bishopsrics	Princip. of	Querfurt			
	Querfurt				

* The whole of the territories of the elector of Saxony comprehend 11,776 square miles, with 2,100,000 inhabitants.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	S. Miles.	Populat.	Chief Towns.
Principality of the house of Saxony, sub. to their respective princes.	Saxe Weimar and Eisenach	480	106,000	Weimar Eisenach
	SaxeGothawith part of Altenburg			830
	Saxe Coburg Saalfeld	352	70,000	Coburg
	Saxe Coburg Meinungen			Sonnenburg
Prin. of Anhalt, subject to its princes.	Saxe Coburg Hildburghausen	800	115,000	Hildburghausen
	Anhalt Dessau			Dessau
Principality of Schwarzburg.	Anh. Bernburg	721	100,000	Bernburg
	Anhalt Cothen			Cothen
County of Stolberg.	Schwarzburg Sonderhausen	112	20,000	Arnstadt
	Sch. Rudolstadt			Rudolstadt
County of Stolberg.	Stolberg Stolberg	80	14,000	Stolberg in the Harze.
	Stolb. Wernigerode			Wernigerode
County of Hohenstein, sub. partly to Prussia and partly to the counts of Stolberg.		192	25,000	Ilefeld
Coun. of Reuss.	Reuss Greifz	384	80,000	Greifz
	Reuss Gera			Gera
C. of Mansfeld, sub. part to elec. of Saxony, part to Prussia.	Reuss Schleiz	208	43,000	Schleiz
	Re. Lobenstein			Lobenstein
Ter. of late abbey of Quedlinburg, given as indemnity to Prussia.		32	12,000	Quedlinburg
Ter. of late abbey of Walkenried, incorporated with p. of Blankenburg, sub. to d. of Brunswick Wolfenbüttele.		32	5,000	Walkenried
Late free Imperial town of Erfurt, given as indemn. to Prussia.			40,000	
The Eichsfeld territory, sub. to Prussia as indemn., late belonging to elec. of Mentz.		640	70,000	Heiligenstadt

2. CIRCLE OF LOWER SAXONY,

Containing 17,600 square miles.

Terr. sub. to k. of Prussia.	D. of Magdeburg	1552	290,000	Magdeburg
	P. of Halberstadt and lordship of Derenburg	480	100,000	Halberstadt
	P. late Bk. of Hildesheim	640	90,000	Hildesheim
late free Imp. cities of	Mühlhausen		9,000	
	Nordhausen		10,000	
	Goslar		6,000	

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	S. Miles.	Populat.	Chief Towns.
Elect. of Hanover, sub. to its elect. the king of G. Britain.	P. of Calenberg, or Hanover.	1,248	200,000	{ Hanover Goettingen
	P. of Lüneburg, or Celle.			
	Duchy of Saxe Lauenburg, with territory of Hadan.	512	70,000	Lauenburg
T. of duke of Brunswick Wolfenbottle.	Duchy of Bremen	1,600	200,000	Stade
	{ P. of Wolfenbottle.	960	190,000	{ Brunswick- Wolfenbottle
	{ P. of Blankenb.			
Duchy of Mecklenburg.	{ Mecklenburg Schwerin	4,800	400,000	{ Schwerin Gustrow
	{ Meek. Strelitz			
Lordship of Wismar, sub. to king of Sweden.			6,000	Wismar
D. of Holstein, with lordship of Pinneberg and county of Ranzenau, sub. to king of Denmark.		2,304	350,000	{ Kiel Altona
T. of d. of Holstein Oldenburg, as indemn.	{ Part of Bk of Lübeck	160	20,000	Eintr
The free Imperial Hans towns, and their territories.	Hamburg	96	150,000	
	Lübeck	80	50,000	
	Bremen	64	50,000	

3. CIRCLE OF WESTPHALIA,

Containing (after the deduction of 4,000 square miles annexed to France) 16,000 square miles.

T. sub. to the king of Prussia.	{ Prin. of East Friesland, and Ter. of Harlinger	864	100,000	{ Embden Leer	
					Principality of Minden
	Remainder of D. of Cleves	400	55,000	Wesel	
	County of Mark	480	124,000	Hamm	
	Counties of	{ Lingen	208	30,000	{ Lingen Tecklenburg
		{ Tecklenburg			
		Ravensberg	272	35,000	Ravensberg
		P. late Bk. of Paderborn	1,328	120,000	Paderborn
		P. late Bk. of Munster	1,360	200,000	Munster
	Late free Imperial abbeys	Hertforden	32	2,000	Hertforden
Essen		40	5,500	Essen	
Werden		40	5,000	Werden	
Elten		32	4,000	Elten	
T. sub. to E. of Hanover	Principality of Verden	192	30,000	Verden	
	P. late Bk. of Osnabruck	896	125,000	Osnabruck	
	Counties of	Hoya	650	50,000	Hoya
Diepholz		128	10,000	Diepholz	
Bentheim *		342	25,000	Bentheim	
Sub. to E. of Bavaria.	D. of Berg	1,040	230,000	Dusseldorf	

* This country was held in pledge by the elector of Hanover since 1753; but since the seizure of the electorate by the French, the count of Bentheim Steinfurt has entered into possession.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	S. Miles.	Populat.	Chief Towns.
Sub. to its own duke.	{ Duchy of Oldenburg } with indemnity . .	1,440	135,000	{ Oldenburg } Delmenhorst
Territ. of house of Orange-Nassau, or Nass. Dietz*	{ P. of Dillenburg } P. of Nassau Siegen P. of Dietz P. of Hadamar C. of Spielberg Town of Dortmund Abbey of Corvey			800
C. of Lippe, sub. to its counts.	{ Lippe Detmold } L. Schauenberg	560	70,000	
C. of Schauenberg, sub. partly to Lippe Schauenberg, partly to Hesse Cassel	{ Lippe Detmold } L. Schauenberg	384	50,000	{ Rinteln } Stadthagen
C. of Wied.	{ Wiedrunkel } Wied Neuwied	164	26,000	{ Runkel } Neuwied
Counties	{ Sayn } Pyrmont	32	4,500	{ Altenkirchen } Pyrmont
Rietberg, sub. to Hesse Cassel		64	10,000	Rietberg
Territ. of	{ Duke of Arenberg }	528	36,000	Meppen
	{ Duke of Croy }	88	9,000	
	{ Duke of Lors and Corswaren }	48	4,500	
	{ Prince of Salm Kyburg } Prince of Salm Salm	304	27,000	
Counties of	{ Gehmen } Holzapfel			

4. CIRCLE OF THE UPPER RHINE,

Containing (after the deduction of 2,400 square miles annexed to France)
5,600 square miles.

Electorate of Hesse, sub. to its elec. late landgr.	{ Lower Hesse with part of Upper Hesse on the Lahn } Lower C. of Catzenellenbogen, county of Hanau Müntzenberg	4,224	500,000	{ Cassel } Hanau
Landgrav. of Hesse Darmstadt †	{ Up. C. of Catzenellenbogen } Part of Upper Hesse P. of late B. of Worms late free I. C. Friedberg	1,120	250,000	{ Darmstadt } Giessen Friedberg
Territory of	{ Nassau Usingen } Nassau Weilburg		90,000	{ Usingen } Idstein
Sub. to Orange Nassau as indemn.	{ Princi. of } Fulda	768	90,000	Fulda
County of Waldeck		576	75,000	Corbach

* The whole territory of the house of Orange Nassau, including the late indemnities, contains about 1,600 square miles, with 300,000 inhabitants.

† The whole territory of Hesse Darmstadt contains 2,240 square miles, with 400,000 inhabitants.

Provinces.	Sq. miles.	Population.	Chief Towns.
Friesland.....	880	140,000	Leuwarden.
Overyssel.....	1,792	Deventer.
Groeningen.....	640	100,000	Groeningen.
County of Drenthe.			
Lands of the Generality	2,000	435,000	

From the latter are now to be deducted about 600 square miles, with 124,000 inhabitants, for the part taken into the French Belgic departments.

Since the expulsion of the stadtholder, and the introduction of a new form of government under the influence of the French, the Batavian republic has been divided into eight departments, as follows :

Ancient Provinces.	Departments.	Chief Towns.
Groeningen and Friesland.....	Ems.	Leuwarden.
Overyssel, and part of Guelderland and Zutphen.....	Old Yssel.	Zwoll.
Remainder of Guelderland and Zutphen, and part of Utrecht	Rhine.	Arnheim.
Part of Holland.....	Amstel.	Amsterdam.
North part of Holland, and south part, to Leyden inclusive.....	Texel.	Alkmaar.
Remainder of south part of Holland, and remainder of Utrecht	Delft.	Utrecht.
Eastern part of Dutch Brabant..	Dommel.	Bois le Duc.
Western part of Dutch Brabant and Zealand.....	Scheldt and Meuse.	Middleburg.

Each of these departments is divided into seven circles or districts.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY.] Holland is situate opposite to England, at the distance of 90 miles, upon the east side of the English Channel; and is only a narrow slip of low swampy land, lying between the mouths of several great rivers; and what the industry of the inhabitants have gained from the sea by means of dykes, which they have raised, and still support, with incredible labour and expense. 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 many of the canals, which in that country serve as high roads, are in the summer months highly offensive to the smell.

RIVERS, LAKES, CANALS.] The chief rivers of Holland are the Rhine (one of the largest rivers in Europe), the Maese or Meuse, the Dommel, the Waal, the Issel, the Scheldt, and the Vecht. There are many other small rivers that fall into these.

The principal lake of Holland is the Sea of Haerlem; there are also some small lakes in the north of the province of Holland, and in Friesland and Groeningen.

The canals of these provinces are almost innumerable. The usual way of passing from town to town is by covered boats, called treckscuits, which are dragged along the canals by horses on a slow uniform trot, so that passengers reach the different towns where they are to stop precisely at the appointed instant of time. This method of travelling;

though to strangers rather dull, is extremely convenient to the inhabitants, and very cheap. By means of these canals an extensive inland commerce is not only carried on through the whole country, but, as they communicate with the Rhine and other large rivers, the productions of every country are conveyed at a small expense into various parts of Germany and Flanders. A treckseuit is divided into two different apartments, called the roof and the ruin; the first for gentlemen, and the other for common people. Near Amsterdam and other large cities, a traveller is astonished when he beholds the effects of an extensive and flourishing commerce. Here the canals are lined for miles together with elegant neat country-houses, seated in the midst of gardens and pleasure-grounds, intermixed with figures, busts, statues, temples, &c. to the very water's edge.

METALS, MINERALS.] Holland produces neither metals nor minerals, except a little iron; nor any mineral waters.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AGRICULTURE.] 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 of 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.

VEGETABLES, ANIMALS.] The quantity of grain produced here is not sufficient for home consumption; but, by draining the bogs and marshes, the Dutch have many excellent meadows, which fatten lean German and Danish cattle to a vast size; and they make prodigious quantities of the best butter and cheese in Europe. Their country produces turf, madder, tobacco, some fruit, and iron; but all the pit-coal and timber used there, and, indeed, most of the comforts, and even the necessaries of life, are imported. They have a good breed of sheep, whose wool is highly valued: and their horses and horned cattle are of a larger size than in any other nation in Europe. It is said that there are some wild bears and wolves here. Storks build and hatch on their chimneys; but being birds of passage, they leave the country about the middle of August, with their young, and return the February following. Their river-fish are much the same as ours; but their sea-fish are generally larger, owing perhaps to their fishing in deep water. No herrings visit their coasts; but they have many excellent oyster-beds about the islands of the Texel, producing very large and well-tasted oysters. Notwithstanding all the inconveniences, the industry of the Hollanders furnishes as great a plenty of the necessaries and commodities of life, and upon as easy terms (except to travellers and strangers), as can be met with in any part of Europe.

CURIOSITIES.] Holland, like the Netherlands, presents none of the vast and grand scenery of nature. The numerous canals with which the country is intersected may be considered as interesting to the curiosity of the traveller; and the prodigious dykes (some of which are said to be seventeen ells in thickness) mounds, and canals, constructed by the Dutch, to preserve their country from those dreadful inundations by which it formerly suffered so much, are works equally stupendous and singular. The Stadthouse of Amsterdam is perhaps the best building of that kind in the world: it stands upon 13,659 large piles, driven into the ground; and the inside is equally convenient and magnificent. Se-

veral museums, containing antiquities and curiosities, artificial and natural, are to be found in Holland and the other provinces, particularly in the university of Leyden.

POPULATION.] The Seven United Provinces are perhaps the best peopled of any spot of the same extent in the world. They contained in 1785, according to a public account then given, 113 cities and towns, 1400 villages, and 2,758,632 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. Later estimates make the population amount at present to 2,633,070.

NATIONAL CHARACTER, MANNERS, HABITS, AND EVEN CUSTOMS.] The manners, habits, and even the minds of the Dutch (for so the inhabitants of the United Provinces are in general called), seem to be formed by their situation, and to arise from their natural wants. Their country, which is preserved by mounds and dykes, is a perpetual incentive to labour; and the artificial drains, with which it is every where intersected, must be kept in perpetual repair. Even what may be called their natural commodities, their butter and cheese, are produced by a constant attention to the laborious parts of life. Their principal food they earn out of the sea, by their herring fisheries; for they dispose of most of their valuable fish to the English, and other nations, for the sake of gain. The air and temperature of their climate incline them to phlegmatic, slow dispositions, both of body and mind; 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.

The valour of the Dutch becomes warm and active, when they believe their interests at stake; witness their sea-wars with England and France. Their boors, though slow of understanding, are manageable by fair means. Their seamen are plain, blunt, but rough, surly, and an ill-natured sort of people, and appear to be insensible of public spirit and affection for each other. Their tradesmen in general are reckoned honest in their dealings, and very sparing of their words. Smoking tobacco is practised by old and young, of both sexes; and as they are generally plodding upon ways and means of getting money, no people are so unsociable. A Dutchman of low rank, when drunk, is guilty of every species of brutality. The Dutch have also been known to exercise the most dreadful inhumanities for interest abroad, where they thought themselves free from discovery; but they are in general quiet and offensive in their own country, which exhibits but few instances of murder, rapine, or violence. As to the habitual tipping and drinking charged upon both sexes, it is owing, in a great measure to the nature of their soil and climate. In general, all appetites and passions seem to run lower and cooler here than in most other countries, that of avarice excepted. Their tempers are not airy enough for joy, or any unusual strains of pleasant humour; nor warm enough for love; so that the softer passions seem no natives of this country; and love itself is little better than a mechanical affection, arising from interest, convenience, or habit; it is talked of sometimes among the young men, but as a thing they have heard of, rather than felt, and as a discourse that becomes them, rather than affects them.

In whatever relates to the management of pecuniary affairs, the Dutch are certainly the most expert of any people; as, to the knowledge of acquiring wealth, they unite the no less necessary science of preserv-

ing it. It is a kind of general rule for every man to spend less than his income, be that what it will; nor does it often enter into the heads of this sagacious people, that the common course of expense should equal the revenue; and when this happens, they think, at least, they have lived that year to no purpose; and the report of it used to discredit a man among them, as much as any vicious or prodigal extravagance does in other countries. But this rigid frugality is not so universal among the Dutch as it was formerly; for a greater degree of luxury and extravagance has been introduced among them, as well as the other nations of Europe. Gaming is likewise practised by many of their fashionable ladies, and some of them discover more propensity to gallantry than was known there in former times. No country can vie with Holland in the number of those inhabitants whose lot, if not rich, is at least a comfortable sufficiency; and no where fewer failures or bankruptcies occur. Hence, in the midst of a world of taxes and contributions, they flourish and grow rich. From this systematic spirit of regularity and moderation, joined to the most obstinate perseverance, they succeeded in the stupendous works of draining their country of those immense deluges of water, that had overflowed so large a part of it during many ages, while, at the same time, they brought under their subjection and command the rivers and seas that surround them, by dykes of incredible thickness and strength, and made them the principal bulwarks on which they rely for the protection and safety of their territories against the danger of an enemy. This they have done by covering their frontiers and cities with innumerable sluices; by means of which, at the shortest notice, the most rapid inundations are let in, and they become, in a few hours, inaccessible. From that frugality and perseverance by which they have been so much characterised, they were enabled, though labouring under the greatest difficulties, not only to throw off the Spanish yoke, but to attack that powerful nation in the most tender parts, by seizing her rich galleons, and forming new establishments in Africa, and the East and West Indies, at the expense of Spain, and thereby becoming, from a despicable province, a most powerful and formidable enemy. Equally wonderful was the rise of their military and marine establishments; maintaining, during their celebrated contention with Lewis XIV. and Charles II. of England, not less than 150,000 men, and upwards of eighty ships of the line. But a spirit of frugality being now less universal among them, the rich traders and mechanics begin to approximate to the luxuries of the English and French; and their nobility and high magistrates, who have retired from trade, rival those of any other part of Europe in their table, buildings, furniture, and equipages.

The diversions of the Dutch differ not much from those of the English, who seem to have borrowed from them the neatness of their drinking 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. They are the best skaters upon the ice in the world. It is amazing to see the crowds in a hard frost upon the ice, and the great dexterity both of men and women in darting along, or rather flying, with inconceivable velocity.

The dress of the Dutch formerly was noted for the large breeches of the men, and the jerkins, plain mobs, 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. These dresses now prevail only among the lower ranks, and more particularly among the sea-faring people.

CITIES, CHIEF TOWNS, EDIFICES.] Amsterdam, which is built upon piles of wood, is thought to contain 212,000 people, and to be, next to London, the most commercial city in the world. It stands on the river Amstel. Its conveniences for commerce, and the grandeur of its public works, are almost beyond description. In this and all other cities of the United Provinces, the beauty of the canals and walks under trees planted on their borders is admirable; but above all, we are struck with the neatness and cleanliness that is every where observed within doors. This city, however, labours under two great disadvantages—bad air, and the want of fresh wholesome water, which obliges the inhabitants to preserve the rain water in reservoirs. Rotterdam is next to Amsterdam for commerce and wealth; its inhabitants are computed at 48,000. 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 forty thousand; it is no place of trade, but it has been for many years noted as an emporium of pleasure and politics. Middleburg in Zealand has a large town-hall, and was the seat of the provincial states, and of the council of Flanders. Leyden and Utrecht are fine cities, as well as famous for their universities. Delft, Dort, and Groeningen, are likewise considerable towns, containing each about 20,000 inhabitants. 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 Guelderland is subject to Prussia, and the capital city is Guelder.

COMMERCE, MANUFACTURES.] An account of the Dutch commerce, previous to the late revolution, would have comprehended that of almost all Europe. There is scarcely a manufacture that they did not carry on, or a state to which they did 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 were the grand magazine of Europe: and goods might be purchased here sometimes cheaper than in the countries where they grow. The East-India company has had the monopoly of the most valuable spices for more than a hundred years, and, till the late and present wars with England, was extremely opulent and powerful. 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 some of the Dutch subjects in Batavia scarcely acknowledge any dependence on the mother country. They have other settlements in India; but the island of Ceylon is now in possession of the English. Not to mention their herring and whale fisheries, which they have carried off from the native proprietors, they are distinguished for their pottery, tobacco-pipes, Delft-ware, finely refined salt; their oil-mills, and starch-manufactures; their hemp and fine paper manufactures; their fine linen and table-damasks; their saw-mills for timber, either for shipping or houses, in immense quantities; their great sugar-baking; their vast woollen, cotton, and silk manufactures; wax-bleaching; leather-dressing; the great quantity of coin and specie, assisted by their banks, especially by that of Amsterdam; their East-India trade; and their general industry and frugality.

Their commerce, however, must have greatly suffered during the late and present war, and especially since the French entered the country.

PUBLIC TRADING COMPANIES.] Of these, the principal is the East-India company, incorporated in 1602, by which formerly the Dutch acquired immense wealth, divided forty per cent. and sometimes sixty, 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. This company was incorporated in 1621. The bank of Amsterdam was thought to be inexhaustibly rich, and was 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 was so far from paying any interest, that the money in it was worth somewhat more than the current cash is in common payments. Mr. Anderson supposes, that the cash, bullion, and pawned jewels in this bank, which were kept in the vaults of the Stadthouse, amounted to thirty-six (though others say only to thirty) millions sterling.

CONSTITUTION, GOVERNMENT, LAWS.] Before the French entered Holland, in January 1795, the United Provinces formed a common confederacy; yet each province had an internal government or constitution independent of the others; this government was called the *states* of that province; and the delegates from them formed the *states-general*, in whom the sovereignty of the whole confederacy was vested; but though a province should send two or more delegates, yet such province had no more than one voice in every resolution; and before that resolution could 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* consisted likewise of deputies from the several provinces; but its constitution was different from that of the *states-general*; it was composed of twelve persons, whereof Guelderland sent two; Holland, three; Zealand, two; Utrecht, two; Friesland, one; Overyssel, one; and Groeningen, one. These deputies, however, did not vote provincially, but personally. Their business was to prepare estimates, and ways and means for raising the revenue, as well as other matters that were to be laid before the *states-general*. The *states* of the provinces were styled "Noble and Mighty Lords;" but those of Holland, "Noble and Most 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, was the chamber of accounts, which was likewise composed of provincial deputies, who audited all public accounts. The admiralty formed a separate board, and the executive part of it was committed to five colleges in the three maritime provinces of Holland, Zealand, and Friesland. In Holland the people had nothing to do either in choosing their representatives or their magistrates. In Amsterdam, which took the lead in all public deliberations, the magistracy was lodged in thirty-six senators, who were chosen for life, and every vacancy among them was filled up by the survivors. The same senate also elected the deputies to represent the cities in the province of Holland.

The above particulars are mentioned, 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 superseded the constitution already described. The stadtholder was president of the states of every province; and such was his power and influence, that he could change the deputies, magistrates, and officers, in every province and city. By this he held the moulding of the assembly of the states-general, though he had no voice in it: in short, though he had not the title, he had more real power and authority than some kings; for, besides the influence and revenue he derived from the stadtholdership, he had several principalities and large estates of his own. The late stadtholder, who was expelled by the French, was William V. prince of Orange and Nassau, son of the stadtholder William Charles, who married Anne, princess royal of Great Britain, and died in 1751.

Though Holland under this constitution was called a republic, yet its government was far from being of the popular kind: nor did the people enjoy that degree of liberty which might at first view be apprehended. It was indeed rather an oligarchy than a commonwealth; for the bulk of the people were not suffered to have the least share in any part of the government, not even in the choice of the deputies. It may also be observed that very few persons in this state dared speak their real sentiments freely; and they were generally educated in principles so extremely cautious, that they could not relinquish them when they entered more into public life.

After the departure of the stadtholder, on the conquest of Holland by the French, in 1795, a convention was assembled to administer the government, and frame a constitution for the new Batavian republic. The first plan they presented was rejected by the people in the primary assemblies; but another was afterwards drawn up, which was accepted. This constitution was again changed in several particulars in 1798; and the Batavian republic is now governed by a directory of twelve members, the president of which is changed every three months, and of which one member goes out annually; and a legislative body of 35 members, which assembles twice, and if necessary oftener, in the year, and appoints a committee of twelve of its members to examine and report on the laws and regulations proposed by the directory.

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.

REVENUE.] The late government of the United Provinces proportioned their taxes according to the abilities of each province or city. Those taxes consisted of an almost general excise, a land-tax, poll-tax, and hearth-money; so that the public revenue amounted annually to about three millions and a half sterling. The province of Holland paid nearly half of this revenue. The following is the rate at which each of the Seven United Provinces contributed towards the public expense:

Of every million of ducats, the province of	
Holland contributed	420,000
Zealand	130,000
Friesland	170,000
Utrecht	85,000
Groeningen	75,000
Guelderland	70,000
Overyssel	50,000

Of the 420,000 ducats paid by the province of Holland, the city of Amsterdam furnished upwards of 320,000. The taxes in these provinces are so heavy, and so many, that it is not without reason a certain author asserts, that the only thing which has escaped taxation there is the air they breathe. But for the encouragement of trade, the duties on goods and merchandise are exceedingly low. The expenses occasioned by the present war, and the contributions required by their new allies the French, cannot but have considerably increased their taxes. In the year 1797, after the defeat of the Dutch fleet by admiral Duncan, a tax of eight per cent. on all income was imposed for the re-establishment of their navy. A forced loan of three per cent. on all capital and property, and a tax of seven per cent. besides, on all income, were likewise decreed; and additional taxes of the same kind have since been imposed.

The public debt of the United Provinces is stated by Boetticher at one hundred and thirty millions sterling; but by an estimate lately published, which appears to be from authority, it amounts only to one thousand millions of florins, or about one hundred millions sterling.

ARMY, NAVY.] The number of land forces in the United Provinces, in time of peace, commonly amounted to about forty thousand. At present, though they are at war, they have not more than twenty thousand; but their new allies, the French, oblige them to keep in their pay a numerous body of French troops, generally to the amount of twenty-five or thirty thousand, who hold the country in subjection to France. The marine force of the United Provinces used to be very great, and they formerly fitted out very formidable fleets; but their navy has for many years been much neglected. Their late war with Great Britain obliged them to increase it; and they have great resources for that purpose. At present it must be in a very feeble and shattered state, in consequence of the surrender of admiral Lucas's squadron at the Cape of Good Hope, the victory gained by admiral Duncan, and especially the surrender of the fleet in the Texel to admiral Mitchel. Their naval force may, however, still amount to fifteen ships of the line, and as many frigates.

RELIGION.] Since the irruption of the French into Holland, the new government of the Batavian republic has declared that no religion is established or paid by the state; but prior to that event the established religion here was the presbyterian and Calvinism; none but presbyterians were admitted to any office or post in the government, excepting in the army; yet all religions and sects were tolerated, and had their respective meetings or assemblies for public worship, among which the papists and Jews were very numerous. And, indeed, this country may be considered as a striking instance of the benefits arising to a nation from universal toleration. As every man is allowed to worship God according to the dictates of his own conscience, persons of the most opposite opinions live together in the most perfect harmony and peace. No man in this republic has any reason to complain of being oppressed on account of his religious principles; nor any hopes, by advancing his religion, to form a party, or to break in upon the government; and therefore, in Holland, men live together as citizens of the world; their differences in opinion make none in affection, and they are associated together by the common ties of humanity and bonds of peace, under the protection of the laws of the state, with equal encouragement to arts and industry, and equal freedom of speculation and inquiry.

LITERATURE.] Erasmus and Grotius, who were both natives of this country, stand almost at the head of modern learning. Haarlem disputes the invention of printing with the Germans, and the magistrates keep two copies of a book entitled *Speculum Salvationis*, printed by

Koster in 1440; and the most elegant editions of the classics came from the Dutch presses of Amsterdam, Rotterdam, Utrecht, Leyden, and other towns. The Dutch have excelled in controversial divinity, which insinuated itself so much into the state, that, before principles of universal toleration prevailed, it had almost proved fatal to the government; witness the violent disputes about Arminianism, free-will, predestination, and the like. Besides Boerhaave, they have produced excellent writers in all branches of medicine. Grævius, Gronovius father and son, and Burman, are ranked among the principal of their numerous commentators upon the classics. In the other departments of literature, the Dutch publications are mechanical, and arise chiefly from their employments, in universities, church, or state.

UNIVERSITIES.] These are Leyden, Utrecht, Groeningen, Harderwicke, and Franeker.

The university of Leyden, which was founded in 1575, is the largest and most ancient in all the United Netherlands. Its library, besides a number of printed books, contains above two thousand oriental manuscripts. Here is also a physic-garden, and an anatomical theatre.

The university of Utrecht was changed from a school into an university in 1636; but it has not all the privileges of the other universities, being entirely subject to the magistrates of the city. The physic-garden here is very curious; and for the recreation of the students, on the east side of the city, just without the gate, is a beautiful mall, consisting of seven straight walks, two thousand paces in length, regularly planted with limes; but that in the middle is properly the mall.

There are abundance of youth, of the principal nobility and gentry from most countries in Europe, at these seminaries of literature; and as every one may live as he pleases, without being obliged to be profuse in his expenses, or so much as quitting his night-gown for either weeks or months together, foreigners of all ranks and conditions are to be seen here. The force of example is strikingly exhibited at these universities; for frugality in expense, order, a composed behaviour, attention to study, and assiduity in all things, being the characteristics of the natives, strangers who continue amongst them soon adopt their manners and form of living. And though the students live as they please, and study as much or as little as they think fit, yet they are in general remarkable for their sobriety and good manners, and the assiduity and success with which they apply themselves to their studies. No oaths are imposed, nor any religious tests; so that Roman-catholic parents, and even Jews, send their children here with as little scruple as protestants.

LANGUAGE.] The 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. The Lord's Prayer runs thus: *Onse Vader, die in de hemel is, uwen naam worde geheylight: uwekoningryk kome: uwe wille geschiede gelyck in den hemel zoo ook op den arden, ons dagelicks broot geef ons heeden, ende vergeeft onse schulden gelyk ook wy vergeeven onse schuldenaaren: ende enlout ons niet in versoccking, mer vertast ons van der boosen. Amen.*

ANTIQUITIES.] Holland contains few antiquities. Near Catwyk is a ruinous Roman tower; and in the middle of Leyden an artificial mount, on which is a round tower built, according to traditional report, by Hengist the leader of the Saxons who invaded England.

HISTORY.] After the Seven United Provinces had obtained their independence, as related in the preceding summary of the history of the Netherlands, they soon became distinguished as a commercial and mari-

time state; and by their sea-wars with England, under the Commonwealth, Cromwell, and Charles II., justly acquired the reputation of a formidable naval power. 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.

Their conduct towards England in the wars of 1742 and 1756 has been mentioned in the history of that country, as also the occurrences which led to a rupture between them and the English in the year 1780. As it was urged that they refused to fulfil the treaties which subsisted between them and Great Britain, so all the treaties which bound Great Britain to them were declared null and void, as if none had ever existed. By this war, their trade suffered considerably; but Negapatnam, in the East Indies, was the only place not restored to them by the peace of 1783.

Probably, to their separation from Great Britain may be attributed the differences between the States-General and the emperor Joseph II., who, from the exhausted state of several of the European powers, seemed to have a favourable opportunity of accomplishing his designs. In the year 1781, he had been allowed to demolish the Dutch barrier in his dominions, for which they had contended so desperately in the time of queen Anne; and he now seemed willing to encroach upon their territories. A conference concerning the boundaries of their respective nations was proposed to the states; but before this could take place, he began to commit some acts of hostility, and extended his dominions a little by way of preliminary. Two small forts, St. Donat, and St. Paul, were seized upon, as well as some part of the marshes in the neighbourhood of Sluys. As a prelude to the negotiations, he also demanded that the Dutch guard-ship should be removed from before Lillo, in acknowledgement that one of the prerogatives of his Imperial majesty was the free navigation of the Scheldt. This being complied with, the negotiations were opened at Brussels, on the 24th of April, 1784, when several other demands of small portions of territory and little sums of money were made; the most material requisition being the town of Maestricht and its territory. For some time the conferences were carried on in that dry and tedious manner which generally marks the proceedings of the Dutch; but the emperor urged on his demands with great vigour, and matters seemed fast tending towards an open rupture. On the 23d of August, he delivered in his *ultimatum* to the commissioners at Brussels, in which he offered to give up his demand on Maestricht, in consideration of having the free and unlimited navigation of the Scheldt, in both its branches, to the sea; and, in token of his confidence of the good intentions of the states, he determined to consider the river as open from the date of that paper. Any insult on his flags, in the execution of these purposes, he would conclude to be a direct act of hostility, and a formal declaration of war on the part of the republic. To prevent all injuries contrary to the incontestable rights of his Imperial majesty, and to leave no doubts of his unalterable resolution to adhere to the propositions contained in the ultimatum, his majesty could not forbear determining to

send to sea, from Antwerp, a ship under his flag, after having declared long enough before in what manner he should consider all violent opposition that might be made to the free passage of the said ship.

The ship was stopped in its passage, as was another, ordered to sail from Ostend up the Scheldt to Antwerp. But the Dutch offered to dismiss the vessels, if the captains would engage to return to their respective places, and not continue their voyage on the river; which they refused to do. This the emperor called insulting his flag, and declared to all foreign courts, he could not look on this fact but as "an effective declaration of war on the part of the republic." In answer to their conduct in stopping the Imperial ships, which the emperor styled an insult to his flag, and by which he declared them to have begun hostilities, the Dutch ministers at Brussels, in a paper delivered to that court, protested "that as their sole aim was to support their uncontrovertible right, they could not, with any appearance of justice, be considered as guilty of a hostile aggression."

Great preparations were made for immediate hostilities against the Dutch; and several hundred of the Imperialists, with some field-pieces, advancing towards the counterscarp of Lillo, the commanding officer of that place ordered the sluices to be opened, November 7, 1784, which effected an inundation that laid under water many miles of the flat country around the forts on the Scheldt, to preserve them from an attack. Both parties exerted themselves in case they should be called forth to open a campaign in the next spring; but France and Prussia interposed as negotiators and mediators, and succeeded in bringing about a reconciliation. However, from the conduct of the emperor in the partition of Poland, and in demolishing the fortifications of the barrier places in the Netherlands, and demanding a free navigation of the Scheldt and to the East Indies—advancing from one pretension to another—it is apparent that the most solemn treaties will be no longer observed, by some courts and statesmen, than till they have an opportunity, with ability, to break them.

During the progress of their contentions with the emperor, this country was greatly distressed by intestine animosities, which it may be proper in this place briefly to state. The continued series of losses which they had sustained in the late war with Great Britain was peculiarly disgraceful to the republic. All their settlements in the West Indies fell into the hands of the British, without resistance; their ships were captured, and trade ruined; while the disasters of the war excited the animosity of the two factions against each other to the highest degree. The patriots, or aristocratic party, attributed these defeats to the stadtholder, who had openly expressed his predilection for the English at the beginning of the American quarrel. To this conduct the patriots now very artfully reverted. They accused him of having advised the aggression of the English, and of contributing to their success by treachery. The evident inequality of the struggle, the notorious deficiency of all warlike articles in the dock-yards and arsenals of the republic, the frequent and public reclamations made by the prince and by the council of state on the subject of that deficiency, were forgotten; and the wilful misconduct of the stadtholder was boldly alleged by the patriots as the sole cause of that miserable succession of defeat and disgrace which immediately followed the commencement of hostilities. Whilst these were the recriminations of the patriots, the monarchical or Orange party accused their antagonists of having involved the country in a dangerous war, at a time when it was entirely unprepared for it.

This produced various accusations and vindications between the two parties, until at last, in the month of May 1786, the stadtholder gave orders to seize on Vreeswick, a post of importance to the city of Utrecht, on account of its situation on the canal between that city and the territories of South Holland; containing also the sluices, by which both these provinces might be overflowed. This brought on a skirmish between the troops of the stadtholder and the burghers of Utrecht, in which the latter proved victorious. Some other unimportant hostilities took place; but while the military operations were carried on in such a languid manner, a violent tumult happened at Amsterdam, in which several persons were killed. This was followed by a revolt of most of the regular troops of Holland, who went over to the stadtholder; but notwithstanding this apparent advantage, and some others which afterwards took place, the disputes still continued with extreme violence, insomuch that the princess of Orange herself was seized, and detained prisoner a night by the patriots.

These turbulent commotions were, however, at last settled by the king of Prussia, who for this purpose marched an army into the territories of the United Provinces, and took possession of the city of Rotterdam, and some other places, without resistance. This so much overawed both parties, that they quickly came to an accommodation, and a treaty was concluded between that monarch and the states of Holland. By this, the two contending parties were formally reconciled, and the courts of London and Berlin guaranteed the stadtholdership, as well as the hereditary government of each province, in the House of Orange, with all the rights and prerogatives settled in the years 1747 and 1748; by which all attempts to disturb the domestic tranquillity of the republic, by means of any foreign interference, appeared to be effectually guarded against by the close union that subsisted between those two important powers.

The late revolution in Holland, in consequence of the irruption of the French, and the expulsion of the stadtholder from that country, has already been briefly narrated in our history of France, to which we must refer the reader.

GERMANY.

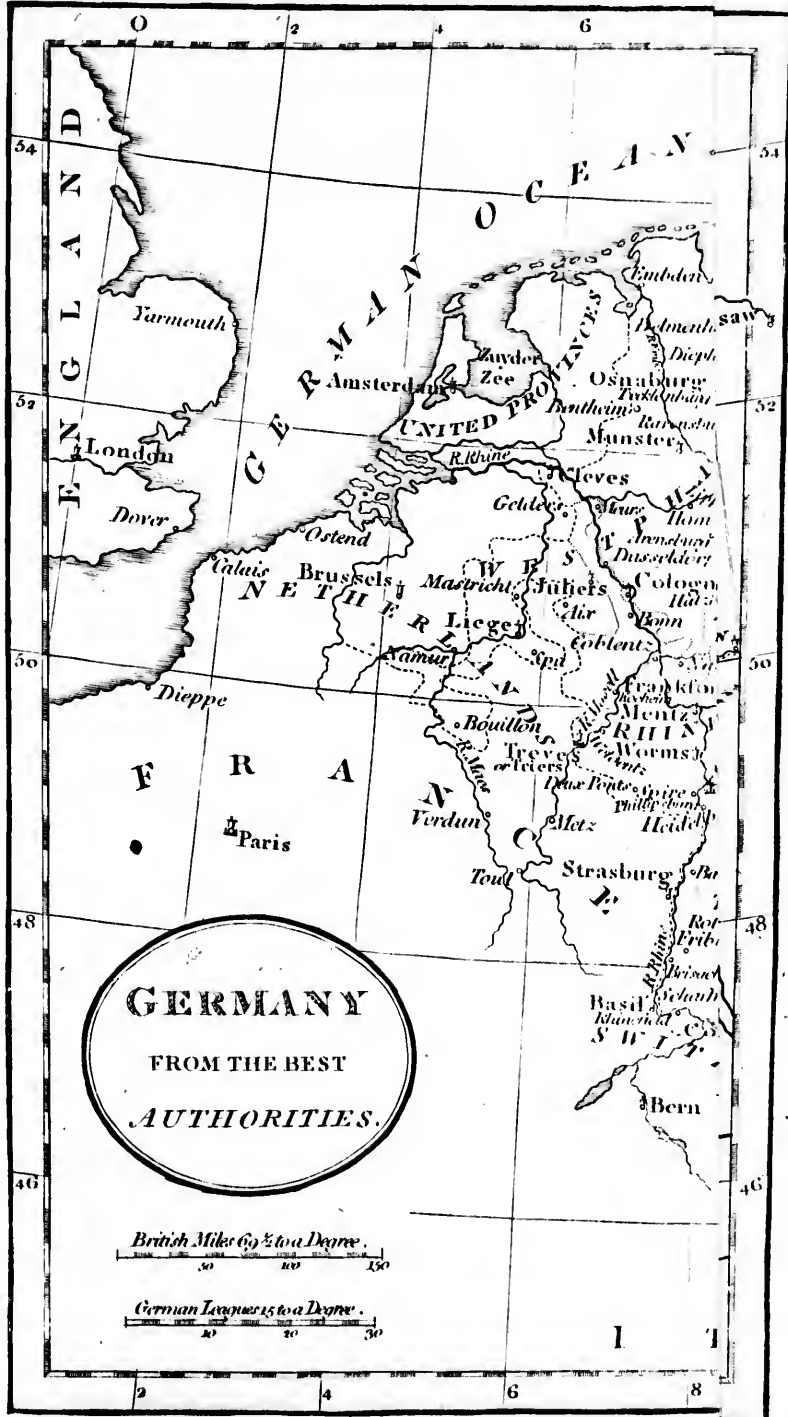
EXTENT AND SITUATION.

Miles.

Length 620 } between { $45^{\circ} 30'$ and $55^{\circ} 30'$ North lat.
Breadth 530 } { $6^{\circ} 0'$ and $19^{\circ} 0'$ East long.

Containing 180,000 square miles, with 128 inhabitants to each.

NAME.] GREAT part of modern Germany lay in ancient Gaul, as has been already mentioned: and the word Germany itself may be considered as 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 Teutonic, signifies a warlike man. The Germans were called by various other names, such as *Allemanni*, *Teutones*: which last appears to have been their most ancient designation; and the Germans themselves call their country *Teutschland*.



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BOUNDARIES.] Germany is bounded on the north by the German Ocean, Denmark, and the Baltic; on the east by Prussia, Galicia, and Hungary; on the south by the Adriatic Sea, Italy, and Switzerland; and on the west by France, from which it is separated by the Rhine, Holland, and the North Sea.

DIVISIONS.] 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 afterwards detached from the empire, we are to confine ourselves to nine of those divisions, as they now subsist.

Of these, 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	}	Upper Rhine.
		Lower Rhine.
		Franconia.
The southern circles	}	Swabia.
		Bavaria.
		Austria.

1. CIRCLE OF UPPER SAXONY,

Containing 31,200 square miles.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	S. Miles.	Populat.	Chief Towns.	
Pomerania, sub. to Prussia and Sweden.	Prus. Pomera.	7,200	540,000	} Stettin, lat. 53. 32. N. long. 14. 55. E.	
	Swed. Pomera.	1,200	110,000		
Electorate of Brandenburg, sub. to its elector, the k. of Prussia.	Old Mark	} 10,670	} 1,200,000	Stralsund	
	Middle Mark			Stendal	
	Priegnitz			BERLIN, lat. 52. 31. N. lon. 13. 21. E.	
Electorate of Saxony, sub. to its elector*.	Ucker Mark	} 10,170	} 600,000	Perleberg	
	New Mark			Prentzlow	
	} Meissen			Custria	
				Dresden, lat. 51. 0. N. lon. 13. 50. E	
	} EllecCircle			Wittenberg	
				Langensalza	
	} Circles of			Thuringia	Leipsc
				Leipsc	Freyberg
				Erzgebirge	Plauen
				Voigtland	Neustadt
Neustadt		Merseburg			
Merseburg		Naumburg			
} Bishopsrics	Naumburg	Naumburg			
	Princip. of Quersfurt	Quersfurt			

* The whole of the territories of the elector of Saxony comprehend 11,776 square miles, with 2,100,000 inhabitants.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	S. Miles.	Populat.	Chief Towns.
Principality of the house of Saxony, sub. to their respective princes.	Saxe Weimar and Eisenach	480	106,000	Weimar Eisenach
	SaxeGotha with part of Altenburg			830
	Saxe Coburg Saalfeld	352	70,000	
	Saxe Coburg Meinungen			Sonnenburg
Saxe Coburg Hildburghausen	Hildburghausen			
Prin. of Anhalt, subject to its princes.	Anhalt Dessau	800	115,000	Dessau
Principality of Schwarzburg.	Anh. Bernburg			Bernburg
	Anhalt Cothen			Cothen
County of Stolberg.	Schwarzburg	721	100,000	Arnstadt
	Sonderhausen			Rudolstadt
County of Stolberg.	Sch. Rudolstadt	112	20,000	Stolberg in the Harze.
	Stolberg Stolberg			Wernigerode
County of Hohenstein, sub. partly to Prussia and partly to the counts of Stolberg.	Stolb. Wernigerode	80	14,000	
Coun. of Reuss.	Reuss Greifz	384	80,000	Greifz
	Reuss Gera			Gera
	Reuss Schleiz			Schleiz
	Re. Lobenstein			Lobenstein
C. of Mansfeld, sub. part to elec. of Saxony, part to Prussia.		298	43,000	Eisleben Gerbstadt
Terr. of late abbey of Quedlinburg, given as indemnity to Prussia.		32	12,000	Quedlinburg
Terr. of late abbey of Walkenried, incorporated with p. of Blankenburg, sub. to d. of Brunswick Wolfenbuttle.		32	5,000	Walkenried
Late free Imperial town of Erfurt, given as indemn. to Prussia.			49,000	
The Eichsfeld territory, sub. to Prussia as indemn., late belonging to elec. of Mentz.		640	70,000	Heiligenstadt

2. CIRCLE OF LOWER SAXONY,

Containing 17,000 square miles.

Terr. sub. to k. of Prussia.	D. of Magdeburg	1552	290,000	Magdeburg
	P. of Halberstadt and lordship of Derenburg	480	100,000	Halberstadt
	P. late Bk. of Hildesheim	640	90,000	Hildesheim
	Late free Imp. cities of			
	Muhlhausen		9,000	
	Nordhausen		10,000	
	Goslar		6,000	

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	S. Miles.	Populat.	Chief Towns.
Elect. of Hanover, sub. to its elect. the king of G. Britain.	P. of Calenberg, or Hanover.	1,248	200,000	{ Hanover Goettingen
	P. of Lüneburg, or Celle.		230,000	{ Lüneburg Celle or Zelle
T. of duke of Brunswick-Wolfenbüttele.	Duchy of Saxe-Lauenburg, with territory of Hadan.	512	70,000	Lauenburg
	Duchy of Bremen	1,600	200,000	Stade
Duchy of Mecklenburg.	P. of Wolfenbüttele.	960	190,000	{ Brunswick- Wolfenbüttele
	P. of Blankenb.	104	12,000	Blankenburg
Lordship of Wismar, sub. to king of Sweden.	Mecklenburg-Schwerin	4,800	400,000	{ Schwerin Gustrow
	Meck. Strelitz			{ New Strelitz
D. of Holstein, with lordship of Pinneberg and county of Ranzau, sub. to king of Denmark.		2,304	350,000	{ Kiel Altona
T. of d. of Holstein-Oldenburg, as indemn.	Part of Bk of Lubec	100	20,000	Eutin
The free Imperial Hans towns, and their territories.	Hamburg	96	150,000	
	Lubec	80	50,000	
	Bremen	64	50,000	

3. CIRCLE OF WESTPHALIA,

Containing (after the deduction of 4,000 square miles annexed to France)
16,000 square miles.

T. sub. to E. of Hanover	Prin. of East Friesland, and Ter. of Harlinger	864	100,000	{ Emden Leer	
				Principality of Minden	496
T. sub. to the king of Prussia.	Remainder of D. of Cleves	400	55,000		Wesel
	County of Mark	480	124,000	Hamm	
Counties of		{ Lingen Tecklenburg	208	30,000	{ Lingen Tecklenburg
	Ravensberg	272			35,000
T. sub. to E. of Hanover	P. late Bk. of Paderborn	1,328	120,000	Paderborn	
	P. late Bk. of Munster	1,360	200,000	Munster	
T. sub. to E. of Hanover	Late free Imperial abbys	{ Herforden	32	2,000	Herforden
		{ Essen	40	5,500	Essen
T. sub. to E. of Hanover	Principality of Verden	{ Werden	40	5,000	Werden
		{ Elten	32	4,000	Elten
T. sub. to E. of Hanover	P. late Bk. of Osnabruck	192	30,000	Verden	
		896	125,000	Osnabruck	
T. sub. to E. of Hanover	Counties of	{ Hoya	650	50,000	Hoya
		{ Diepholz	128	10,000	Diepholz
Sub. to E. of Bavaria.	D. of Berg	{ Bentheim *	342	25,000	Bentheim
		1,040	230,000	Dusseldorf	

* This country was held in pledge by the elector of Hanover since 1753; but since the seizure of the electorate by the French, the count of Bentheim Steinfurt has entered into possession.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	S. Miles.	Populat.	Chief Towns.
Sub. to its own duke.	{Duchy of Oldenburg with indemnity .. }	1,440	135,000	{Oldenburg Delmenhorst
Territ. of house of Orange-Nassau, or Nass. Dietz*	{P. of Dillenburg	800	180,000	{Dillenburg
	{P. of Nassau Siegen			{Siegen
	{P. of Dietz			{Dietz
	{P. of Hadamar			{Hadamar
C. of Lippe, sub. to its counts.	{C. of Spielberg	560	70,000	{Coppenbrugge
	{Town of Dortmund			{Dortmund
C. of Schauenberg, sub. partly to Lippe Schauenberg, partly to Hesse Cassel	{Abbey of Corvey	384	50,000	{Corvey
	{Lippe Detmold			{Detmold
C. of Wied.	{L. Schauenberg	164	26,000	{Blomberg
	{Wiedrunkel			{Runkel
Counties	{Wied Neuwied	32	4,500	{Neuwied
	{Sayn			{Altenkirchen
Rietberg, sub. to Hesse Cassel	{Pyrmont	64	10,000	{Pyrmont
	{Duke of Arenberg			{Rietberg
Territ. of	{Duke of Croy	528	36,000	{Meppen
	{Duke of Lorsch and Corswaren	88	9,000	
	{Prince of Salm Kyburg	48	4,500	
	{Prince of Salm Salm	304	27,000	
Counties of	{Gehmen			
	{Hoizapfel			

4. CIRCLE OF THE UPPER RHINE,

Containing (after the deduction of 2,400 square miles annexed to France) 5,600 square miles.

Electorate of Hesse, sub. to its elec. late landgr.	{Lower Hesse with part of Upper Hesse on the Lahn	4,224	300,000	{Cassel
				{Hanau
Landgrav. of Hesse Darmstadt †	{Up. C. of Catzenellenbogen	1,120	250,000	{Darmstadt
	{Part of Upper Hesse P. of late B. of Worms late free I. C. Friedberg			{Giessen Friedberg
Territory of Sub. to Orange Nassau as indemn.	{Nassau Usingen	768	90,000	{Usingen
	{Nassau Weilburg			{Idstein
County of Waldeck	{Princi. of Fulda	576	75,000	{Fulda Corbach

* The whole territory of the house of Orange Nassau, including the late indemnities, contains about 1,600 square miles, with 300,000 inhabitants.

† The whole territory of Hesse Darmstadt contains 2,240 square miles, with 400,000 inhabitants.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Sq. M.	Pop.	Chief Towns.
County of Solms	{ Solms Braunfels Solms Hohensolms Solms Laubach Solms Rodelheim }	336	42,000	{ Braunfels.
				{ Hohensolms.
				{ Laubach.
				{ Rodelheim.
C. of Upper Isenburg	{ Isenburg Wirstein Isenburg Budingen Isenburg Wachtersdach Isenburg Meerholz }	240	35,000	{ Birstein.
				{ Budingen.
				{ Wachtersdach.
				{ Meerholz.
County of Leiningen	Westerburg			Westerburg.
County of Wittgenstein			Wittgenstein.
County of Wetzlar, subject to elect. arch-chancellor		8,000	Wetzlar.
The imperial city of Frankfort on the Maine, and its territory	50,000		

5. CIRCLE OF THE LOWER RHINE.

Containing, after the deduction of 2368 square miles ceded to France, 4480 square miles.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Sq. M.	Pop.	Chief Towns.
Sub. to the elect. arch-chancellor*	{ Principality of Aschaffenburg..... }	272	45,000	Aschaffenburg.
T. of elect. of Baden, as indem.....	{ Part of palatinate of the Rhine, and late bishopric of Spire..... }	480	130,000	{ Heidelberg.
				{ Mannheim.
				{ Bruchsal.
T. of elect. of Hesse, as indem.....	{ Duchy of Westphalia Part of elect. of Mentz Part of palatinate..... }	1120	100,000	{ Philipsburg.
				{ Birlon.
T. of Nassau-Usingen as indem....	{ Part of late electorates of Mentz and Cologne..... }	540	100,000	{ Gernsheim.
				{ Linz.
T. of Nassau-Weilburg, as indem.....	{ Part of late electorate of Treves..... }	240	36,000	Ehrenbreitstein
T. of C. of Leiningen, as indem....	{ Part of the late electorate of Mentz..... }	336	40,000	{ Amorbach.
				{ Bischoffsheim.
T. of P. of Wiedrunkelas indem	{ Part of the late electorates of Cologne and Treves..... }	36	6,200	{ Mosbach.
				{ Altenwied.
T. of P. of Salm-Reiferscheid Bedburg, as indem.....	{ Part of the electorate of Mentz..... }			Krautheim

* The elector arch-chancellor likewise possesses the principality of Ratisbon, the county of Wetzlar, and the abbey of Compostella at Frankfort. His whole territory contains 480 square miles, and 100,000 inhabitants.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Sq. M.	Pop.	Chief Towns.
T. of duke of Arenberg, as indem.....	County of Recklingshausen, part of the late electorate of Cologne	192	18,000	Recklingshausen.
T. of P. of Nassau Orange, as indem.....	Lordship of Bielstein			
Divided between Nassau Weilburg and Wiedrunkel	County of Lower Isenburg			Isenburg

6. CIRCLE OF FRANCONIA,

Containing 7880 square miles.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Sq. M.	Pop.	Chief Towns.	
Territ. of the king of Prussia....	Prin. of Bayreuth or Culmbach.....	1200	220,000	Bayreuth.	
	Prin. of Anspach or Onolzbach.....	1120	275,000	Anspach.	
Territory of elector of Bavaria ...	P. late bk. of Bamberg	1056	200,000	Bamberg.	
	P. late bk. of Wurzburg.....	1392	240,000	Wurzburg.	
	Late free imp. towns and ter.	Rothenburg...	96	24,000	Rothenburg.
		Schweinfurt...	16	6,000	Schweinfurt.
		Weissenburg..	16	6,000	Weissenburg.
Windsheim ...			4,500	Windsheim.	
Gochsheim.			Gochsheim		
Sennfeld			Sennfeld		
Sub. partly to E. of Salzburg, and part to E. of Bavaria.....	Prin. late bishoprick of Eichstadt, or Aichstadt.....	352	70,000	Aichstadt.	
T. of Teutonic order	Dist. of Mergentheim	80	12,000	Mergentheim.	
Sub. to E. and other branches of the H. of Saxony	County of Henneberg	640	100,000	Schleusingen. Meiningen.	
Prin. of Hohenlohe.	Hohenlohe Oeringen Neuenstein.....	416	100,000	Neuenstein. Langenburg. Ingelfingen. Kirchberg. Bartenstein. Schillingsfurst.	
	Hohenlohe Langenburg				
	Hohenlohe Ingelfingen				
	Hohenlohe Kirchberg				
	Hohenlohe Bartenstein				
	Hohenlohe Schillingsfurst				

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Divisions.	Sq. M.	Pop.	Chief Towns.
County of Wertheim.....			Wertheim.
County of Schwarzenberg.....	224	25,000	Schwarzenberg.
County of Castell.....			Castell.
County of Erbach.....	240	25,000	Erbach.
County of Limburg.....	112	16,000	Gäildorf.
County of Wiesentheid.....			Wiesentheid
County of Rieneck.....			Rieneck
Free imperial city of Nuremberg and territory.....	386	50,000	Nuremberg.

7. CIRCLE OF SWABIA,

Containing 11,200 square miles.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Sq. M.	Pop.	Chief Towns.
Electo. of Wurtem- berg	{ D. of Wurtemberg New territ. given as indemn..... }	2740 608	650,000 140,000	Stuttgart. Ellwangen. Heilbron. Rottweil.
Electo. of Baden*...	{ Margravt. of Baden Prin. on the lake of Constance, late bk. of Constance }	960 720	180,000 100,000	Baden. Carlsruhe. Morsburg.
T. of E. of Bavaria, with ind.	{ Circles of { Dillingen Kempten }	2990	127,000	{ Dillingen. Kempten.
	{ Imperial cities { Ulm..... Nordlingen ... Dinkelsbuhl.. Bopfingen..... }		15,000 7,000 7,000 1,600	
P. of Ho- henzollern	{ Hohenzollern He- chingen..... Hohenzollern Sig- maringen..... }	208	32,000	{ Hechingen. Sigmaringen.
P. of Furs- tenberg...	640	80,000	Doneschingen.
C. of Oet- tingen.....	{ Oettingen Spielberg Oettingen Wallers- tein..... }	384	60,000	{ Oettingen. Wallerstein.
Territ. of prin. of Tour and Taxis	144	20,000	Dischingen.
Principality of Klettgau.....	64	9,000	Thiengen.
T. of Counts. { C. Kirchberg Fugger { C. Weissenhorn }	160	20,000	Kirchberg.
C. of late abbey of Weingarten, given as indemnities to P. of Orange Nassau.....	96	11,000	Weingarten.
Free imperial city of Augsburg...		36,000	

This circle likewise contains several other small baronies and secularized abbeys with their territories, given as indemnities to different princes.

* The whole territory of the electorate of Baden, including the country in the circle of the Lower Rhine, is estimated to contain 2980 square miles, with 420,000 inhabitants.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Sq. M.	Pop.	Chief Towns.
Electorate of Bavaria*.	Duchy of Bavaria.....	8,320	1,000,000	Munich, N. 1. 48. 5. E. 1. 11. 32. Ingolstadt.
	Duchy of Upper Palatinate .	2,080	200,000	Amberg.
	Duchy of Neuburg and lord- ship of Ehrenfels.....	832	100,000	Neuburg.
	Duchy of Sulzbach.....	448	50,000	Sulzbach.
	County of Haag.....	128	18,000	Haag.
	Prin. late bishop. of Freysingen	288	30,000	Freysingen.
	Part of late bishop. of Passau	64	15,000	Passau.
	Late imperial abbey of Kai- sersheim.....	16	6,000	Kaisersheim.
	Prin. of Ratisbon, indemnity to elector arch-chancellor.....	160	40,000	Ratisbon, l. 48. 58. N 1. 12. 5. E.
	County of Ortenburg, subject to its own count	32	3,000	Ortenburg.
County of Sternstein, territory of P. Lobkowitz			Neustadt.	

9. CIRCLE OF AUSTRIA,

Containing 44,528 square miles.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Sq. M.	Pop.	Chief Towns.	
Territory of arch-duce of Austria.	Lower } Archduchy of Aus- Austria } tria Proper.....	10,000	2,000,000	Vienna, N. 1. 48-76. E. 1. 16-22.	
	Inner Austria.	Duchy of Stiria	4,592	900,000	Gratz.
		Duchy of Carinthia.....	3,344	300,000	Clagenfurt.
		Duchy of Carniola.....	3,424	450,000	Laybach.
		Friul, or Goritia	1,600	115,000	Gortz. Gradisca.
		Territory of Triest.....	112	40,000	Triest.
		The county of Tyrol, the Vorarlberg and late bks. of Trent and Brixen.....	6,960	650,000	Inspruck. Botzen. Bregenz. Roveredo. Trent. Brixen.
		Margraviate of Burgau Landgraviate Nellenburg County of Hohenberg	1,600	200,000	Gunsburg. Stockach. Rotenburg.
		Territ. of E. } Princ. late bk. of of Salzburg } Salzburg.....	3,520	400,000	Salzburg.
		late grand } Prin. late abbey of duke of } Berchtolsgaden	160	20,000	Berchtolsgaden
	Tuscany... } P. late bk. of Passau	192	30,000	Hafnerzell.	
	T. given as indem. } The Breisgau } to the late duke } The Ortenau }	832	115,000	Freyburg. Old Breisach.	
	of Modena.....				

* The whole territory of the elector of Bavaria, including his possessions in Swabia, Franconia, and Westphalia, contains 18,912 square miles, with 2,617,000 inhabitants.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY.] The southern part of Germany is mountainous and hilly; the northern presents wide sandy plains, with scarcely the appearance of a hill. On the eastern side are the most extended plains, and the greatest chains of mountains.

MOUNTAINS.] The chief mountains of Germany are the Alps, which divide it from Italy, and those which separate Saxony, Bavaria, and Moravia, from Bohemia, called the Erzgebirge and the Sudettes. In the north are the mountains of the Harz, which extend about fifty miles through part of Lower and Upper Saxony. Many other large tracts of mountains are found in different parts of the empire.

FORESTS.] The great passion which the Germans have for hunting the wild boar is the reason why, perhaps, there are more woods and chases yet standing in Germany than in many other countries. The Hercynian 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 chase 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, coney, foxes, and boars. They abound so much also with wild fowl, that in many places the peasants have them, as well as venison, for their ordinary food.

LAKES.] The chief lakes of Germany, not to mention many inferior ones, are those of Constance (called the Boden-see) and Bregentz. Besides these, are the Chiem-see, or the lake of Bavaria; and the Zir-nitzer-see, in the duchy of Carniola, whose waters often run off, and return again, in an extraordinary manner.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] No country can boast a greater variety of noble large rivers than Germany. At their head stands the Danube or Donau, so called from the swiftness of the current, and the course of which, without reckoning its windings, is computed to be 1620 miles. The other principal rivers are the Rhine, the length of the course of which is above 600 miles, the Elbe, Oder, Weser, and Necker.

MINERAL WATERS AND BATHS.] Germany is said to contain more of these than all Europe besides. The Spa waters, and those of Seltzer and Pymont, are well known. 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. The baths and medicinal waters of Embs, Wisbaden, Schwalbach, and Wildungen, are reported to be extremely efficacious 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. It is, however, not improbable, that great part of the salutary virtues ascribed to these waters is owing to the exercises and amusements of the patients, and numbers of the company which crowd to them from all parts of the world; many of whom do not repair thither for health, but for amusement and conversation.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Germany abounds in both. 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 in Austria, Bavaria, Silesia,

and the Lower Saxony; as are carbuncles, amethysts, jasper, sapphire, agate, alabaster, several sorts of pearl, turquois stones, and the finest of rubies, which adorn the cabinets of the greatest princes and virtuosi. In Bavaria and Tyrol, are quarries of curious marble, slate, chalk, ochre, red lead, alum, and bitumen; besides other fossils. Several of the German eireles furnish coal-pits: and the *terra sigillata* of Mentz, with white, yellow, and red veins, has been pretended to be an antidote against poison.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AGRICULTURE.] The climate of Germany, as in all extensive countries, differs greatly, not only on account of the situation to the north, or south, or east, or west, but according to the improvement of the soil, which has a great effect on the climate. The most mild and settled weather is found in the middle of the country, at an equal distance from the sea and the alps. In the north it is sharp; towards the south it is more temperate. The seasons vary as much as the soil: in the south and western parts they are more regular than in those that lie near the sea, or that abound in lakes and rivers.

The soil of Germany is not improved to the fall by culture; and therefore in many places it is bare and steril; though in others it is extremely fertile. A greater attention, however, is now given to agriculture in this country, and many improvements have been made of late years.

VEGETABLES.] Among the vegetable productions of Germany are all kinds of grain, flax, hemp, hops, saffron, tobacco, and excellent orchard-fruits. The vine is found to flourish throughout more than the half of Germany, but the most esteemed wines are produced in the circles of Swabia and the Rhine. The wines of these countries are commonly called Rhenish and Moselle, and differ from those of other countries in a peculiar lightness, and detersive qualities, more sovereign in some diseases than any medicine.

ANIMALS.] Germany yields abundance of excellent heavy horses; but their horses, oxen, and sheep, are not comparable to those of England, probably owing to want of skill in feeding and rearing them.

The German wild boars differ in colour from our common hogs, and are four times as large. Their flesh, and the hams made of it, are 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 manage, especially birds, hares, rabbits, goats, and fawns; which it surprises artfully and devours greedily. On these 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.

Some parts of Germany are remarkable for fine larks and great variety of singing birds, which are sent to all parts of Europe.

CURIOSITIES NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] In describing the mineral and other springs, a great part of this article, which is very copious, has been already anticipated.

Next to the lakes and waters, the caves and rocks are the chief natural curiosities of Germany. There is said to be a cave, near Blackenburg, in Hartz-forest, of which no person has yet found the end, though many have advanced into it for twenty miles. But the most remarkable curiosity of that kind is near Hamelen, about thirty miles from Hanover, where, at the mouth of a cave, stands a monument which commemorates the loss of 130 children, who were there swallowed up in 1284.

This fact, however, though it is very strongly attested, 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.

With respect to artificial curiosities, the Germans have always accounted as one of the principal, the tun at Heidelberg, which holds 800 hogsheads, and, though now empty, was formerly full of the best Rhenish wine, from which strangers were seldom suffered to retire sober. Every court of Germany produces a cabinet of curiosities, artificial and natural, ancient and modern.

Vienna itself is a curiosity; for here may be seen the greatest variety of inhabitants 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 80,000 volumes, among which are many valuable manuscripts in Hebrew, Syriac, Arabic, Turkish, Armenian, Coptic, and Chinese; but the antiquity of some of them is questionable, particularly a New Testament in Greek, said to have been written 1500 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 of art and nature.

POPULATION.] The population of the German empire, before the alienation of the territory on the left side of the Rhine, was generally estimated at between 26 and 27 millions. By that cession Germany loses about three millions and a half of inhabitants, transferred to France, and consequently now only contains about 23 millions. The particular population of most of the different states of the empire has already been given in the Table of the Circles.

NATIONAL CHARACTER, } The Germans in their persons are tall, fair,
MANNERS, CUSTOMS. } and strong built. The ladies have generally fine complexions; and some of them, especially in Saxony, have all the delicacy of features and shape that are so bewitching in some other countries.

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, and at Vienna are said to be as 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; 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 circumstances. The stoves made use of in Germany are the same with those already mentioned in our account of other 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 more comfortable than those of their neighbours.

The Germans are naturally a frank, honest, hospitable people, free from artifice and disguise. The higher orders are ridiculously proud of titles, ancestry, and show. 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. But when commanded by able generals, they have achieved great things both against the Turks and the French ; and in the late war 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 well known ; especially in watch- and clock-making, jewellery, turnery, sculpture, drawing, painting, and certain kinds of architecture. The Germans have been charged with intemperance in eating and drinking, and perhaps not unjustly, in consequence of the vast plenty of their country in wine and provisions of every kind ; but such excesses are now less common. 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 given. But no people have more feasting at marriages, funerals, and on 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. All the sons of noblemen inherit their fathers' titles ; which greatly perplexes the heralds and genealogists of that country. The German husbands are not quite so complaisant as those of some other countries 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. 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 inconveniences,—their gentlemen of property think the cultivation of their lands, though it might treble their revenue, below their attention, and that they should degrade themselves by 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, tigers, swans, scallop-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, ribbands, and bells. As this diversion is taken chiefly in the night-time, servants ride before the sledges with torches ; and a gentleman, standing on the sledge behind, guides the horse.

CITIES, CHIEF TOWNS, } This is a copious head in all countries, but
 FORTS, AND EDIFICES. } more particularly so in Germany, on account
 of the numerous independent states it contains.

Vienna is the capital of the circle of Austria, and, being the residence of the emperor, is generally considered as the capital of Germany. It is a noble and a strong city, and the princes of the house of Austria have omitted nothing that could contribute to its grandeur and riches. Vienna contains an excellent university, a bank, which is in the management of its own magistrates, and a court of commerce, immediately subject to the aulic council. Its religious buildings, with the walks and gardens, occupy a sixth part of the town; but the suburbs are larger than the city. It would be endless to enumerate the many palaces of this capital, two of which are imperial; its squares, academies, libraries; and the imperial cabinets of curiosities. Among its rich convents, is one of the Scotch nation, built in honour of their countryman St. Colman, the patron of Austria; and one of the six gates of this city is called the Scots' gate, in remembrance of some notable exploit performed there by the troops of that nation. The inhabitants of Vienna, including the suburbs, amounted in the year 1795 to 231,105; and the encouragement given by the sovereign has rendered this city the rendezvous of foreigners.

The streets, except those in the suburbs, are narrow and dirty. The houses of this city are generally of stone, five or six stories high, and flat roofed. They have three or four cellars under one another, with an open space in the middle of each arched roof, for the communication of air; and from the lowermost of all there is a tube to the top, to let in air from the streets. The winds often blow so strong, that it is troublesome to walk the streets. A remarkable prerogative of the sovereign here is, that the second floor of every house belongs to him, and is assigned to whomsoever he thinks proper: and hence there is no part of Germany where lodging is so dear as at Vienna. An odd custom prevails here of putting iron bars to all the windows, up to the very tops of the houses; which makes them all look like so many prisons. The houses and furniture of the citizens are greatly disproportioned to the magnificence of the palaces, squares, and other public buildings; but the excessive imposts laid by the house of Austria upon every commodity in its dominions, must always keep the manufacturing part of its subjects poor.

Berlin, the capital of the electorate of Brandenburg, and of the dominions of the king of Prussia, is situate on the river Spree, and, besides the royal palace, has many other superb edifices; it contains fourteen Lutheran and eleven Calvinist churches, besides a Catholic one. Its streets and squares are spacious, and built in a very regular manner; but the houses, though neat without, are ill finished, and ill furnished within, and very indifferently provided with inhabitants. The king's palace here, and that of prince Henry, are very magnificent buildings. The opera-house is also a beautiful structure: and the arsenal, which is handsomely built, in the form of a square, contains arms for 200,000 men. There are sundry manufactures in Berlin, and several schools, libraries, and charitable foundations. The number of its inhabitants, according to Busching, in 1755, was 126,661, including the garrison. In the same year, and according to the same author, there were no fewer than 443 silk looms, 149 of half silks, 2856 for woollen stuffs, 453 for cotton, 248 for linen, 454 for lace-work, 39 frames for silk stockings, and 310 for worsted ones. In the year 1803, the number of inhabitants was 153,128, exclusive of the soldiers of the garrison, and their wives and children. They have here manufactures of tapestry, gold and silver lace, and mirrors.

Dresden, the capital of the elector of Saxony, is remarkable for its for-

tifications, palaces, public buildings, churches, and charitable foundations; it is beautifully situated on both sides the Elbe, and 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, are computed to amount to about 60,000.

The electorate of Saxony is by nature the richest country in Germany, if not in Europe; it contains 210 walled towns, 61 market-towns, and about 3000 villages, according to the latest accounts of the Germans themselves (to which, however, we are not to give an implicit belief); and the revenue, estimating each rix-dollar at four shillings and six-pence, amounts to 1,350,000*l.* This sum is so moderate, when compared to the richness of the soil (which, 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 the Saxon princes appear to have been the most moderate and patriotic of any in Germany.

The city of Leipsic in Upper Saxony, 46 miles distant from Dresden, is situated in a pleasant and fertile plain on the Pleisse, and the inhabitants are said to amount to about 30,000. There are also large and well-built suburbs, with handsome gardens. Between these suburbs and the town is a fine walk of lime-trees, which was laid out in the year 1702, and encompasses the city. Mulberry-trees are also planted in the town-ditches: but the fortifications seem rather calculated for the use of the inhabitants to walk on, than for defence. The streets are clean, commodious, and agreeable, and are lighted in the night with seven hundred lamps. They reckon 436 merchant houses, and 192 manufactories of different articles, as brocades, paper, cards, &c. Leipsic has long been distinguished for the liberty of conscience allowed here to persons of different sentiments in religion. Here is a university, which is still very considerable, with six churches for the Lutherans (theirs being the established religion), one for the Calvinists, and a chapel in the castle for those of the Romish church. The university-library consists of about 26,000 volumes, 6000 of which are folios. Here is also a library for the magistrates, which consists of about 36,000 volumes and near 2000 manuscripts, and contains cabinets of urns, antiques, and medals, with many curiosities of art and nature. The exchange is an elegant building.

The city of Hanover, the capital of that electorate, stands on the river Leine, and is a neat, thriving, and agreeable city. It contains about twelve hundred houses, among which there is an electoral palace. It carries on some manufactures; and in its neighbourhood are the palace and elegant gardens of Herenhausen. The dominions of the electorate of Hanover contain about seven hundred and fifty thousand people, who live in fifty-eight cities, and sixty market-towns, besides villages. The city and suburbs of Bremen, which duchy belongs, by purchase, to the said elector, contain about fifty thousand inhabitants, who have a considerable trade by the Weser. The other towns belonging to this electorate have trade and manufactures: but, in general, it must be remarked, that the electorate has suffered greatly by the accession of the Hanover family to the crown of Great Britain. It may be proper to mention, on account of its relation to our royal family, the secularised 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 amounted to about 30,000*l*.

Munich, the capital of the electorate of Bavaria, is a very populous and beautiful city, situate on the Iser. The houses are high, and the streets spacious, with canals in several of them. It is esteemed the most elegant city in Germany, and contains about 2,300 houses and 40,000 inhabitants. The electoral palace is a very sumptuous edifice; besides which there are two other electoral palaces at a little distance from the city; that of Nymphenburg, admired for its gardens, and that of Schlessheim.

Ratisbon, or Regensburg, where the diet of the empire assembles, is of considerable size, but of a dark and dull appearance, and contains 22,000 inhabitants. It is remarkable for an ancient bridge of fifteen arches over the Danube, in length 350 yards. It was lately a free imperial city, but is now the capital of the principality of Ratisbon, part of the territory of the new elector arch-chancellor.

Augsburg is still a free imperial city, and the largest and most ancient in Swabia. It is situate between the rivers Lech and Wertach, which unite in its environs, and flow to the Danube. It was once a place of considerable trade, and is said to be nine miles in circuit: at present it contains only about 36,000 inhabitants.

Frankfort on the Maine, so called to distinguish it from another of the same name on the Oder, is situated in a healthful, fertile, and delightful country on the river just mentioned, by which it is divided into two parts, distinguished by the names of Frankfort and Sachsenhausen. The former of these, being the largest, is divided into twelve wards, and the latter into two; and both are computed to contain about three thousand houses. The fortifications, which are both regular and solid, form a decagon, or figure consisting of ten bastions, faced with hewn stone; the ditches are deep, and filled with fresh water; and all the out-works are placed before the gates. Frankfort is the usual place of the election and coronation of the kings of the Romans, and is also a free and imperial city. It is of a circular form, without any suburbs; but the streets are generally narrow, and the houses are mostly built of timber and plaster, and covered with slate; though there are some handsome private structures, of a kind of red marble, that deserve the name of palaces; as the buildings called the Compestel and Fronhof, the Trier-shof, the Cullenhof, the German-house, an august edifice, situated near the bridge over the Maine, the Hesse Darmsiadhof, the palace of the prince de la Tour, and the houses of the counts of Solms, Schauenburg, and Schonborn. There are likewise three principal squares.

The imperial city of Hamburg is situate on the Elbe at the confux of the rivers Alster and Bille. The houses are in general high; the streets irregular and narrow. There are many canals which run through the city, and there are 84 bridges over them. The fortifications are strong, in the old Dutch style, with great ditches, and walls of such thickness, that several carriages can drive abreast on the ramparts, which are planted with rows of trees. Though the city is nearly 70 miles from the sea, the Elbe is here between four and five miles broad. Hamburg contains above 120,000 inhabitants. It has long been the most commercial city in Germany, and its trade has greatly increased during the late and present wars between England, and France and Holland.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] Germany has vast advantages in point of commerce, from its situation in the heart of Europe, and being intersected, as it were, with great rivers. Its native materials for com-

merce, besides mines and minerals, are hemp, hops, flax, anise, cumin, 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, ribbands, 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, hogs' bristles, mum, beer, tartar, smalt, zaffer, Prussian blue, printers' ink, and many other articles.

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, in great perfection. The porcelain of Meissen, in the electorate of Saxony, and its paintings, have been long in great repute.

CONSTITUTION, GOVERN- } Almost every prince in Germany (and
MENT, AND LAWS. } there are nearly 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, whose power in the collective body, or the diet, is not directorial, but executive: but even that gives him vast influence. The supreme power in Germany is the diet, which is composed of the emperor, or, 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 empire was hereditary under the race of Charlemagne, but, after that, became elective; and in the beginning, all the princes, nobility, and deputies of cities, enjoyed the privilege of voting. In the reign of Henry V. the chief officers of the empire altered the mode of election in their own favour. In the year 1239, the number of electors was reduced to seven. One elector was added in 1649, and another in 1692. In consequence of the late secularizations, and other alterations made in the constitution of the empire, under the influence of France and Russia, they are now ten in number, viz. one ecclesiastical and nine secular electors.

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 emperor Joseph II, the elector of Bavaria was chosen to that dignity, and died, as it is supposed, heart-broken, 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 or 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, as elector of Hanover, was obliged to furnish his *quota*

against the house of Austria, and also against the king of Prussia, while he was fighting for them both. The emperor claims a precedence for his ambassadors in all Christian courts.

The ten electors of the empire, who have the sole election of the emperor, are in order as follow :

The elector of Ratisbon (or Aschaffenburg), arch-chancellor of the empire.

The elector and king of Bohemia (the present emperor), who is grand 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 (king of Prussia), who is arch-chamberlain.

The elector of Brunswick Lunenburg (Hanover—the king of Great Britain), who is arch-treasurer.

The elector of Salzburg (late grand duke of Tuscany).

The elector of Wurtemberg, who is arch-pantler.

The elector of Baden.

The elector of Hesse.

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 jurisdictions, the former over the northern, and the latter over the southern circles.

The diet is composed of the electoral college, the college of princes, and the college of imperial towns.

The electoral college consists of the ten electors above enumerated, each of whom has a personal vote, termed by the German lawyers *votum virile*. The college of princes is divided into two classes—the proper princes of the empire, as dukes, margraves, landgraves, princes and princely counts, who have each a personal vote, and the counts and lords of the empire, who are arranged in four colleges or benches, viz. the Wetteravian, Swabian, Franconian, and Westphalian, each of which has but one vote, styled *votum curiatum*. In this college Austria and Salzburg have the directory by turns. The college of imperial cities consists of deputies from the Hans towns, Hamburg, Bremen, and Lubeck, and the imperial cities Frankfort on the Maine, Nuremberg, and Augsburg. The imperial cities are free republics under no particular sovereign, but immediately under the emperor and the empire.

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. The imperial council consists of fifty judges or assessors. The president, and four of them, are appointed by the emperor, and each of the electors chooses one, and the other princes and states the rest. This court is at present held at Wetzlar, but formerly resided at Spire ; and causes may be brought before it by appeal. The Aulic council was originally only a revenue court of the dominions of the house of Austria. As that family's power increased, the jurisdiction of the Aulic council was extended 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 has a director to take care of the peace and order of the circle. This director is in general one of the most powerful princes of the circle.

In case of great public offences, after 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, and he is obliged to make good all expenses.

Every state which acts directly or indirectly against the fundamental laws of the empire, is subject to the punishment of the ban, or proscription of the empire. The ban is of two kinds: the one is privatory; the other provisionary. The first consists in depriving a prince or state of the empire of all their rights, privileges, dignities, &c.: the second consists in taking away the actual government of the states, and committing them to the care of some other, until it be otherwise ordered. But this sentence of proscription is difficult to obtain, because it is difficult to unite all the orders of the empire in the same measure. The execution of it belongs to the director of the circle where the prince resides, and every feudal state of the empire is subject to it.

The constitution of the Germanic body is a study of no small difficulty. 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. The house of Austria, indeed, met with a powerful opposition from the house of Brandenburg, in consequence of the activity and abilities of the king of Prussia. It may here be proper to inform the reader of the meaning of a term which frequently appears in the German history—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 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 guarantied by almost all the powers of Europe. The emperor Charles VII., elector of Bavaria, and Augustus, 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 repeatedly 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 entirely without redress when they suffer any grievance; as they may appeal to the general diet, or great council of the empire, for relief. 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 expense 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, as in Franconia, Swabia, and on the Rhine, are generally a free people, or perform only certain services to their superiors, and pay the taxes; whereas, in the marquisate of Brandenburg, Pomerania, Lusatia, Moravia, Bohemia, Austria, &c. their condition is various, indeed, but universally very servile.

The judicial courts throughout Germany follow in their decisions the

Roman or civil law, except where that law is altered or superseded by the statutes of the several states; which are very various, as the states themselves are extremely numerous.

REVENUES AND MILITARY FORCE.] Both the military force and revenue of the emperor, merely as the head of the Germanic league or Roman empire, are very inconsiderable. He has only an annual income of about 5000 or 6000*l.* sterling, arising from some inconsiderable fiefs in the Black Forest, and some trifling contributions from the imperial cities, of which, it is said, scarcely 2000*l.* come into the imperial treasury. The extraordinary revenues levied on the different states are called Roman months, because they were formerly raised by monthly assessments, for the maintenance of the troops who escorted the emperor to Rome, when that was the place of his coronation. A Roman month is about 5000*l.*; and a certain number of these sums is paid by each state, according to the proportions for the different princes and states registered in what is called the matriculation-book, kept by the arch-chancellor of the empire.

In the same book are registered the contingents or number of troops to be raised by each state, when war is decreed by the diet. These together would compose an army of about 30,000 men; but the whole force of the empire, were it exerted in one effort, would amount, exclusive of those countries which, though subject to German princes, are not a part of Germany, to 400,000 men: and the revenues of the different princes and states of the empire, with the same limitation, have been estimated at above 16 millions sterling.

The revenues of the electorates and principal states of the empire, and the military force usually maintained by them, according to the latest and most authentic accounts, are as follow:

Princes.	Revenue.	Military Force.
Elector of Saxony	- £ 1,250,000	32,000
Elector of Bavaria	- 1,200,000	28,000
Elector of Hanover	- 960,000	18,000
Elector of Wurtemberg	- 600,000	7,000
Elector of Baden	- 400,000	4,000
Elector of Hesse	- 300,000	12,000
Elector of Salzburg	- 300,000	2,500
Elector arch-chancellor	- 100,000	
Duke of Brunswick Wolfenbuttle	280,000	3,500
Dukes of the house of Saxony	277,000	1,300
Dukes of Mecklenburg	- 230,000	1,500
Princes of Hohenlohe	- 150,000	

The electors of Brandenburg and Bohemia (the king of Prussia and head of the house of Austria) are not included in this list, as their revenues and armies are raised from the whole of the Prussian and Austrian dominions.

IMPERIAL, ROYAL, AND OTHER } The emperor of Germany pretends
TITLES, ARMS, AND ORDERS. } to be successor to the emperors of Rome, and has long, on that account, been admitted to a tacit pre-eminence 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; and he has lately, by a patent bearing

date the 10th of August 1804, assumed the title of hereditary emperor of Austria. 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. On the breast of the eagle is an escutcheon quarterly of eight, for Hungary, Naples, Jerusalem, Arragon, Anjou, Guelders, Brabant, and Barr. It would be as 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 Fleece, 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 late empress-queen instituted the order of St. Theresa.

The "*Order of the Golden Fleece*" was instituted at Bruges, in Flanders, on the 10th of January 1429, by Philip duke of Burgundy, on the day of his marriage with his third wife. It is supposed that he chose the badge, as being the chief of the staple manufactures of his country. It at first consisted of thirty knights, including the sovereign, who were of the first families in the Low Countries; and still continues to be classed with the most illustrious orders of knighthood in Europe. At present there are two branches of it; of the one the emperor is sovereign, and the king of Spain of the other; all must prove their noble descent from the twelfth century. The motto of the order is "*Pretium non vile laborum.*" The "*Teutonic Order*" owed its origin to some religious Germans in Jerusalem during the crusades, who assumed the title of "Teutonic knights, or brethren of the hospital of our Lady of the Germans at Jerusalem." Conrade, duke of Swabia, invited them into Prussia, about the year 1230; soon after they conquered Prussia for themselves, and became one of the most powerful orders in Europe. By their internal quarrels, they afterwards lost their power and possessions: and Albert, marquis of Brandenburg, grand-master of the order, on his abjuring popery, abdicated the grand-mastership, subdued Prussia, and expelled all the papists who would not follow his example. The order is now divided into two branches: the protestant branch, which had a house at Utrecht; and that for papists, which has a house at Mergentheim, in Germany, and of which the members must take the oath of celibacy. The ensign distinguishing this branch is worn round the neck, pendent to a gold chain.

The time of the institution of the "*Order of the Red Eagle*" is uncertain. The margrave of Bareith is sovereign of it, and it is generally bestowed on military officers. In the year 1690, John-George, elector of Saxony, and Frederic III. elector of Brandenburg, on terminating their disputes, established the "*Order of Sincerity*," as a confirmation and security hereafter of their amity. The knights of this order wear a bracelet of gold; on one side are the names of the two princes, with this device, "*Amitié sincère*;" on the other side are two armed hands, joined together, and placed on two swords, with two palm-branches crossed, with this motto, "*Unis pour jamais.*"

John-George, duke of Saxe Weissenfels, instituted the "*Order of the Noble Passion*," in the year 1704, of which the duke is the sovereign. Each knight of the order is to contribute to the maintenance of the maimed or decayed soldiers in the service of the sovereign. In the year 1709, Louisa-Elizabeth, widow of Philip duke of Saxe Merseburg, re-

vived the "*Order of the Death's Head*," first instituted in 1652 by her father, the duke of Wurtemberg. A princess of that house alone can be sovereign of it, and none but women of virtue and merit (birth and fortune not regarded) be received into it. They are to avoid gaming, theatrical amusements, and luxuries of all kinds. The badge of the order is a Death's head enamelled white, surmounted with a cross pattée, black; above the cross pattée, another cross, composed of five jewels, by which it hangs to a black ribbon edged with white, and on the ribbon these words, "*Memento mori*," worn at the breast.

The great order of Wurtemberg is that "*of the Chase*," instituted in the year 1702 by the then duke, and improved in the year 1719. On the left side of the coat is a silver star embroidered, of the same figure as the badge, in the middle of a green circle, with the motto "*Amicitia Virtutisque Fœdus*." The festival of this order is on St. Hubert's day, he being the patron of sportsmen.

In the year 1709, the elector Palatine revived the "*Order of St. Hubert*," first instituted by a duke of Juliers and Cleves, in memory of a victory gained by him on St. Hubert's day, in 1447. All the knights have either military employments or pensions. The archbishop of Salzburg, in 1701, instituted the "*Order of St. Rupert*," in honour of the founder and patron of the see he held, and as the apostle of his country. As the archbishop was the richest and most powerful prince of Bavaria, next to the elector, his order is in good esteem. In the year 1729, Albert, elector of Bavaria, instituted the "*Order of St. George, the Defender of the Immaculate Conception*," the knights of which are obliged to prove their nobility by father and mother for five generations.

The "*Order of the Golden Lion*," instituted by the late landgrave of Hesse-Cassel, is equally a military and civil order, but mostly conferred on general officers. The landgrave also instituted the military "*Order of Merit*," the badge of which is a gold cross, of eight points, enameled white, and in the centre this motto, "*Pro Virtute et Fidelitate*:" it is worn at the coat button-hole, pendent to a blue ribbon edged with silver.

RELIGION.] Before the reformation introduced by Luther, the German bishops were possessed (as indeed many of them continued to be till the late secularisations) of prodigious power and revenues, and were the tyrants of the emperors as well as of 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 the celebrated Englishman John Wickliffe, who went much further in reforming the real errors of popery than Luther himself, though he lived about a century and a half before him. Wickliffe 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 afterwards by Luther*, of which we have spoken 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 im-

* Born in Saxony, in the year 1483; began to dispute the doctrines of the Romish church 1517; and died 1546, in the 63d year of his age.

perfect. Calvinism *, therefore, or the religion of Geneva (as now practised in the church of Scotland), was introduced into Germany, and is the religion professed in the territories of the king of Prussia, the landgrave of Hesse, and some other princes, who maintain a parity of orders in the church. Some even assert, that the numbers of protestants and papists in the empire are now almost equal. Germany, particularly Moravia and the Palatinate, as also Bohemia, is over-run 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 elector archchancellor (the late elector and archbishop of Mentz) is primate and metropolitan of all Germany; and the see of Mentz has been transferred to Ratisbon. Germany formerly contained six archbishoprics and thirty-eight bishoprics. At present the hierarchy appears to be thrown into some confusion by the late secularisations; and a concordat is expected to be shortly concluded between the pope and the empire, to restore it to order.

[LITERATURE.] 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; almost every man of letters is an author: they multiply books without number in every department of literature; and 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.

Many of the Germans have greatly distinguished themselves in various branches of learning and science. They have written largely upon the Roman and canon laws. Stahl, Van Swieten, Stork, Hoffman, and Halle, have contributed greatly to the improvement of physic; Ruvinus and Dillenius, of botany; Heister, of anatomy and surgery; and Neumann, Zimmermann, Pott, and Margraff, of chemistry. In astronomy, Kepler deservedly obtained a great reputation; and Puffendorf is one of the first writers on the law of nature and nations, and has also merit as an historian. But at the end of the last century, and the beginning of the present, Germany, by her divines, and by her religious sects, was so much involved in disputes about systematic theology, that few comparatively paid any attention to other parts of learning, or to polite literature. The language also, and the style of writing in German books, which at the time of the Reformation was pure and original, became ridiculous, by a continual intermixture of Latin and French words; which, though they were not understood by the people in general, were thought to give an air of superiority to the writers, and therefore much affected: for an opinion prevailed among the learned in Germany, and many have not yet divested themselves of it, that compiling huge volumes, and larding them with numberless quotations from all sorts of authors, and from all languages, was the true test of great erudition. Their productions, therefore, became heavy and pedantic, and were in consequence, disregarded by other nations.

It was about the year 1730 that the prospects of literature in Ger-

* John Calvin was born in the province of Picardy, in the north of France, anno 1506. Being obliged to fly from that kingdom, he settled at Geneva, in 1539, where he established a new form of church discipline, which was soon after embraced by several nations and states, who are now denominated Presbyterians, and, from their doctrinal articles, Calvinists. He died at Geneva, in the year 1564; and his writings make nine volumes in folio.

many began to brighten. Leibnitz and Wolff opened the way to a better philosophy than had hitherto prevailed. Gottsched, an author and professor at Leipsic, who was greatly honoured by Frederic II. king of Prussia, introduced a better taste of writing, by publishing a German grammar, and by instituting a literary society for polishing and restoring to its purity the German language, and by promoting the study of the belles-lettres. We may consider this as the epocha from which the Germans began to write with elegance in their own language upon learned subjects, and to free themselves, in a considerable degree, from that verbosity and pedantry by which they had been characterised. About this time, several young men in the university of Leipsic, and other parts of Lower Germany, united in publishing some periodical works, calculated for the general entertainment of persons of literary taste. Some of these gentlemen afterwards became eminent authors; and their works are held in Germany in high estimation.

The style of preaching among the German divines also now underwent a considerable change. They began to translate the best English and French sermons, particularly those of Tillotson, Sherlock, Saurin, Bourdaloue, and others. They improved by these models; and Mosheim, Spalding, Zollikofer, and others, have published sermons which would do credit to any country; although they still retain too much of that prolixity for which German divines and commentators have been so much censured. Nor can it be denied, that great numbers of the German preachers, even in large and opulent towns, are still too much distinguished by vulgar language, absurd opinions, and an inattention to the dictates of reason and good sense.

Some of the English periodical writings, such as the Spectator, Tatler, and Guardian, being translated into the German language, excited great emulation among the writers of that country, and a number of periodical papers appeared, of various merit. One of the first and best was published at Hamburg, under the title of "The Patriot;" in which Dr. Thomas, the late bishop of Salisbury, was concerned; he being at that time chaplain to the British factory at Hamburg, and a considerable master of the German language. The late professor Gillert, who is one of the most elegant of the German authors, and one of the most esteemed, has greatly contributed to the improvement of their taste. His way of writing is particularly adapted to touch the heart, and to inspire sentiments of morality and piety. His fables and narrations, written in German verse, his letters, and his moral romances, are so much read in Germany, that even many of the ladies have them all by heart. His comedies are also very popular; though they are rather too sentimental, and better adapted for the closet than for the stage.

Haller the famous physician, Hagedorn, Uz, Croneigh, Lessing, Gleim, Gerstenberger, Kleist, Klopstock, Ramler, Zacarie, Wieland, and others, have excelled in poetry. Schlegel, Croneigh, Lessing, Wieland, Wiese, Schiller, and Kotzebue, have acquired fame by their dramatic writings. Rabener has, by his satirical works, immortalised his name among the Germans; though some of his pieces are of too local a nature, and too much confined to German customs, manners, and characters, to be read with any high degree of pleasure by persons of other nations. Gesner, whose *Idylls* and *Death of Abel* have been translated into the English language, and favourably received, is better known to an English reader.

In chemistry and in medicine, the merit of the Germans is very con-

spicuous; and Reimarus, Zimmermann, Abt, Kästner, Segner, Lambert, Mayer, Krüger, and Sudger, have acquired fame by their philosophical writings. Busching is an excellent geographical writer; and Masco, Bunau, Putter, Gatterer, Gebaur, and Schmidt, have excelled in historical works. But it cannot be denied that the Germans, in their romances, are a century behind us. Most of their publications of this kind are imitations of ours, or else very dry and uninteresting; which perhaps is owing to education, to false delicacy, or to a certain taste of knight-errantry which is still predominant among some of their novel-writers.

In works relating to antiquity, and the arts known among the ancients, the names of Winckelman, Klog, and Lessing, are familiar with those who are skilled in this branch of literature. In ecclesiastical, philosophical and literary history, the names of Albertus Fabricius, Mosheim, Smler, and Brucker, are well known among us. Raphaelius, Michaëlis, and Walch, are famous in sacred literature. Cellarius, Burman, Taubman, Reiske, Ernesti, Reimarus, Havercamp, and Heyne, have published some of the best editions of Greek and Latin classics.

It is an unfavourable circumstance for German literature, that the French language should be so fashionable in the German courts instead of the German, and that so many of their princes should give it so decided a preference. Frederic II., king of Prussia, had ordered the Philosophical Transactions of his royal society at Berlin, from the beginning of its institution, to be published in the French tongue; by which, some of the Germans think his majesty cast a very undeserved reproach upon his native language.

With respect to the *fine arts*, the Germans have acquitted themselves very well. Germany has produced some good painters, architects, sculptors, and engravers. They even pretend to have been the first inventors of engraving, etching, and mezzotinto. Printing, if first invented in Holland, was soon after greatly improved in Germany. The Germans are generally allowed to have been the first inventors of great guns, as also of gunpowder, in Europe, about the year 1320. Germany has likewise produced some excellent musicians,—Handel, Bach, Hasse, and Haydn, of whom Handel stands at the head, having arrived at the sublime of music.

UNIVERSITIES.] There are at present in Germany thirty-one universities, of which fourteen, *viz.* those of Leipsic, Rostock, Greifswalde, Wittenberg, Tübingen, Iena, Helmstadt, Giessen, Rinteln, Altorf, Kiel, Halle, Göttingen, and Erlangen, are Lutheran; three, *viz.* Frankfort on the Oder, Marburg, and Duisburg, of the reformed or Calvinistic religion; twelve, *viz.* Prague, Vienna, Würzburg, Freyburg, Landshut, Dillingen, Ollnütz, Gratz, Paderborn, Salzburg, Fulda, and Bamberg, catholic; and two, Heidelberg and Erfurt, mixed, or both catholic and protestant. There are also a number of colleges, gymnasia, pedagogies, and Latin schools. There are also many academies and societies for promoting the study of natural philosophy, the belles-lettres, antiquities, painting, sculpture, architecture, &c., as the Imperial Leopoldine Academy of the *Natura Curiosi*: the Academy of Sciences at Vienna, at Berlin, at Göttingen, at Erfurt, at Leipsic, at Duisburg, at Giessen, and at Hamburg. At Dresden and Nuremberg are academies for painting: at Berlin a royal military academy; and at Augsburg is the Imperial Franciscan Academy of Fine Arts; to which we may add the Latin Society

at Iena. Of the public libraries the most celebrated are those of Vienna, Berlin, Halle, Wolfenbuttle, Hanover, Goettingen, Weimar, and Leipsic.

LANGUAGE.] The German language is derived from the old Teutonic and Gothic. It varies considerably in its dialects as spoken in different parts of the country, and is purest in Saxony and Hanover, and in the southern and eastern provinces most corrupted and uncouth. Latin and French are the most useful languages in Germany, when a traveller is ignorant of High Dutch.

The German Paternoster is as follows:—*Unser Vater, der du bist im himmel, geheiligt werde dein name. Zukomme dein reich. Dein wille geschehe, wie im himmel also auch auf erden. Unser taglich brodt gib uns heute. Und vergib uns unsere schulden, als wir vergeben unsern schuldigern. Und fuehre uns nicht in versuchung. Sondern erlese uns von dem basen. Den dein ist das reich, und die kraft, und die herrlichkeit, in ewigkeit. Amen.*

ANTIQUITIES.] A few remains of Roman edifices and other antiquities are found in Germany. The vast Gothic palaces, cathedrals, castles, and, above all, town-houses, in Germany, are very curious, and impress the beholder with their rude magnificence: many castles have the same appearance, probably, as they had 400 years ago; and their fortifications generally consist of a brick wall, trenches filled with water, and bastions or half-moons.

HISTORY.] The manners of the ancient Germans are well described by the elegant and manly pencil of Tacitus, the Roman historian. They were a brave and independent 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, independent of each other, though occasionally connected by a military union for defending themselves against such enemies as threatened the liberties of them all. At length, the Roman power, supported by art and policy, prevailed over a great part of Germany, and it was reduced to the condition of a province. When the Roman empire was shattered by the northern barbarians, Germany was over-run by the Franks, about the year 480, and a considerable part of it long remained in subjection to earls and marquises of that nation. In this situation Germany continued, 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 eccentric and superior geniuses 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 death of Lewis III., in the year 911; at which time the different princes, assuming their original independence, rejected the Carlovingian line, and placed Conrade, duke of Franconia, 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 these, in the beginning of the thirteenth century, arose the factions of the Guelphs and Ghibelines, of which the former was attached

to the pope, and the latter to the emperor; and both, by their violence and inveteracy, tended to disquiet the empire for several ages. The emperors too were often at war with the Turks; and sometimes the German princes, 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 independent 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, as they lived near the king's person, and, like all other princes, had independent territories belonging to them, they increased their influence and authority; and in the reign of Otho III., of the house of Saxony, in the year 984, acquired the sole right of electing the emperor*. Thus, while, in other kingdoms of Europe, the dignity of the great lords, who were all originally allodial or independent 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 jurisdiction of the people. Otho I. having, in the year 962, united Italy to the empire of Germany, procured a decree from the clergy, that he and his successors should have the power of nominating the pope, and of granting investitures to bishops. Henry V., a weak and wicked prince, in the year 1122 surrendered up the right of investiture and other powers, to the disgrace of the imperial dignity; but pope Benedict XII. refusing absolution to Louis V. of Bavaria, in 1338, it was declared, in the diet of the empire, that the majority of suffrages of the electoral college should confer the empire without the consent of the pope, and that he had no superiority over the emperor, nor any right to reject or to approve of elections. In 1438, Albert II., archduke of Austria, was elected emperor, and the imperial dignity continued in the male line of that family for three hundred years. One of his successors, Maximilian, married the heiress 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 in right of his mother, was elected emperor in the year 1519. Under him Mexico and Peru were conquered by the Spaniards: and 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 the French king, Francis I. Though successful in the beginning of his reign, his good fortune toward the conclusion of it began to forsake him; which, with other reasons, occasioned his abdication of the crown.

His brother, Ferdinand I., who in 1558 succeeded to the throne, proved a moderate prince with regard to religion. He had the address

* Wiquefort says, that nothing was settled as to the number of electors, or the electoral dignity, till Charles IV., who was chosen emperor in 1347, and made that famous constitution for the election of emperors called the *Golden Bull*.

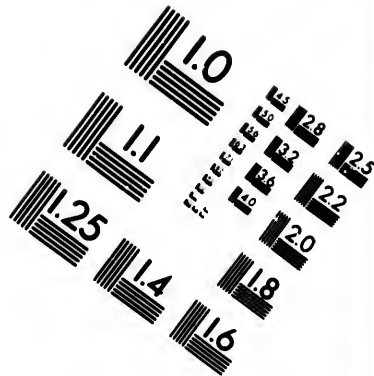
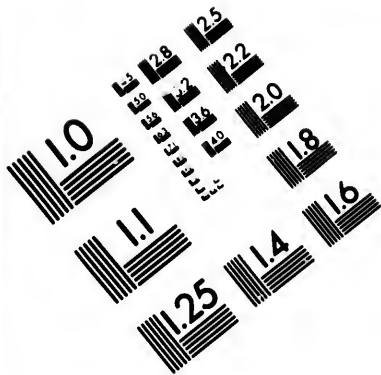
to procure his son, Maximilian, to be declared king of the Romans, in his own life-time, and died in 1564. By his last will he ordered, that, if either his own male issue or that of his brother Charles, should fail, his Austrian estates should revert to his second daughter Anne, wife to the elector of Bavaria, and her issue.

This destination is noticed, as it gave rise to the opposition made by the house of Bavaria to the pragmatic sanction in favour of the late 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. To him succeeded in the empire, Matthias, under whom the reformers, who went by 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 at Prague. This gave rise to a ruinous 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*.

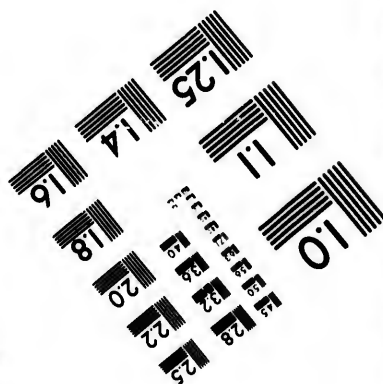
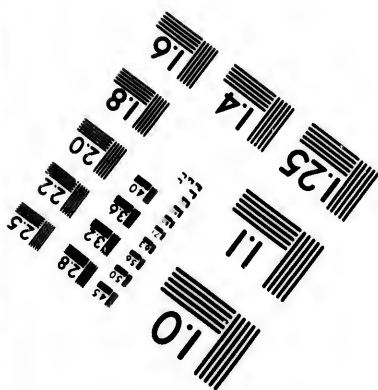
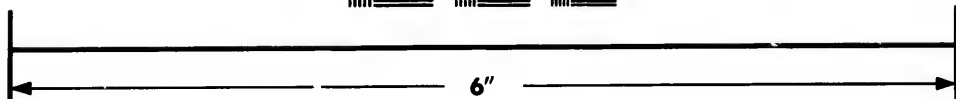
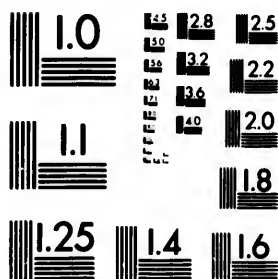
Matthias dying in 1618 was succeeded by his cousin, Ferdinand II.; but the Bohemians offered their crown to Frederic, the elector palatine, the most powerful protestant prince in Germany, and son-in-law to his Britannic majesty, James I. That prince was incautious enough to accept of the crown; but he lost it, being entirely defeated by the duke of Bavaria and the imperial generals, at the battle of Prague: and he was also deprived of his own 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 great firmness and intrepidity: among them were the margrave of Baden Dourlach, Christian duke of Brunswic, and count Mansfield; the last was one of the ablest generals of the age. Christian IV., king of Denmark, declared for them; and Richelieu, the French minister, did not wish to see the house of Austria aggrandised. 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 so grossly abused the advantages obtained over the protestants, that they formed a fresh confederacy at Leipsic, of which the celebrated Gustavus Adolphus, king of Sweden, was the head. His victories and progress, till he was killed at the battle of Lutzen in 1632, have already been related. But the protestant cause did not die with him. He had brought up a set of heroes, such as the duke of Saxe Weimar, Torstenson, Banier, 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. died in 1637, and 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 not the siege been raised by John Sobieski, king of Poland. Prince Eugene, of Savoy, was a young ad-





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venturer in arms, about the year 1697; and, being one of the imperial generals, gave the Turks the first checks they received in Hungary; and by the peace of Carlowitz, in 1699, Transylvania was ceded to the emperor. 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, the general of the empire, the French partly recovered their affairs, notwithstanding their repeated defeats. The duke of Marlborough, though he obtained very splendid victories, had not all the success he expected or deserved. Joseph himself was suspected of a design to subvert the Germanic liberties; and it was evident, by his conduct, that he expected England should take the principal part in the war, which was chiefly 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, 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 show 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 oppose 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 the following year the peace of Passarowitz, between them and the Turks, was concluded. Charles was continually employed 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 connexions of George I. and II. with 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 principal powers often changed their old alliances, and concluded new ones, contrary to their interest. Without entering into particulars, it is sufficient to observe, that the safety of Hanover, and its aggrandisement, 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, the late empress-queen, 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 prospect of gaining the throne of Poland, relinquished the claims he had upon the Austrian succession.

The emperor, after this, had very ill 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, under cardinal Fleury, 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 pacify the German and other European powers, had, before his death, given his eldest daughter, Maria Theresa, 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 sides. The young king of Prussia, with a powerful army, entered and conquered 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 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, under whose protection she threw herself and her infant son; and though they had always been 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 distressed on the imperial throne, and driven out of his electoral dominions (as had been his ancestor, in queen Anne's reign, for siding with France) and would have given the queen of Hungary almost her own terms; but she haughtily and impolitically 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, by the title of Francis I.

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 defeated 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 he suddenly attacked the king of Poland, drove him out of Saxony,

defeated his troops, and took possession of Dresden, which he held till a treaty was made under the mediation of his Britannic majesty, by which the king of Prussia acknowledged the duke of Lorraine, now become great-duke of Tuscany, for emperor. The war continued in the Low Countries, not only to the disadvantage but to the discredit of the Austrians and Daich, 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, in the year 1756. 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 between these monarchs 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 impregvably fortified at Pirna; and the elector of Saxony again 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 Germany. The conduct of his Prussian majesty on this occasion is scarcely to be paralleled in history. He broke once more into Bohemia with inconceivable rapidity, and defeated an army of 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 Colin, by the Austrian general Daun, 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 beaten 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 great victories. At first he defeated the Russians at Zorndorf; but an attack made upon his army, in the night-time, by count Daun at Hochkirchen, had nearly 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 reflexion as this campaign did: six sieges were raised almost at the same time; that of Colberg, by the Russians; that of Leipsic, by the duke of Deux Ponts, who commanded the army of the empire; that of Dresden, by count Daun; and those of Neiss, Cosel, and Torgau, also by the Austrians.

Many important events which passed at the same time in Germany, between the French, who were driven out of Hanover, and the English, or their allies, must be omitted on account of the brevity necessary to be observed in this compendium. The operations on both sides are of little importance to history, because nothing was done that was decisive, though the war was extremely bloody and burdensome to Great Britain. Great was the ingratitude of the empress-queen to his Britannic majesty

and his allies, who were now daily threatened with the ban of the empire. The Russians had taken possession of the kingdom of Prussia, and laid siege to Colberg, the only port of his Prussian majesty in the Baltic. Till then, he had entertained too mean an opinion of the Russians; but he soon found them by far the most formidable enemies he had to encounter. They advanced, 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 troops, in a battle near Frankfort on the Oder. 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 brave marshal Keith, and forty brave generals, besides those who were wounded and made prisoners. At Landschut, the imperial general Laudohn defeated his army under Fouquet, on which he had great dependence, and thereby opened to the Austrians an easy passage into Silesia. None but Frederic II. would have thought of continuing the war under such repeated losses; but every defeat he received 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 defeated 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 attended with no great consequences in his favour. New reinforcements which arrived every day from Russia, the taking of Colberg by the Russians, and of Schweidnitz by the Austrians, seemed almost to have completed 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 consequences. The British ministry of George III. were solicitous to put an end to the war, 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 prudent reluctance of the other German princes 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 unwillingness of her generals 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 Hubertsberg, February 15, 1763, which again secured to his Prussian majesty the possession of Silesia.

Upon the death of the emperor, the husband of Maria Theresa, in 1765, her son Joseph, who had been crowned king of the Romans in 1764, succeeded him in the empire. Soon after his accession, he discovered great activity and ambition. He joined in the dismemberment of Poland, with Russia and Prussia. He paid a visit incognito, and with moderate attendants, to Rome, and the principal courts of Italy; and had a personal interview with his Prussian majesty, though this did not prevent hostilities from being commenced between Austria and Prussia, on account of the succession to the electorate of Bavaria. The Austrian claims on this occasion were very unjust; but, in the support of them,

while the contest continued, the emperor displayed great military skill. Though vast armies were brought into the field on both sides, no action happened of much importance, and an accommodation at length took place. The emperor afterwards demanded of the Dutch the free navigation of the Scheldt, but in this he likewise failed. He endeavoured, however, to promote the happiness of his subjects; granted a most liberal religious toleration, and suppressed most of the religious orders of both sexes, as being utterly useless, and even pernicious to society; and in 1783, by an edict, abolished the remains of servitude and villanage, and fixed also the fees of the lawyers at a moderate amount, granting them a pension in lieu. He also abolished the use of torture in his hereditary dominions, and removed many of the grievances under which the peasants and common people laboured. He was a prince who mixed with his subjects with an ease and affability which are very uncommon in persons of his rank. He loved the conversation of ingenious men, and appeared solicitous to cultivate knowledge.

Peter-Leopold, grand-duke of Tuscany, succeeded his brother Joseph II., and engaged the public praise by repeated instances of moderation and solid principles. His former management of his Italian sovereignty, which was prudent and beneficent, showed that he aspired to more just reputation than can be acquired by the mere splendors of royalty. One of the bishops of Hungary having refused his license to a catholic subject to marry a protestant woman, the emperor dismissed him from his see; but pardoned him afterwards, upon concession, and desired the bishop to exhort his brethren to comply with the imperial ordinances, else no favour should be shown.

The French revolution now attracted the attention of the powers of Europe. A conference was held at Pilnitz, between the emperor, the king of Prussia, and the elector of Saxony, at which the plan of attacking France was proposed and discussed. Leopold for some time was very irresolute, but at last seemed to be resolved on war, when he died of a pleuritic fever, on the 1st of March 1792, after an illness of four days.

His son Francis was raised to the imperial throne in the middle of July following. He embarked with zeal in the confederacy formed against France. The disastrous consequences of this war to the house of Austria, till its conclusion, or rather suspension, by the treaty of Campo Formio; and the transient success, but final failure, which attended its renewal, till its termination by the peace of Luneville; have been related in our account of the affairs of France.

Francis II., emperor of Germany, was born February 3, 1768; married, January 6, 1788, Elizabeth, princess of Wurtemberg, who died 1790. He married 2dly, September 1790, Maria-Theresa, of Naples, his cousin.

On the death of his father Peter-Leopold, late emperor, March 1st, 1792, he succeeded to the crown of Hungary and Bohemia; and July 15, 1792, was elected emperor of Germany.

He had no issue by his first marriage. By the latter he has

Maria-Louisa, born December 12, 1791.

Ferdinand-Charles, born April 19, 1793.

Leopoldina-Carolina-Josepha, born January 22, 1797.

Maria-Clementina-Frances-Josepha, born March 1, 1798.

Joseph-Francis-Leopold⁹, born April 9, 1799.
 Caroline-Ferdinanda-Josepha-Demetria, born April 8, 1801.

Brothers and Sisters of the Emperor.

Ferdinand-Joseph, elector of Salzburg (late grand-duke of Tuscany), born May 6, 1769; married, September 19, 1790, Louisa-Amelia-Theresa, daughter of Ferdinand IV., king of Naples.

• Charles-Lewis, born September 5, 1771.

Joseph-Antony, born March 9, 1776, palatine of Hungary.

Antony-Victor-Joseph, born August 31, 1779.

John-Baptist-Joseph, born January 20, 1782.

Regnier-Joseph, born September 30, 1783.

Louis-Joseph, born December 14, 1784.

Rodolph-John-Joseph-Regnier, born January 8, 1788.

Maria-Theresa-Josepha-Charlotta, born January 14, 1767; married, October 18, 1787, to Antony, brother to the elector of Saxony.

• Maria-Anna-Ferdinanda, born April 21, 1770; elected princess abess of the chapter of Prague, 1791.

Electors of the Empire.

Charles-Theodore, elector of Ratisbon, archchancellor of the holy Roman empire, primate and metropolitan of Germany, born February 8, 1744; elected coadjutor of the archbishopric of Mentz, June 5, 1787; succeeded to the archbishopric July 26, 1802; elector of Ratisbon 1802.

Francis-Joseph-Charles, emperor of Germany, and king of Hungary, elector of Bohemia, born February 12, 1768.

Frederic-Augustus IV., elector and duke of Saxony, born December 23, 1750; succeeded his father December 17, 1763; married, January 29, 1769, to the princess Amelia-Augusta, of Deux-Ponts.

Frederic-William III., king of Prussia, elector of Brandenburg, born August 3, 1770.

George III., king of Great Britain, elector of Brunswick-Luneburg, born June 4; 1738.

Ferdinand-Joseph (late grand-duke of Tuscany), elector of Salzburg, born May 6, 1769.

Frederic II., duke and elector of Wurtemberg, born November 6, 1754; married, in second marriage, to the princess-royal of England, Charlotte-Augusta-Matilda, May 18, 1797; succeeded his father, duke Frederic-Eugene, December 23, 1797; elector 1802.

Charles-Frederic, elector of Baden, born November 22, 1728; succeeded the margrave, his grandfather, May 12, 1738, and to the estates of the branch of Baden-Baden, October 21, 1771; married, in second marriage, November 24, 1787, to Louisa-Caroline, countess of Hochberg; elector 1802.

William IX., elector of Hesse, born June 3, 1743; married, September 1, 1764, to Wilhelmina-Caroline, daughter of Frederic V., king of Denmark; succeeded his father as landgrave of Hesse-Cassel, October 31, 1785; elector 1802.

GENERAL VIEW OF THE AUSTRIAN DOMINIONS.

THE extensive and powerful monarchy of Austria is composed of the following provinces and countries, which form the hereditary dominions of the present emperor of Germany, who has lately assumed the hereditary title of emperor of Austria.

Provinces and Countries.	Sq. Miles.	Population.
Archduchy of Austria Proper	10,060	1,820,000
Duchies of {		
Stiria	6,592	800,000
Carinthia	3,100	300,000
Carniola	3,424	400,000
Territory of Triest	120	40,000
County of Tyrol	6,060	610,000
Principality of Swabia	1,000	200,000
Kingdom of Bohemia	14,400	2,810,000
Marquisate of Moravia	6,400	1,200,000
Austrian Silesia	1,206	250,000
Kingdom of Galicia and Lodomeria	37,000	3,900,000
Kingdom of Hungary	59,500	6,300,000
Transylvania	16,400	1,500,000
The Buckowine	2,900	130,000
Illyria, or Slavonia and Croatia	12,800	900,000
Hungarian and Venetian Dalmatia	4,640	300,000
The Venetian Territory	8,000	2,000,000
Total ..	195,212	23,820,000

The Austrian dominions are situate between 45 and 52 degrees of north latitude, and between 12 and 27 degrees of east longitude. Their length, from the frontiers of Switzerland to the utmost limits of Transylvania, may be estimated at about 700 miles; and their breadth, from the river Bug, which forms a boundary between Austria and Prussian Poland, to the Save, which divides Austria from Turkey, at about 520. The number of inhabitants to the square mile is, as appears from the preceding table of the extent and population of the countries of which they are composed, nearly 110.

The name of Austria has been formed by the Italian and French pronunciation of the German words *Oster Reich*, the *eastern kingdom*, which name this territory received on account of its situation with respect to the western empire established by Charlemagne.

The archduchy of Austria Proper exceeds all the other provinces of Germany in the fertility of its soil (productive especially in corn, fruits, and wine), the abundance of its pastures, and the salubrity of the air. It is divided by the river Enns into Upper and Lower Austria; the capital of the former of which is Vienna, already described: besides which it contains 35 cities and 256 market-towns. The capital of the latter is Lintz, a strong town, defended by two castles, and containing about 15,000 inhabitants: besides which it has 13 other cities and 88 market-towns.

The duchy of Stiria, situate to the south of the archduchy of Austria, with Hungary on the east and Carniola to the south, is about 125 miles long, and 17 broad. Though a mountainous country, it is well cultivated, and produces every kind of grain. The mountains contain

silver, lead, copper, and particularly iron. The Muehr and the Ens are the principal rivers. The iron mines have been worked above 1000 years, yet still continue extremely productive; and the Stirian steel is in great estimation. In the whole duchy there are nearly 120 towns, and 500 citadels, many of the latter built on the summits of rocks. The capital is Gratz, situate on the Muehr; a regularly fortified city, with a strong citadel. It has a university, and contains about 30,000 inhabitants.

The duchy of Carinthia, situate to the south-west of Stiria, is likewise a mountainous and woody country, and contains mines of iron and lead; but there are many fertile valleys which yield wheat and other grain, though not sufficient to supply the wants of the inhabitants. It contains 31 towns; the principal of which is Clagenfurt, on the river Glan, surrounded by a strong wall, and containing six churches, three convents, and 10,000 inhabitants.

The duchy of Carniola, to the south of Stiria, is 120 miles long and 100 broad. It is in general mountainous; but many parts yield not only good pasturage, but excellent corn, hemp, flax, and millet. In the mountains are mines of iron, lead, and copper. The quicksilver mines of Idria, in this duchy, may be considered as a natural curiosity. They were discovered in 1499, and yield annually 300,000 pounds weight of mercury. The descent into them is by stone stairs and ladders, and the length of the galleries is computed at 1580 feet. The principal rivers are the Sare, the Laybach, the Gurk, and the Culpa. Various kinds of fruits, as chesnuts, walnuts, olives, oranges, citrons, lemons, pomegranates, almonds, and figs, abound here; and black cattle and horses are bred in great numbers. This duchy is estimated to contain 56 towns, 200 citadels, and 4000 villages. The capital is Laybach, situate on the river of the same name, and containing a cathedral, and about 20,000 inhabitants.

Austrian Friuli is situate between Carinthia, Carniola, the duchy of Venice, and the territory of Triest. It is divided into the two counties of Gorz, or Goritz, and Gradisca. It is principally mountainous, but has large and fertile valleys, which produce corn, fruits, wine, and silk. The chief town is Gorz, or Goritz, containing a castle, and about 10,000 inhabitants.

The small territory of Triest, situate between Carniola, Friuli, and the Adriatic Sea, produces wine, excellent fruits, and sea salt, procured from the salt-works at Zaula and Servola. The capital, Triest, stands on the Adriatic: it is a free port, with a considerable and increasing trade—from six to eight thousand ships annually arriving there from the different countries of Europe. It is likewise a bishop's see; contains a cathedral and 30,000 inhabitants.

The duchies of Stiria, Carinthia, and Carniola, and the territories of Friuli and Triest, are comprehended under the denomination of Inner Austria, and, together with the county of Tyrol, are included, as a part of Germany, in the circle of Austria.

The county of Tyrol, situate to the east of Carinthia, is 150 miles long and 120 broad. It is extremely mountainous, the chain of the Noric or Rhetian Alps running through its whole length, and rivalling the Alps of Switzerland in numerous glaciers. It contains mines of silver, copper, and lead, and produces corn and wine, very fine flax, and silk. The wild animals are bears, wolves, and foxes; and the domestic, horses, black cattle, and sheep. Great numbers of canary-birds are bred here, and carried, for sale, to almost every part of Europe. The manu-

factures are those of silk, velvet, and leather, as also of iron and steel. The principal town is Inspruck on the Inn; a university, with a considerable library, formerly the residence of the archdukes of Austria, with a strong castle, and containing about 12,000 inhabitants. Tyrol, in the more extensive sense of the denomination, likewise comprehends the bishoprics of Trent and Brixen, formerly subject to their respective bishops, but lately secularised, and given as indemnities to the house of Austria. The former of these cities, rendered celebrated by the great council of Trent, held here from 1545 to 1563, contains about 8000 inhabitants, and the latter about 4000.

The religion of all these provinces is the Roman-catholic, attended indeed with a considerable degree of toleration in the archduchy of Austria, at least at Vienna; but in Stiria no other doctrine or worship is permitted but the Roman-catholic.

The language, in general, is the German, though somewhat impure; but in some parts the Wendish is spoken by the common people; and in the southern provinces, the Italian, at least a dialect of that language, prevails.

The other countries which compose the Austrian monarchy, and lie without Germany, will be treated of separately in order.

REVENUE.] The revenues of the Austrian monarchy are estimated at about 10 millions sterling, of which the archduchy of Austria contributes nearly one-third. The portions of this revenue which Hungary, and the other countries, subject to the house of Austria, contribute, will be found in the accounts of those countries. The revenue formerly exceeded the expenses; but the different wars in which the house of Austria has engaged in modern times, especially the late arduous struggle with France, have accumulated a debt, which is now estimated at above 70 millions sterling.

ARMY.] The army of Austria, on the peace-establishment, in the year 1801, was stated, from official returns, at 328,600 men; and though all these might not be effective troops, it seems scarcely to be doubted that, in case of war, this monarchy, notwithstanding what it may have suffered in the late contest with France, may still be able to bring into the field an army even exceeding that number.

TITLE.] The title of the sovereign of Austria, since the late assumption of the hereditary imperial dignity, is as follows:—Francis II., by the grace of God, elected emperor of the Romans, always august, hereditary emperor of Austria, king of Germany, Hungary, Bohemia, &c., archduke of Austria, duke of Lorraine, Venice, Salzburg, &c.

BOHEMIA AND MORAVIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT OF BOHEMIA.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 210	} between	12. and 16. 30. east long.
Breadth 175		48. 30. and 51. north latitude.

Containing 14,400 square miles, with 195 inhabitants to each.

SITUATION AND EXTENT OF MORAVIA.

Miles.	Degrees.
Length 140	} between } 15. 30. and 18. 30. east longitude. 48. 40. and 50. north latitude.
Breadth 90	

Containing 6400 square miles, with 196 inhabitants to each.

NAMES.] BOHEMIA, or Boheim, or Bojenheim, signifies the home or residence of the Boii, a Celtic nation, who removed into that country from Gaul, before the expedition of Julius Cæsar. The present inhabitants call themselves *Czechy*, or, as the Germans generally write the name, *Tschechs*, from *Czech*, or *Tschech*, the name of one of their ancient chiefs. They are of Slavonic origin.

Moravia derives its name from the river *Morawa*, which runs through it.

BOUNDARIES.] Bohemia is bounded on the north by Misnia and Lusatia, in Upper Saxony; on the east by Silesia and Moravia; on the south by the archduchy of Austria; and on the west by Franconia, and the palatinate of Bavaria.

Moravia is bounded on the north by Silesia; on the east by Hungary; on the south by the archduchy of Austria; and on the west by Bohemia.

DIVISIONS.] Bohemia is divided into the sixteen circles of Bunzlau, Königgratz, Chrudim, Kaurzim, Beraun, Rakonitz, Saas, Leutmeritz, Biczow, Czaslau, Tabor, Budweis, Prachin, Klattau, Pilsen, and Elbogen. The city of Prague is not included in either of these circles, but forms a kind of circle, or district, of itself.

Moravia is divided into the six circles of Olmutz, Brun, Znaim, Iglau, Hradisch, and Prerau; which are the names of their respective chief towns.

MOUNTAINS AND FORESTS.] Bohemia is surrounded with mountains and woods. On the north-west it is divided from Upper Saxony by the *Erzgebirge*, a word signifying mountains containing mines; and to the north-east from Silesia by the Sudetic chain and the giant mountain; on the south-east and south it is separated from Moravia and the archduchy of Austria by the Moravian mountains; and on the west it has for its boundary the *Fichtel* mountains and the Bohemian forest.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] The chief rivers of Bohemia are the *Elbe*, the *Muldau*, and the *Egra*; those of Moravia are the *Morawa*, which gives name to the country, and the *Oder*, which rises in the circle of *Olmutz*, and falls into the *Baltic* at *Stettin*, in *Pomerania*. In Bohemia are a few small lakes, but which have nothing to merit notice.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Bohemia contains rich mines of silver, quicksilver, iron, copper, lead, and especially tin; as also sulphur and saltpetre. Above a hundred towns and places might be named where mine-works have been established. Various species of marble and almost every kind of precious stones are found here; but, in general, deficient in hardness. In Moravia, in the circle of *Brunn*, are iron-mines, and quarries of marble; and in the circle of *Znaim* were formerly gold-mines: at present there are mines of iron, sulphur, saltpetre, and vitriol.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] The climate of Bohemia is warm, pleasant, and wholesome; the soil is in general rich, but in some places sandy. It is very fertile in corn, considerable quantities of which are

exported, as also in pasturage, garden- and orchard-fruits, and excellent hops. Moravia resembles Bohemia in its climate, soil, and produce; but agriculture, according to Mr. Marshall, is somewhat better understood and conducted in the latter country.

ANIMALS.] The wild animals of Bohemia are bears, lynxes, wolves, foxes, martens, badgers, beavers; the tame, black cattle, sheep, and an excellent breed of horses. The woods abound in game and wild fowl. In Moravia is found a species of leopards, of the size of dogs, but thicker, called, by the inhabitants, *rysowe*.

POPULATION, NATIONAL CHARACTER, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS.] The population of Bohemia is estimated by Hœck* at 2,806,493, and that of Moravia at 1,256,240. 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. But the emperor Joseph II. generously discharged the Bohemian peasants, on the imperial demesnes, from the state of villanage in which they have been so long and so unjustly retained; and it will be happy if his example should be followed by the Bohemian nobility, and they be thereby induced no longer to deprive their vassals of the rights of human nature. Although the Bohemians, at present, are not remarkable either for arts or arms, yet they formerly distinguished themselves as the most intrepid assertors 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.

CITIES, CHIEF TOWNS.] The capital of Bohemia is Prague, situate almost in the centre of the kingdom, on both sides of the river Muldau. It is three German, or more than twelve English, miles in circumference; contains a cathedral, ninety-two churches and chapels, about forty convents, and 80,000 inhabitants, of whom about 10,000 are Jews. Here is a noble bridge of eighteen arches over the Muldan, which separates what is called the old-town from the new. 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.

Reichenberg, in the circle of Bunzlau, is the next city to Prague for importance and population, containing about 10,000 inhabitants, and having considerable linen manufactures.

Olmütz, an ancient and strongly fortified city, was formerly the capital of Moravia; but Brunn is now considered as such, being the seat of the administration of the Austrian government. Brunn is likewise a strong city, containing about 16,000 inhabitants, and having manufactures of cloth, velvets, and plush.

MANUFACTURES, COMMERCE.] The manufactures of Bohemia are numerous and flourishing. The linen manufacture it is computed employs above 300,000 persons, the woollen 60,000, and the cotton 30,000. Bohemia is likewise celebrated for beautiful glass and paper. The ma-

* *Aperçu Statistique des Etats d'Allemagne*, par Hœck, conseiller de justice du roi de Prusse. Paris, 1801.

nufactures of Moravia are nearly the same. The exports of these from both countries are very considerable.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The forms, and only the forms, of the old Bohemian constitution still subsist; but the government under the emperor is despotic. The 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, as 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.

The government of Moravia, which since the year 1526 has been subject to the house of Austria, is administered by a council and president appointed by the emperor. The states, however, which are similar in their composition to those of Bohemia, meet annually on a certain day, as a matter of form.

ARMS.] The arms of Bohemia are, argent, a lion gules, the tail moved, and passed in saltier, crowned, langued, and armed, Or. The arms of Moravia are a crowned eagle in a field azure.

REVENUE.] Bohemia contributes to the revenue of Austria about 8,900,000 rix dollars (or nearly 1,400,000 *l.* sterling), and Moravia about 2,660,000 *l.* or 440,000 *l.* sterling.

RELIGION.] The established religion of Bohemia is the Roman-catholic, yet there are many protestants among the inhabitants, who are now tolerated in the free exercise of their religion. The religion of Moravia is in like manner catholicism: but there are many Lutherans; and some of the Moravians have embraced a visionary unintelligible protestantism, if it deserves that name, which they have propagated by their zealous missionaries in several parts of the globe. They have a meeting-house in London, an establishment at Bedford, and are found in various of the American states.

Prague is an archbishopric, and Königgratz a bishopric. In Moravia, Olmutz is a bishopric, under the archbishopric of Prague.

UNIVERSITIES.] The only university in Bohemia is that of Prague, founded in 1347: it once could boast 30,000 students, but now has not more than 200. In Moravia is the university of Olmutz, founded in 1567.

LANGUAGE.] The language of Bohemia is a dialect of the Slavonic; that of Moravia differs very little from it; but German is very commonly spoken in both countries.

HISTORY.] The Boii, from whom, as mentioned above, the country derived its name, were driven out by the Marcomanni. Bohemia became afterwards a province of the Ostrogoths, Lombards, Thuringians, and Franks, till in 534 it was overrun by the Slavi. Charlemagne and some of his successors made these new inhabitants tributary; but they soon regained their independence, though they still preserved a certain connexion with the German empire. The Bohemian nobility however elected their own princes, though the emperors of Germany sometimes imposed a king upon them, and at length usurped that throne themselves. In the year 1438, Albert II. of Austria received three crowns: Hungary, the Empire, and Bohemia.

In 1414, John Huss, and Jerome of Prague, two of the first reformers,

and Bohemians, were burnt at the council of Constance, though the emperor of Germany had given them his protection. This occasioned an insurrection in Bohemia: the people of Prague threw the emperor's officers out of the windows of the council-chamber; and the famous Zisca, assembling an army of 40,000 Bohemians, defeated the emperor's forces in several engagements, and drove the imperialists out of the kingdom. The divisions of the Hussites among themselves enabled the emperor to regain and keep possession of Bohemia, though an attempt was made to throw off the imperial yoke, by electing in the year 1618 a protestant king in the person of the prince palatine, son-in-law to James I. of England. 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. Since the war of thirty years, which desolated the whole empire, the Bohemians have remained subject to the house of Austria.

Moravia was anciently inhabited by the Quadi, who were driven out by the Slavi. From the beginning of the eighth to the end of the ninth century, it was a powerful independent kingdom; in the eleventh it was subdued by the German emperors; and in the twelfth made a margrave; in the fifteenth century it came into the possession of the house of Austria, to which it has ever since remained subject.

GALLICIA AND LODOMERIA.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 320	} between	{ 48 and 52 20. North lat. 18 and 26 East lon.
Breadth 290		

Containing 37,000 square miles, with 105 inhabitants to each.

BOUNDARIES.] GALLICIA is bounded on the north and east by Prussian and Russian Poland; on the south by Hungary, Transylvania, and Silesia; and on the west by Silesia.

DIVISIONS.] This country, which is composed entirely of the provinces of dismembered Poland, is divided into East and West Galicia, the former consisting of the territory assigned to Austria, in the first division of Poland in 1772; and the latter of the part added on the final division and extinction of that kingdom in 1795.

East Galicia is divided into eighteen circles or districts; viz. those of Mislowitz, Ducla, Rzeszow, Sanok, Sambor, Lemberg, Tomaschow, Zamosk, Belz, Brody, Zloczow, Mariampol, Stanislaw, Zaleszik, Lublin, Chelm, Bial, and Siedlitz.

West Galicia is divided into the following twelve circles: Bochnia, Sandez, Przemislaw, Tornow, Cracow, Kielz, Konsk, Oikusch, Radomir, Ingul, Radom, and Lanow.

**FACE OF THE COUNTRY, } Gallicia is in general a level country,
MOUNTAINS, FORESTS. } except towards the south, on which side
it is separated from Hungary by the Carpathian mountains. In some
parts there are wide sandy plains, and extensive forests and morasses.**

RIVERS.] The principal rivers are the Vistula, which rising in the Carpathian mountains traverses the country, and falls into the Baltic sea near Dantzick after a course of about 450 miles; the Bug, which divides Galicia from Russian and Prussian Poland; the Dniester, and the Pruth.

METALS, MINERALS.] This country contains mines of iron, lead, and copper, and quarries of marble. Near Olkusch are mines of silver and lead. The salt-mines of Wieliczka near Cracow are the richest and most productive in Europe, affording a revenue of 100,000 *l.* sterling annually; though it is said their produce has considerably declined since they became subject to Austria. Out of some mines at Itza, about 70 miles north-east of Cracow, are dug several kinds of earth, which are excellently adapted to the potter's use, and supply all the country with earthen-ware.

CLIMATE, SOIL, PRODUCE.] Galicia is that part of the late kingdom of Poland, which is situate in the mildest climate, and of which the soil is most productive. Except a few sandy tracts, it is extremely fertile both in corn and pasturage. It produces, plentifully, grain of every kind, as also hemp, flax, and tobacco, and would be better cultivated, were there sufficient means of disposing of its produce. Honey and wax are obtained here in great abundance. The manna of this and the other parts of Poland is produced by a herb that grows in the meadows and marshy grounds: in the months of June and July the inhabitants gather it by sweeping it into sieves, with the dew. It is esteemed a great delicacy by the Poles, who dress it in a variety of ways. The woods abound in oak, beech, pine, and fir trees.

ANIMALS.] The forests in the northern parts of Galicia, and those of Warsovia or Masovia in Prussian Poland, contain great numbers of uri, or buffaloes, whose flesh the Poles powder, and esteem it an excellent dish. Wolves, boars, the glutton, lynx, elks, and deer, all of them wild, are common in the Polish forests; there are also wild horses and asses, and wild oxen. A kind of wolf, resembling a hart, with spots on his belly and legs, is found here, and affords the best fur in the country. The elk, which is common in the northern parts of this country, 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, like a wild goat's. Naturalists have observed, that, upon dissecting an elk, there are frequently found in his head some large flies, and the brain 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 frequently taken more easily than it would be otherwise.

Poland produces a creature called bohac, which resembles a guinea-pig, but seems to be of the beaver kind. They are noted for digging holes in the ground, which they enter in October, and do not come out, except occasionally for food, till April: they have separate apartments for their provisions, lodgings, and their dead; they live together by ten or twelve in a herd. In the northern parts of this country, and in Lithuania, are found eagles and vultures. The quails, it is said, have green legs, and their flesh is reckoned to be unwholesome. The remiz, or little species of titmouse, is frequently found in these parts: it is re-

markable for the wondrous structure of its pendent nest, formed in the shape of a long purse, with amazing art.

The domestic animals are numerous; black cattle, horses of a good breed, and sheep the wool of which is said to be very fine.

NATURAL CURIOSITIES.] The principal natural curiosity of this country is the salt-mines of Wieliczka, which have been mentioned. They 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 crystal; another softer, but clearer; a third white, but brittle; these are all brackish, but the fourth is somewhat fresher. These four kinds are dug in different mines, near the city of Cracow; on one side of them is a stream of salt-water, and on the other one of fresh. The descent into these mines is by pits of great depth; and the galleries and chambers are of immense size, commonly supported by timber, or by vast pillars of salt, out of which material even subterraneous chapels are formed: but the splendour and extent of these saline apartments have been exaggerated by travellers.

The virtues of a spring in the vicinity of Cracow, which increases and decreases with the moon, are said to be wonderful for the preservation of life; and it is reported that the neighbouring inhabitants commonly live to 100, and some of them to 150 years of age. This spring is inflammable, and, by applying a torch to it, it flames like the subtlest spirit of wine. The flame, however, dances on the surface without heating the water: and if neglected to be extinguished, which it may easily be, it communicates itself, by subterraneous conduits, to the roots of trees in a neighbouring wood, which it consumes; and about seventy years ago the flames are said to have lasted for three years before they could be entirely extinguished.

POPULATION, NATIONAL CHARACTER, } The number of inhabi-
MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS. } tants in Eastern Galicia is
estimated by Hoeck at 2,797,119, and in Western Galicia at 1,106,178,
amounting together to 3,903,297. The population of the whole of Po-
land, before its first dismemberment in 1772, was estimated at
13,404,000.

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. Their mode of salute is to incline their heads, and to strike their breasts with one of their hands, while they stretch the other towards the ground; but when a common person meets a superior, he bows his head near to the earth, and with his head touches the leg near to the heel of the person to whom he pays obeisance. Their diversions are warlike and manly: vaulting, dancing, and riding the great horse, hunting, skating, bull- and bear-baiting. They usually travel on horseback; a Polish gentleman will not travel a stone'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 in 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 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 those 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 equals. 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 must figure to himself an idea of all that is fastidious, 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 grandeé, besides a coach and six, with a great number of servants, attended by an old gentleman-usher, an old gentlewoman for her gouvernante, 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 Poles are divided into nobles, clergy, citizens or burghers, and peasants: the peasants were of two sorts—those of the crown, and those belonging to individuals. Though Poland had its princes, counts, and barons, yet the whole body of the nobility were naturally on a level, except the difference that arose from the public posts they enjoyed. Hence all who were of noble birth called one another *brothers*. They did not value titles of honour, but thought a *gentleman of Poland* the highest appellation they could enjoy. They had many considerable privileges; and, indeed, the boasted Polish liberty was properly limited to them alone, partly by the indulgence of former kings, but more generally from ancient custom and prescription. Under their ancient constitution, before the last partition of the country, they had a power of life and death over their tenants and vassals; paid no taxes; were subject to none but the king; might choose whom they would for their king; and none but they, and the burghers of some particular towns, could purchase lands. In short, they were almost entirely independent, enjoying many other privileges entirely incompatible with a well regulated state; but if they engaged in trade, they forfeited their nobility. These great privileges made the Polish gentry powerful; many of them had large territories, with a despotic power over their tenants, whom they called their subjects, and transferred or assigned over with the lands, cattle, and furniture. Until Casimir the Great, the lord could put his peasant to death with impunity; and, when the latter had no children, considered himself as the heir, and seized all his effects. In 1347, Casimir prescribed a fine for the murder of a peasant; and enacted that, in case of his decease without issue, his next heir should inherit. But these and other regulations proved ineffectual against the power and tyranny of the nobles, and were either abrogated or eluded. Some of them had estates from five to thirty leagues in extent, and were also hereditary sovereigns of cities, with which the king had no concern. - One of their nobles sometimes possessed above 4,000 towns and villages. Some of

them could raise 8 or 10,000 men. The house of a nobleman was a secure asylum for persons who had committed any crime; for none might presume to take them from thence by force. They had their horse and foot guards, which were upon duty day and night before their palaces and in their ante-chambers, and marched before them when they went abroad. They made an extraordinary figure when they came to the diet, some of them having 5,000 guards and attendants; and their debates in the senate were often determined by the sword. When great men had suits at law, the diet or other tribunals decided them; yet the execution of the sentence must be left to the longest sword; for the justice of the kingdom was commonly too weak for the grandees. Sometimes they would raise 6,000 men of a side, plunder and burn one another's cities, and besiege castles and forts; for they thought it below them to submit to the sentence of judges, without a field-battle. As to the peasants, they were born slaves, and had no idea of liberty. If one lord killed the peasant of another, he was not capitally convicted, but only obliged to make reparation by another peasant equal in value.

The peasants were at the absolute disposal of their master, and all their acquisitions served only to enrich him. They were indispensably obliged to cultivate the earth; they were incapable of entering upon any condition of life that might procure them freedom, without the permission of their lords: and they were exposed to the dismal and frequently fatal effects of the caprice, cruelty, and barbarity of their tyrannical masters. In modern times, indeed, a few nobles of enlightened understandings ventured to give liberty to their vassals. The first who granted this freedom was Zemoiski, formerly great chancellor, who in 1700 enfranchised six villages in the palatinate of Masovia, and afterwards on all his estates. The event showed the project to be no less judicious than humane, equally conducive to the interests of the nobles and the happiness of the peasants; for it appeared that, in the districts in which the new arrangements had been introduced, the population of the villages considerably increased, and the revenues of their estates were augmented in a triple proportion. Prince Stanislaus, nephew of the late king of Poland, likewise enfranchised four villages near Warsaw; and not only emancipated his peasants from slavery, but condescended to direct their affairs.

Whether the same liberal policy will be adopted by the governments which have seized and divided Poland, time must show; but in their dominions, especially in Russia, many of the peasants do not appear to be in a much better condition.

The inns in this country are long stables, built with boards, and covered with straw, without furniture or windows; there are chambers at one end; but none can lodge there, because of flies and other vermin; so that strangers generally choose rather to lodge among the horses. Travellers are obliged to carry provision with them; and when foreigners want a supply, they apply to the lord of the village, who forthwith provides them with necessaries.

DRESS.] The dress of the Poles is rather singular. They shave their heads, leaving only a circle of hair upon the crown, and men of all ranks generally wear large whiskers. They wear a vest which reaches down to the middle of the leg, and a kind of gown over it lined with fur, and girded with a sash; but the sleeves fit 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 or bonnet; their shirts are without collar or wristbands, and they wear neither stock nor neckcloth. In-

stead of shoes, they wear Turkey leather boots, with thin soles, and deep iron heels bent like a half moon. They carry a pole-axe, 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 sables, and others the skins of tigers, 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 the English broad-cloth; but discontinued it through his connections with the French.

The habit of the women very much resembles that of the men; a simple Polonaise, or long robe edged with fur; 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 inwards, 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.

CITIES, CHIEF TOWNS.] Lemberg, or Leopold, is the capital of Galicia, and the seat of the Austrian government of East Galicia. It is a large and opulent city, situate on the Peltew, which soon after falls into the Bug. It is the see of a Roman-catholic archbishop, and also of a Greek bishop and an Armenian bishop. It is defended by two castles, has a cathedral, and contains about 40,000 inhabitants. Brody is a commercial town, with a fortified castle, and nearly 20,000 inhabitants, one-third of whom are Jews. Lublin carries on a considerable trade in cloth, corn, and Hungarian wines. Three annual fairs are held here, which are frequented by Russian, Turkish, Greek, and Armenian merchants. Chelm, and Luckow, both bishops' sees, are likewise among the principal towns of East Galicia.

Cracow is the seat of the Austrian government of West Galicia; and was anciently the capital of the kingdom of Poland. The city and suburbs are of great extent, but do not now contain more than 24,000 inhabitants. It is the see of a bishop, and a university. Here is a magnificent cathedral, in which the kings of Poland were crowned, and an ancient and strongly fortified castle, which was the residence of those sovereigns before they removed their court to Warsaw. Sandomir, situate on an eminence near the Vistula, is another considerable town of West Galicia. It is well fortified both by nature and art, and its delightful situation rendered it the favourite residence of Casimir the Great, and other kings of Poland.

Warsaw, the late capital of Poland, will be described in our account of Prussia, to which monarchy it now appertains.

MANUFACTURES, COMMERCE.] The manufactures of Galicia are not very considerable, and are confined to articles of immediate necessity. They are however greatly favoured by the Austrian government, and are increasing and improving. The commerce of this country is principally carried on by the Jews. Salt is the most important article of the exports, which consist besides of corn, tobacco, cattle, wool, skins, tallow, bristles, honey, and wax.

GOVERNMENT.—ANCIENT } Gallicia, as making a part of the Aus-
CONSTITUTION OF POLAND. } trian dominions, is now necessarily un-
 der an absolute monarchical government. The old constitution of

Poland differed little from aristocracy; hence it has been called a kingdom and commonwealth. The king was head of the republic, and was elected by the nobility and clergy in the plains of Warsaw. They elected him on horseback; and in case there should be a refractory minority, the majority had no control over them but to cut them in pieces with their sabres; but if the minority were sufficiently strong, a civil war ensued. Immediately after his election, he signed the *pacta conventa* of the kingdom, by which he engaged that the crown should be elective—that his successor should be appointed during his life—that the diets should be assembled every two years—that every noble or gentleman in the realm should have a vote in the diet of election—and that, in case the king should infringe the laws and privileges of the nation, his subjects should be absolved from their allegiance.—In fact, the king was no more than president of the senate, which was composed of the primate, the archbishop of Lemberg, fifteen bishops, and 130 laymen, consisting of the great officers of state, the palatines, and castellans. The palatines were the governors of the provinces, who held their offices for life.—The offices of the castellans in time of peace were almost nominal; but when the military or feudal services were required, they were the lieutenants of the palatines, and commanded the troops of their several districts.

The diets of Poland were ordinary and extraordinary: the former met once in two, and sometimes three years; the latter was summoned by the king, upon critical emergencies, and continued no longer than a fortnight; but one dissenting voice rendered all their deliberations ineffectual. Previous to a general diet, either ordinary or extraordinary, which could sit but six weeks, there were dietines, or provincial diets, held in different districts. The king, with the advice of the permanent council, sent them letters, containing the heads of the business that was to be treated of in the general diet. The gentry of each palatinate might sit in the dietine, and choose nuncios or deputies to carry their resolutions to the grand diet. The great diet consisted of the king, senators, and deputies from provinces and towns, viz. 178 for Poland and Lithuania, and 70 for Prussia: it met twice at Warsaw, and once at Grodno, by turns, for the convenience of the Lithuanians, who made it one of the articles of their union with Poland; but in the late reign they were always summoned to Warsaw.

REVENUE.] Austria derives from Galicia a revenue of from ten to twelve millions of florins, or about 1,200,000*l.* sterling. The whole revenue of the late kingdom of Poland was estimated at only 440,000*l.* sterling.

POLISH ORDERS OF KNIGHTHOOD.] The "*Order of the White Eagle*" was first instituted by Uladislaus, in the year 1325, but revived by Augustus I. in the year 1705, to attach to him some of the Polish nobles, who, he feared, were inclined to Stanislaus, his competitor: it was conferred also on the czar, Peter the Great, of Russia. Its ensign is a cross of gold enamelled with red, and appendant to a blue ribband: the motto, *Pro fide, rege et lege*. The late king instituted the "*Order of St. Stanislaus*," soon after his election to the crown in 1765. The badge is a gold cross enamelled red, and on the centre of it is a medalion, with the image of St. Stanislaus, enamelled in proper colours. It is worn pendent to a red ribband edged with white. The star of the order is silver, and in the centre is a cypher of S. A. R. (Stanislaus Augustus Rex), encircled with the motto "*Premiando incitat.*"

RELIGION.] The established religion of this country is the Roman-

catholic: but Lutherans, Calvinists and Greeks are tolerated; and the Jews, who are very numerous, enjoy considerable privileges, as they do in the rest of the Austrian states.

The principles of Socinianism made a very early and considerable progress in Poland. A translation of the bible into the Polish language was published in 1572; and two years after, under the direction of the same persons, the catechism, or confession, of the Unitarians was published at Cracow. The abilities and writings of Socinus greatly contributed to the extensive propagation of his opinions; but though the Socinians in Poland have been very numerous, they have at different times been greatly persecuted. At present a more liberal toleration prevails.

Lemberg, as mentioned above, is an archbishopric; the bishoprics are Cracow, Chelm, and Luckow.

In the late kingdom of Poland were two archbishoprics, Gnesna and Lemberg. The archbishop of the former was primate, and always a cardinal. During an interregnum he acted as regent of the kingdom. Gnesna is now in the territory of Prussia.

LITERATURE.] Though Copernicus, the great restorer of the true astronomical system, Vorstius, and some other learned men, were natives of Poland, yet many circumstances in this country are far from being favourable to learning. Latin is spoken, though incorrectly, by the common people in some parts. 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 them, have wonderfully retarded, and, notwithstanding the liberal efforts of his late majesty, still continue to retard, the progress of letters in this kingdom. However, of late, a taste for science has spread itself among the nobles, and begins to be regarded as an accomplishment.

UNIVERSITIES.] The university of Cracow was founded in 1364. It consists of eleven colleges, and had the superintendance of 14 grammar schools dispersed through the city. The number of students in 1778 amounted to 600. Of the other two universities of Poland, Wilna, and Posna or Posen; the former has become subject to Russia, and the latter to Prussia.

LANGUAGE.] The native language of this country is the Polish: the German, however, is understood in many parts of it; and, as above observed, an impure and incorrect Latin is also in use. The Polish language is a dialect of the Slavonic; it is harsh and unharmonious, from the great number of consonants it employs.

The Lord's prayer in Polish is as follows:

Ojcze nasz ktory na niebiesiech iestes; niech sie swieci imie twoie; niech przyjdzie ono krolestwo twoie, niech sie stanie ona wola twoja iako u niebie tak y na ziemi. Chleba naszego onego powszedniego day nam dzisia, y odpusc nam nasze winy, iako y my od puszczaemy winowaycom naszym; y nie u wodz nas u pokussenie; ale wyrwi nas od onego slego: iz twoie iest krolestwo, y moc, y chwala na wieki. Amen.

HISTORY.] As the whole of this country was a part of the late kingdom of Poland, its history will necessarily be included in the history of Poland, a summary of which we shall here give.

Poland, in ancient times, was possessed by the Vandals, who were afterwards partly expelled by the Russ and Tartars. It was divided into many small states or principalities, each almost independent of the other, though they generally had some prince who was paramount over the rest. In the year 700, the people, through the oppression of their petty chiefs,

gave the supreme command, under the title of duke, to Cracus, the founder of the city of Cracow. His posterity failing, in the year 830, a peasant, named Piastus, was elected to the ducal dignity. He lived to the age of 120 years; and his reign was so long and auspicious, that every native Pole who has since been elected king is called a Piast. From this period till the accession of Micislaus II. 964, we have no very certain records of the history of Poland. The title of duke was retained till the year 999, when Boleslaus assumed the title of king, and conquered Moravia, Prussia, and Bohemia, making them tributary to Poland. Boleslaus II. added Red Russia to Poland, by marrying the heiress of that duchy, anno 1050. Jagello, who in 1384 mounted the throne, was grand duke of Lithuania, and a pagan; but on his being elected king of Poland, he not only became a Christian, but used every endeavour 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 became extinct in Sigismund Augustus, in 1572, who admitted the reformed, with Greeks and all other sects, to a seat in the diet, and to all the honours and privileges before confined to the catholics. He gave such evident marks of favour to the protestant confession, that he was suspected of being inclined to change his religion. At this time two powerful competitors appeared for the crown of Poland: these were, Henry duke of Anjou, brother to Charles IX. king of France, and Maximilian of Austria. The French interest prevailed, by private bribes to the nobles, and a stipulation to pay an annual pension to the republic from the revenues of France; but Henry had not been four months on the throne of Poland when his brother died, and he returned privately to France, which kingdom he governed by the name of Henry III. The party who had espoused the interest of Maximilian, 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 the Jagellons. Stephen produced a great change in the military affairs of the Poles, by establishing a new militia, composed of Cossacs, a rough and barbarous race of men, on whom he bestowed the Ukraine, 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 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 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, Braunsberg, and Pillau, together with all they had taken in Livonia. In 1623, 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, through the avarice

of his nobles and generals, 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, naturally a brave people, became desperate; and on the succession of John II. brother to Uladislau, the Cossac general Selmielinski defeated the Poles in two great battles, and forced them to a dishonourable peace. It appears that, during the course of this war, the Polish nobility behaved as the worst of ruffians, and their conduct was highly condemned by John; while his nobility disapproved of the peace he had concluded with them. As the jealousy, hereby occasioned continued, the Russians came to a rupture with the Poles; and being joined by many of the Cossacs, they in 1654 took Smolensko. This was followed by the taking of Wilna, and other places; and they committed most horrid ravages in Lithuania. Next year Charles X. of Sweden, after over-running Great and Little Poland, entered into Polish Prussia, all the towns of which received him, except Dantzic. The resistance made by that city gave the Poles time to re-assemble; and their king, John Casimir, who had fled into Silesia, was joined by the Tartars as well as the 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 yield 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, and the elector of Brandenburg acquired the sovereignty of 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 Siveria; to the Russians.

During these transactions, the Polish nobility grew dissatisfied with the concessions their king had made to the Cossacs, many of whom had thrown off the Polish yoke; others charged 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 in France, employing the remainder of his days in Latin poetical compositions, which are far from being despicable.

The most remote descendants of the ancient 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 Wiesnowiski, because he was descended from a Piast. His reign was disgraceful to Poland. Large bodies of Cossacs had put themselves under the protection of the Turks, who conquered all the provinces 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 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 obliging the Turks to raise 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.

After the death of Sobieski, Poland fell into great distractions. Many confederacies were formed, but all parties seemed inclined to exclude the Sobieski family. In the mean time Poland was insulted by the Tartars, and the crown 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. Suddenly Augustus, elector of Saxony, started up as a candidate; 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 1697. 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 the latter was driven from the throne, by Charles XII. of Sweden (who procured the advancement of Stanislaus), and afterwards restored by the czar, Peter the Great, has been already related in the history of Sweden. 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, having 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 to Dantzic, whence he escaped with great difficulty into France. In the history of Germany, the war between Augustus II. as elector of Saxony, or rather as the ally of Russia and Austria, and Frederic II. king of Prussia, has been already noticed. It is sufficient to say, that though Augustus was a mild and 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 the king of Prussia drove him from his capital and electorate. Augustus died at Dresden in 1763, upon which count Stanislaus Poniatowski was chosen king, by the name of Stanislaus Augustus; though it is said that the election was conducted irregularly, and that he obtained the crown chiefly through

the influence of the empress of Russia. He was a man of abilities and address; but, from various concurring causes, he had the unhappiness to see Poland, during his reign, a scene of desolation and calamity. In 1766 a petition was presented to the king, in the name of all the protestant nobility, and in behalf also of the members of the Greek church, conjointly called the dissidents, in which they demanded to be re-instated in their ancient rights and privileges, and to be placed upon the same footing in every respect as the Roman-catholic subjects of the kingdom. The king gave no answer to the petition of the dissidents; but the matter was referred to the diet, which was held the following year, when the ministers of the courts of Russia, London, Berlin, and Copenhagen, supported their pretensions. The diet appeared to receive the complaints of the dissidents with great moderation, as to the free exercise of their worship; which gave some flattering expectations that the affair would be happily terminated. But the intrigues of the king of Prussia appear to have prevented this: for, though he openly professed to be a zealous defender of the cause of the dissidents, it was manifest, from the event, that his great aim was to promote the views of his own ambition. The intervention of the Russians in the affairs of Poland also gave great disgust to all parties in the kingdom. The whole nation ran into confederacies formed in distinct provinces; the popish clergy were active in opposing the cause of the dissidents; and this unfortunate country became the theatre of the most cruel and complicated of all wars, partly civil, partly religious, and partly foreign. The confusion, devastation, and civil war, continued in Poland during the years 1769, 1770, and 1771, whereby the whole face of the country was almost destroyed; many of the principal popish families retired into foreign states with their effects; and had it not been for a body of Russian troops, which acted as guards to the king at Warsaw, that city had likewise exhibited a scene of plunder and massacre. To those complicated evils were added, in the year 1770, that most dreadful scourge the pestilence, which spread from the frontiers of Turkey to the adjoining provinces of Podolia, Volhynia, and the Ukraine; and in these provinces, it is said, swept off 250,000 people. Meanwhile some of the Polish confederates interceded with the Turks to assist them against their powerful oppressors; and a war ensued between the Russians and the Turks on account of Poland. The conduct of the grand seignior, and of the Ottoman Porte, towards the distressed Poles, was just and honourable, and the very reverse of that of their Christian, catholic, and apostolic neighbours*.

* In 1764, the empress of Russia transmitted to the court of Warsaw an act of renunciation, signed with her own hand, and sealed with the seal of the empire; in which she declares, "That she did by no means arrogate either to herself, her heirs and successors, or to her empire, any right or claim to the districts or territories which are actually in possession, or subject to the authority, of the kingdom of Poland, or great duchy of Lithuania; but that, on the contrary, her said majesty would guaranty to the said kingdom of Poland and duchy of Lithuania all the immunities, lands, territories, and districts, which the said kingdom and duchy ought by right to possess, or did now actually possess; and would at all times, and for ever, maintain them in the full and free enjoyment thereof, against the attempts of all and every one who should, at any time, or on any pretext, endeavour to dispossess them of the same."—In the same year did the king of Prussia sign, with his own hand, an act, wherein he declared, "That he had no claims, formed no pretensions on Poland, or any part thereof: that he renounced all claims on that kingdom, either as king of Prussia, elector of Brandenburg, or duke of Pomerania." In the same instrument he guaranties, in the most solemn manner, the territories and rights of Poland against every power whatever.—The empress-queen of Hungary, so late as the month of

In the year 1772, it appeared that the king of Prussia, the emperor and empress-queen, and empress of Russia, had entered into an alliance to divide and dismember the kingdom of Poland; though Prussia was formerly in a state of vassalage to Poland, and the title of king of Prussia was never acknowledged by the Poles till 1764. Russia also, in the beginning of the 17th century, saw its capital and throne possessed by the Poles; while Austria, in 1683, was indebted to a king of Poland for the preservation of its metropolis, and almost for its very existence. These three allied powers, acting in concert, set up their formal pretensions to the respective districts which they had allotted for and guaranteed to each other;—Polish or Western Prussia, and some districts bordering upon Brandenburg, for the king of Prussia; almost all the south-east parts of the kingdom bordering upon Hungary, together with the rich salt-works of the crown, for the empress-queen of Hungary and Bohemia; and a large district of country about Mohilow, upon the banks of the Dnieper, for the empress of Russia. But though each of these powers pretended to have a legal title to the territories which were allotted them respectively, and published manifestoes in justification of the measures which they had taken, yet as they were conscious that the fallacies by which they supported their pretensions were too gross to impose upon mankind, they forced the Poles to call a new diet, and threatened them, that if they did not consent unanimously to sign a treaty for the ceding of those provinces to them respectively, the whole kingdom should be laid under a military execution, and treated as a conquered state. In this extremity of distress, several of the Polish nobility protested against this violent act of tyranny, and retired into foreign states, choosing rather to live in exile, and to have all their landed property confiscated, than to be instruments of bringing their country to utter ruin: but the king, under the threatening of deposition and imprisonment, was prevailed upon to sign this act, and his example was followed by many of his subjects.

The conduct of the king of Prussia in Poland was the most tyrannical that can be conceived. In the year 1771, his troops entered into Great Poland, and carried off from that province and its neighbourhood, at a moderate computation, 12,000 families. On the 29th of October, in the same year, he published an edict, commanding every person, under the severest penalties, and even corporeal punishment, to take in payment, for forage, provisions, corn, horses, &c. the money offered by his troops and commissaries. This money was either silver, bearing the impression of Poland, and exactly worth one-third of its nominal value, or ducats struck in imitation of Dutch ducats, seventeen per cent. inferior to the real ducats of Holland. With this base money he bought up corn and forage enough, not only to supply his army for two whole years, but to stock magazines in the country itself, where the inhabitants were forced to come and re-purchase corn for their daily subsistence, at an advanced price, and with good money, his commissaries refusing to take the same coin they had paid. At the lowest calculation, he gained,

January 1771, wrote a letter with her own hand to the king of Poland, in which she gave him the strongest assurances, "That her friendship for him and the republic was firm and unalterable; that the motions of her troops ought not to alarm him; that she had never entertained a thought of seizing any part of his dominions, nor would even suffer any other power to do it." From which, according to the political creed of princes, we may infer, that to guaranty the rights, liberties, and revenues of a state, means to annihilate those liberties, seize upon those rights, and appropriate those revenues to their own use.—Such is the faith of princes!

by this *honest* manœuvre, seven millions of dollars. Having stripped the country of money and provisions, his next attempt was to thin it still more of its inhabitants. To people his own dominions at the expense of Poland had been his great aim: for this purpose, he devised a new contribution; every town and village was obliged to furnish a certain number of marriageable girls; the parents to give, as a portion, a feather-bed, four pillows, a cow, two hogs, and three ducats in gold. Some were bound hand and foot, and carried off as criminals. His exactions from the abbey, convents, cathedrals, and nobles, were so heavy, and exceeded at last their abilities so much, that the priests abandoned their churches, and the nobles their lands. These exactions continued with unabated rigour, from the year 1771 to the time the treaty of partition was declared, and possession taken of the provinces usurped. From these proceedings, it would appear that his Prussian majesty knew of no rights but his own; no pretensions but those of the house of Brandenburg; no other rule of justice but his own pride and ambition.

In the year 1788, the Poles made some endeavours to assert their independence. The diet met, and the king proposed a confederation, which was agreed to, and the army ordered to be reinforced to 100,000 men. As the evils of an elective monarchy had been the chief cause that Poland had almost ceased to be considered as a nation, a new constitution was framed, and approved by the diet and the king, on the 3d of May 1791. By this constitution the line of the future kings of Poland was to commence in Frederic-Augustus, elector of Saxony; and, in case he should have no male issue, a husband chosen by him for his daughter was to commence the dynasty. But this constitution was opposed by the partitioning powers; and, after a short and unequal struggle with Russia, this unhappy country was forced to abandon it. The manifesto of the Russian empress, replete with sentiments disgraceful to humanity, was followed by some skirmishes; but it is said that a letter, written with her own hand to the Polish king, in which she declared her resolution to double or triple her troops, rather than abandon her pretensions, induced that benignant monarch to prevent the further effusion of blood.

On the 6th of January 1793, the king of Prussia issued a declaration respecting the march of his troops into Poland, and soon after the Prussian army advanced, and one of its detachments appeared under the walls of Thorn. The inhabitants refusing entrance to the troops, the gates were forced, the municipal guard dislodged from their post, and the Prussian regiments entered the defenceless city, as if it had been a place taken by assault. At the same time different Polish detachments, dispersed throughout Great Poland, were attacked and driven from their posts by superior force.

On the 2d of April the Prussian troops took possession of Dantzic; and, about the same time, the empress of Russia commanded the king of Poland to remove to Grodno, under the escort of Russian troops, for the express purpose of sanctioning the alienation and partition of his kingdom.

The means employed to effect the mock ratification of the partition of this unfortunate country were entirely characteristic of the baseness of the cause. The diet, in the month of September, was assailed for three successive days with official notes from the Russian ambassador and the Prussian minister, full of threats, pressing the signature of the treaty. The states, however, persisted in their refusal. At last M. de

Sievers, the Russian ambassador, sent his ultimatum in a note, which ended with the following remarkable expressions:—"The underwritten must besides inform the states of the republic assembled in the confederate diet, that he thought it of absolute necessity, in order to prevent every disorder, to order *two battalions of grenadiers*, with four pieces of cannon, to surround the castle, to secure the tranquillity of their deliberations. The underwritten expects that the sitting will not terminate until the demanded signature of the treaty is decided." Conformably to this threat, the Russian soldiers so closely surrounded the castle; that no person was suffered to go out: some of the officers took their station in the senate, pretending to guard his majesty's person against conspirators. The king, however, sent a delegation to the Russian ambassador, declaring that he would not open the session in the presence of the Russian officers. In consequence, they were ordered to retire, except the general, who declared publicly, that no member should be permitted to quit the senate before consent to the treaty was given. The debates were long and violent; and it was not until three o'clock the next morning, after three successive divisions, that the diet came to a resolution, in which they declare, before all Europe, to whom they had frequently appealed, that, "Contrary to the faith of treaties most sacredly observed on their part, as well as to that of the treaty recently entered into with his majesty the king of Prussia, and at his own desire, in the year 1790, whereby the independence and the integrity of Poland were guaranteed in the most solemn manner; that, being deprived of free-will, surrounded at the moment of the present act by an armed foreign force, and threatened with a further invasion of the Prussian troops, they are forced to commission and authorise a deputation appointed to treat with the said king, to sign the treaty, such as it was planned and amended under the mediation of the Russian ambassador."

On the 7th of February 1794, the baron d'Ingelstrolm, who had succeeded the count de Sievers as ambassador at Warsaw, demanded a public annulling of the acts of the diets of 1788 and 1791, together with the form of the constitution then established, and the surrender of every paper, whether in public records or private cabinets, respecting that transaction. The court of Russia soon afterwards issued its mandate for the reduction of the military force to 16,000 men. This was opposed by several regiments, particularly in South Prussia, where the insurgents, headed by the gallant Madalinski, a Polish nobleman, and brigadier of the national troops, peremptorily refused to disband. The spirit of resistance was widely diffused, and the capital assumed a military aspect. In this situation fifteen thousand Russian troops were sent into Poland, the ambassador was instructed to deliver to the permanent council an official document representing the danger that threatened the king, and requesting the commissioners of war to dispatch an army to oppose Madalinski; and the permanent council was desired to take into custody every suspected person. Both these requisitions were, however, refused; and it was pointedly replied to the latter, that, according to the laws of the republic, no Polish nobleman could be arrested, without being legally convicted.

The imperious conduct of the Russians drove the oppressed Poles to desperation. The peasants were compelled to lodge and board the Russian soldiers, and transport them from place to place, without receiving the least remuneration, or any other reward than brutality and insolence. It could not be expected that a gallant and high-spirited people would long tamely submit to such insult and injury. Their patriotic

spirit, though latent, was not extinguished. It was roused into action by incessant sufferings, and by continued efforts of the intrepid Kosciusko, who early in February appeared at the head of a considerable body of Polish insurgents, attacked the Prussians who had taken possession of their country, forced them to retreat, and pursued them to a considerable distance. The Russian troops having evacuated Cracow on the 23d of March, Kosciusko entered that town on the night of the 24th, and next morning ordered the gates to be shut, and declared himself commander in chief of all the Polish forces. He then imposed an oath of fidelity on all the military in the city, took possession of the public treasure, and proceeded to measures of military sequestration. On the day on which he entered Cracow, he issued a proclamation, couched in the most energetic terms, inviting the nation to shake off their disgraceful fetters, and to unite in forming a new confederation. The proclamation was received with unanimous applause; and "Long live Kosciusko!" resounded from every quarter. He was conducted to the town-house, and presented to the principal nobility, who had assembled there to receive him; and by them he was formally invested with the title of general. Every article for the support of his army was abundantly supplied. On the 26th, the different corporations assembled under their respective banners before the town-house, whence the magistrates led them in procession to the church of the Holy Virgin, where the constitution of the 3d of May 1791 was publicly read with great solemnity, and an oath taken to defend it.

The Polish nobles had no sooner taken the oaths in the presence of Kosciusko, than they departed for their respective estates, in order to arm and assemble their vassals. Baron d'Ingelstrohm, about the same time, surrounded the diet at Warsaw with a military force, and demanded the surrender of the arsenal. This demand was spiritedly resisted; and notice of it having been sent to Kosciusko, he, about the end of March, took the route to Warsaw with his army, and a reinforcement of 4000 peasants, armed with pikes, &c.—On the 4th of April he was met by a detachment of 6000 Russians, with a park of heavy artillery, on their march to reduce Cracow. A fierce encounter ensued. The Polish peasants being driven to desperation, made a dreadful slaughter of the Russian plunderers. General Woronzow was taken prisoner, and above 1000 Russians killed on the spot; while the Poles lost only sixty men, and took eleven pieces of cannon and all the ammunition. After the battle, Kosciusko fell back with his army towards Cracow, where he was joined by a very considerable body of disaffected Polish troops.

On the 15th of April, baron d'Ingelstrohm demanded the surrender of the arsenal, the disarming of the military, and that twenty persons of the first consequence should be arrested, and, if found guilty, punished with death. This occasioned a general commotion, in which the citizens, having procured arms from the arsenal, after an incessant combat of thirty-six hours, drove the Russians out of the city with great slaughter. A deputation had been sent to inform the king of the attempt of the Russians to seize the arsenal; when the monarch replied, "Go, and defend your honour." The situation of the king after the contest became very critical, and the people were extremely jealous of every movement he made. They compelled him to promise repeatedly that he would not quit Warsaw; and, not satisfied with his assurances, insisted upon placing two municipal officers as a guard upon him; and he was desired frequently to exhibit himself to the people.

Forty thousand Russians were now put in motion towards Poland from the Ukraine, and 16,000 from Livonia. About the end of May, the corps of Kosciusko amounted to nearly 23,000 men; that of general Kochowski to 18,000; that of Jaffinski to 6000; a corps of 12,000 was stationed at Wilna, and another at Warsaw which consisted of 8000. The peasants were not included in this calculation.

About the end of June a manifesto was published by the emperor, on the occasion of his troops entering Poland. On the 12th of July, the head-quarters of the king and prince of Prussia were only three or four leagues from Warsaw, whence they issued a placard, stating that the enemy had fled before them in their progress. In the mean time, however, Kosciusko (who had eluded the Prussian troops), by a brave attack, had defeated the forces which opposed him, and had thrown himself into Warsaw. On the 31st of June, the Prussians began to attack the city by a heavy cannonade, and several hundred bombs were in the course of the day thrown into Warsaw; a dreadful fire was kept up on the besiegers by night and by day, and an incredible number of lives were lost. The king and the prince-royal are both said to have been in imminent danger at this time. On the 2d of August, his Prussian majesty, whose hopes of success had probably been a little damped, attempted to open a negotiation with the king of Poland for the surrender of the capital, which was rejected. About the middle of this month, accounts were transmitted to the Prussian camp of insurrections having arisen in South Prussia (formerly Great Poland), of which his Prussian majesty had taken possession the preceding year; and on the night of the 5th of September, the Prussian and Russian forces abandoned the siege of Warsaw, after a fruitless attack of two months, much weakened by the diseases and desertions which prevailed in their camps, and disabled from the want of provisions and ammunition.

In the course of the same month, the Russian grand army, consisting of 20,000 men, arrived in Poland, and on the 18th a severe engagement took place near Brzesc, in which the Poles lost very considerable numbers, and were compelled to retreat across the Bog. On the 10th of October another battle was fought between the Russians, under general Ferfen, and the troops under Kosciusko. The Russians advanced twice to the attack, but were repulsed by the Poles, who, however, unfortunately, not contented with the advantages they had gained, abandoned their favourable position on the heights, and pressed on to the attack in their turn. This movement threw the troops into some confusion; and the Russians forming themselves anew, the rout soon became general. The battle, which began at seven in the morning, did not end till noon. Kosciusko flew from rank to rank, and was continually in the hottest part of the engagement. At length he fell, and a Cossack, who did not know him in the peasant's dress which he constantly wore, wounded him from behind with a lance. He recovered, and advanced a few steps, but was again knocked down by another Cossack, who was preparing to give him a mortal blow, when his arm was stopped by a Russian officer, who is said to have been general Chmozazow, to whose wife Kosciusko had a short time before politely given leave of departure from Warsaw to join her husband. The unfortunate Kosciusko implored the officer, if he wished to render him a service, to allow the soldier to put an end to his existence; but the latter chose rather to make him a prisoner. The Polish infantry defended themselves with a bravery proportioned to that of their general, and fought with a degree of valour almost approaching to fury.

The Russians under general Ferfen soon afterwards summoned Warsaw to surrender; and, on being refused, after the junction of the different corps under Ferfen, Dornfeldt, Dornfow, and Suwarrow, proceeded on the 4th of November to attack the suburb of Praga, or Prague, separated from Warsaw by the Vistula, which was defended by more than an hundred pieces of cannon disposed upon thirty-three batteries. The Russians succeeded in their assault, and the Polish generals found themselves unable to oppose, with 10,000 soldiers, which was the whole of their force, the united attack of 50,000 men. After a severe conflict of eight hours, the resistance on the part of the Poles ceased; but the massacre of the sanguinary Suwarrow continued for two hours longer; and the pillage lasted till noon on the following day. Five thousand Poles were computed to have been slain in the assault; the remainder were either imprisoned or dispersed. The citizens were compelled to lay down their arms; and their houses were plundered by the merciless Russians, who, after the battle had ceased nearly ten hours, about nine o'clock at night set fire to the town, and again began to massacre the inhabitants. Nine thousand persons, unarmed men, defenceless women, and harmless infants, perished either in the flames or by the sword, and nearly the whole of the suburb was reduced to ashes. In the whole of this siege it is computed that not less than 30,000 Poles lost their lives.

The city being thus reduced under the power of the Russians, the king was for a short time restored to a kind of mock authority, by the supreme council remitting into his hands that which it had exercised. On the 9th of November, the Russian general made his triumphal entry into Warsaw, in which the streets were lined with his troops, and the inhabitants, shut up in their houses, observed a melancholy silence. The chief magistrate delivered him the keys of the bridge of the suburb, after which he received the compliments of the king; and, on the 10th, went with much pomp to the castle, to pay his respects to his majesty. To complete the whole of this execrable scene, the first of December was set apart for a day of solemn thanksgiving, and *Te Deum* was sung for the triumph of barbarous oppression.

In the mean time Kosciusko was under surgical care at Nozcylack, where the utmost attention was paid to his recovery. He was afterwards sent to Petersburg, under a very powerful military escort, and was confined in the fortress there, till the death of Catharine II., when the late emperor, who on several occasions showed great liberality towards the persecuted Poles, set him at liberty, assigned him a pension, and allowed him his choice, either to return to his own country, or go to America. Kosciusko preferred the latter, and arrived safely in the asylum which he had chosen. On his way thither he passed through England, and was received with the warmest welcome and congratulation by all the friends of freedom. He has since left America, and is at present in France.

On the 20th of December 1794, a courier arrived from the empress, demanding the arrestation of count Ignatius Potocki, and several of the other patriots, whom she ordered to be sent to Petersburg. The same messenger brought a command from the empress to the unhappy monarch of Poland to repair to Grodno, who, in obedience to the summons, set off from his capital on the 7th of January 1795.

The unfortunate king was afterwards removed to Petersburg, where he had a palace and a suitable pension assigned him, and where he died February 11, 1798. With him ended the kingdom of Poland.

HUNGARY.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.
Length 320 } between	{ 16° and 35° East longitude.
Breadth 210 }	{ 46° and 49° 50' North latitude.

Containing 59,500 square miles, with 105 inhabitants to each.

NAME.] THE name of Hungary has been usually derived from the Huns, who anciently possessed this country; but Mr. Gibbon finds its origin in that of the Ugri, or Ugurs, a Tartarian tribe who migrated from the confines of China, and, after over-running almost the whole of Germany, established themselves in this country in the tenth century.

BOUNDARIES.] Hungary Proper (for it formerly included Transylvania, Sclavonia, Croatia, Morlachia, Servia, Walachia, and other countries) is bounded on the north by Galicia; on the east by the Buckowine and Transylvania; on the south by Slavonia; and on the west by the circle of Austria and Moravia.

DIVISIONS.] Hungary is divided into Upper and Lower Hungary, situate on opposite sides of the Danube. These are again each divided into two circles, which are sub-divided into *gespannschafts*, or counties, in number 52. Presburg is the metropolis of Lower, and Caschau of Upper Hungary.

The province of Temeswar has been considered as distinct from Hungary, because it was formerly governed by an independent king; and it has several times been in possession of the Turks; but the Austrians gaining possession of it, it was incorporated into the kingdom of Hungary in 1778. The province of Temeswar is ninety-four miles long, and sixty-seven broad, containing about 3850 square miles. It has been divided into four districts, Csanad, Temeswar, Werschez, and Lugos. Temeswar, the principal town, is situate in E. lon. 22° 15', N. lat. 45° 54'.

MOUNTAINS.] The Carpathian mountains, which divide Hungary from Poland on the north, are the principal; 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, the Drave, the Sau, or Save, the Theisse, the Raab, and the Waag.

LAKES, AND MINERAL WATERS.] Hungary contains several lakes, particularly the Platten, or the Platten Sea, about forty-six miles long and eight broad, 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.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Hungary contains mines of gold, silver, copper, very rich antimony, coal, salt, and alum. The gold mines are at Cremnitz, about 40 miles to the south of the Carpathian mountains; and the silver at Schemnitz, about 20 miles further to the south. Several kinds of precious stones are found in Hungary, particularly that beautiful gem the opal, which has hitherto been discovered in no other country in the world.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] The climate of the southern parts of Hungary is found to be unhealthful, owing to its numerous lakes, stagnated waters, and marshes; but the northern part being mountainous and barren, the air is pure and wholesome. No country in the world can boast a richer soil than that plain which extends 300 miles, from Presburg to Belgrade, and produces corn, grass, tobacco, saffron, asparagus, melons, hops, pulse, millet, buck-wheat, delicious grapes, and fruits of various kinds.

VEGETABLES.] Besides those already enumerated, the vines of Hungary deserve particular attention for the excellent wine afforded by their grapes, particularly the celebrated Tokay, which has received its name from a town in the north of Hungary, in the vicinity of which it is made in the greatest perfection.

ANIMALS.] Hungary is remarkable for a fine breed of horses, generally mouse-coloured, and highly esteemed by military officers, so that great numbers of them are exported. There is a remarkable breed of large rams in the neighbourhood of Presburg. The other animals of Hungary are, in general, the same with those of Germany and the neighbouring countries.

NATURAL CURIOSITIES.] Near Szadello, about 30 miles from Caschau, is an extraordinary cavern, of such prodigious extent that it is reported by the natives to reach several miles under the hills, and has never been completely explored. It includes within it different caves and passages, which contain numerous stalactites of various sizes. "It is such a labyrinth," says Dr. Townson, a late intelligent traveller in Hungary, "that I firmly believe that a man, once lost in it, though he have lights and food enough to last him a month, would not be able to find his way out." And Mr. Korabinsky, a German writer, says that it is of such astonishing dimensions in length, that two members of the Royal Society of London, who were sent some years ago into Hungary, by the society, to examine this and other curiosities, after remaining in it three days, could never get to the end of it, nor find an opening.

Near Szilitze is another celebrated cavern, about 100 feet broad, 150 deep or long, and 20 or 30 high. From the roof, at the further end, hangs an immense icicle, or rather a congeries of icicles; and in one corner is a great mass of ice. This ice, it is said, thaws in the winter, when the ground without is covered with snow, and freezes again amid the heats of summer. But this is no doubt an exaggeration, in consequence of the observers depending too much on their feelings; the cave, probably, always preserving the same temperature, which has been found to be that of the freezing point.

Near Demanovo, about 16 miles from Rosenburg, is a cavern full of bones, of animals no doubt which have made it their haunt; but among which the credulous pretend the complete skeleton of a dragon has been found, which is preserved in the museum of the elector of Saxony, at Dresden.

POPULATION.] Before the Turks obtained possession of Constantinople, Hungary was one of the most populous and flourishing kingdoms in Europe; and if the house of Austria should give the proper encouragement to the inhabitants to repair their works, and clear their fens, it might become so again. The population of Hungary, exclusive of Transylvania, Slavonia, and Dalmatia, was estimated, in 1776, by the celebrated Besching, to be 3,170,000; and Mr. Windish, an Hungarian, in his Geography of Hungary, published in 1780, says, "the population, according to a new accurate examination, is 3,170,000, excluding Tran-

sylvania, Slavonia, and Dalmatia." But the committee appointed by the diet of 1791, to inquire into things of this nature, "some of whose notes," says Dr. Townson, "I have had in my hands, estimate the population of Hungary in its greatest extent, but always excluding Transylvania, at about 8,000,000, which, they add, is 1777 souls per square mile. In No. 61 of Mr. Slotzer's *Staats Anzeigen*, there is a detailed account, which makes the total population 7,417,415." Hoeck states the population of Hungary and Illyria at 7,350,000; whence the number of inhabitants for Hungary alone may, perhaps, be justly taken at about 6,300,000.

NATIONAL CHARACTER, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS. } The Hungarians are a brave, generous, and hardy race of men; their manners are peculiar to themselves; and they pique themselves on being descended from those heroes who formed the bulwark of Christendom against the infidels. In their persons they are well made. Their fur caps; their close-bodied coats, girded by a sash, and their cloak or mantle, which is so contrived as to buckle under the arm, so that the right hand may be always at liberty; give them an air of military dignity. The men shave their beards, but preserve their whiskers on their upper lips. Their usual arms are the broad-sword, and a kind of pole-axe, besides their fire-arms. The ladies are reckoned handsomer than those of Austria; and their sable dress, with sleeves strait to their arms, and their stays fastened before with little gold, pearl, or diamond 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. The hogs, which yield the chief animal food for the peasants, and the poultry, live in the same apartment with their owners. The gout and fever, owing to the unwholesomeness of the air, are the predominant diseases in Hungary. The natives in general are indolent, and leave trade and manufactures to the Greeks and other strangers settled in their country, the flatness of which renders travelling commodious, either by land or water. The diversions of the inhabitants are of the warlike and athletic kind. They are in general a brave and magnanimous people. Their ancestors, even since the beginning of the present century, were so jealous of their liberties, that, rather than be tyrannised over by the house of Austria, they often put themselves under the protection of the Ottoman court; but their fidelity to the late empress-queen, notwithstanding the provocations they received from her house, will be always remembered to their honour.

The inhabitants of Temeswar are computed at 450,000. There are in this country many faraons, zigeuners, or gypsies, supposed to be real descendants of the ancient Egyptians. They are said to resemble the ancient Egyptians in their features, in their propensity to melancholy, and in many of their manners and customs; and it has been asserted that the lascivious dances of Isis, the religious veneration of onions, many famous Egyptian superstitions and specifics, and the Egyptian method of hatching eggs by means of dung, are still in use among the female gypsies in Temeswar.

CITIES, CHIEF TOWNS, AND EDIFICES. } Buda, by the Germans called Offen, the metropolis of Hungary, has neither fortifications nor gates: it is three or four miles long, but very narrow. The cities of Buda and Pest may be considered as one, for they are only separated by the Danube; over which there is a bridge of boats half a mile in length. Buda contains 22,000 inhabitants, and Pest 16,000.

The finest public and private buildings are in Pest, and within the fortress. The royal palace is a vast and stately pile of building; and the Hospital for Invalids, now used as barracks, is fine and spacious. At Buda, the Hungarian regalia, formerly deposited at Pest, are now kept. The crown, in the year 1784, was removed to Vienna by order of the emperor Joseph II. But this measure gave so great offence, and excited such violent discontents, that it was sent back to Buda in 1790, where it was received with the most extravagant testimonies of joy, the whole city and suburbs being illuminated. This crown was sent, in the year 1000, by pope Sylvester II., to Stephen king of Hungary, and was made after that of the Greek emperors: it is of solid gold, weighing nine marks and three ounces, ornamented with fifty-three sapphires, fifty rubies, one large emerald, and three hundred and thirty-eight pearls. Besides these stones, are the images of the apostles and patriarchs. The pope added to this crown a silver patriarchal cross, which was afterwards inserted in the arms of Hungary. At the ceremony of the coronation a bishop carries it before the king. From the cross is derived the title of apostolic king; the use of which was renewed under the reign of the empress-queen Maria-Theresa. The sceptre and the globe of the kingdom are of Arabian gold; the mantle, which is of fine linen, is said to be the work of Gisele, spouse of St. Stephen, who, they say, embroidered in gold the image of Jesus Christ crucified, and many other images of the patriarchs and apostles, with a number of inscriptions. The sword is two-edged, and rounded at the point. Presburg, the capital of Lower Hungary, has a claim to be considered as the metropolis of the kingdom; for Buda has been so often, and for so long a time in the power of the Turks, that this city has generally been the seat of government, and the place where the diets have been held, and the coronation ceremonies performed. It is well built, and stands in a fine situation on the banks of the Danube, which is here 350 yards broad. It contains about 28,000 inhabitants, of whom one-fourth are Lutherans, and great numbers Jews. Caschau, the capital of Upper Hungary, contains about 6000 inhabitants. The principal church here is a fine building, in the Gothic taste, and in good preservation. Tyrnau is a handsome town, containing about 7000 inhabitants, and so many churches and convents that it has been called the Little Rome. It was also the seat of a university; but that has been removed to Pest. Raab, Gran, and Comorn, are fortified towns of considerable strength. The small town of Kitzee, about two or three miles from Presburg, claims the first fabrication of coaches; which, it is asserted, derive their name, in the different languages of Europe, from the name of that place. Tokay has been already mentioned for the excellency of its wines.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.] The manufactures of Hungary are few and of little importance: there are some, however, of leather, linen cloth, and different kinds of hard-ware. The exports consist of horses, cattle, swine, (to the amount of several hundred thousand pounds annually), corn, wine, tobacco, the productions of the mines, linen, raw and manufactured skins, tallow, saffron, honey, wax, and oil. In the year 1787, the exports amounted to 17,800,000 florins (about 1,800,000*l.* sterling), and the imports to 13,800,000 florins (1,400,000*l.*), leaving a balance to the country of 4,000,000 of florins, or 400,000*l.* sterling.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The Hungarians have preserved the remains of many checks upon the regal power. They have a diet or parliament: which assembly consists of two tables or houses; the first

composed of magnates, or the great officers of the crown, princes, counts, barons, archbishops; and the second, of the abbots, prelates, and deputies from the chapters and each of the two-and-fifty *gespanschafts*, or counties, into which the kingdom is divided. These houses, however, form but one body, as their votes are taken together. The diet, besides being convened on all great national events, should meet at stated times. Under Matthias Corvinus, and Ferdinand I. it was decreed, they should be annual; and under Leopold I., that they should be triennial; which was confirmed by Charles VI., and is still considered as the constitutional period. But sovereigns and their ministers often wish to get rid of these incumbrances; and from 1764 to 1790, no diet was held; though many important affairs had happened within that period. It ought not to sit more than two months. There is likewise a Hungary-office, which resembles our chancery, and which resides at Vienna; as the palatine's council, which nearly resembles the British privy-council, but has a municipal jurisdiction, does at Presburg. Every royal town has its senate; and the *gespanschafts* have magistrates, who act as our justices of the peace. Besides these, there is an exchequer, nine chambers, and other subordinate courts.

REVENUE.] The revenue which the emperor derives from Hungary amounts to about two millions sterling.

ARMY.] The emperor can bring into the field, at any time, seventy or eighty thousand Hungarians in their own country, but seldom draws out of it above ten thousand: these are generally light-horse, and well known in modern times by the name of Hussars. They are not near so large as the German horse; and therefore the hussars stand up on their short stirrups when they strike. Their expedition and alertness have 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. The sovereign may summon the Hungarian nobility to take the field and defend their country. This service is called an *insurrectio*, and from it the high clergy are not exempt. In the frequent wars in which Hungary was formerly engaged, principally against the Turks, this service was rather a severe obligation. The number of combatants each brought into the field was in proportion to his estate. The archbishop of Gran, and the bishop of Erlau, brought each two stands of colours, and under each stand a thousand men; the archbishop of Colocza, and several bishops, a thousand each. In the fatal battle of Mohatch, seven bishops were left on the field. A general *insurrection* of this kind was summoned by the emperor in the late war; but the treaty of Campo Formio having been concluded before the troops so raised began to act, they returned home.

The standing military force of Hungary, in the year 1794, consisted, according to Dr. Townson, of nine regiments of infantry, of 3000 men each, thirteen regiments of frontier militia, of 4000 each, and seven regiments of hussars, of 1200 each; amounting, in the whole, to 87,400 men.

ARMS.] The arms of Hungary are a shield divided perpendicularly into three parts: the first division, or, contains seven Hungarian towers; the second, gules, the Szekler eagle; and in the third, gules, are the sun and moon of Saxony.

ORDER OF KNIGHTHOOD.] The Hungarian order of knighthood is

that of St. Stephen; the badge of which is an Hungarian cross, worn suspended by a green-edged ribbon.

RELIGION.] The established religion of Hungary is the Roman-catholic; but the protestants, who are generally believed to be as numerous as the catholics, and who, two centuries ago, were more numerous, enjoy complete toleration. They have entire freedom of public worship, with churches and bells, and their own schools and seminaries of learning, and are admitted to fill all the public offices, and to a seat in the legislative councils.

There are two archbishopricks in Hungary—Gran and Colocza. The bishoprics are those of Erlau, Nitra, Raab, Waitzen, Funf-kirchen (or Five Churches), Vesprim, Gross Wardein (or Great Waradin), Osanad Stuhlweissenberg, Neusohl, and Rosenau. The last three were founded in 1777.

The archbishop of Gran, as archbishop, is lord-lieutenant of the county, primate and chancellor of Hungary; has the exclusive right of crowning the king, and can create nobility upon the archiepiscopal dominions. His revenue is about 36,000*l.* sterling *per ann.*, while that of the archbishop of Colocza is not more than 5000*l.*

UNIVERSITIES.] The principal university of Hungary is that of Buda, which has an annual income of 20,000*l.* sterling, of which 4000*l.* is allotted to pay the salaries of the professors. Here is a large library and an observatory. Raab and Caschau are likewise styled universities, but they are rather academies founded by the Jesuits. The university of Tyrnau, as mentioned above, has within these few years been removed to Pest.

LANGUAGE.] As the Hungarians are mixed with Germans, Slavonians, and Walachians, they have a variety of dialects. The Hungarian Proper appears to be radically different from the Slavonian, and has been supposed to be a branch of the Finnic. The upper and middling classes of people speak German and Latin, though with the latter they continually mix words that can only be understood by those who are acquainted with the Hungarian, Slavonian, or German languages.

The Lord's Prayer in Hungarian is as follows:—*Mi atyank ki vagy a mennyekben, zentelssck meg a te neved; jojjon el a te orzagod: Legyen meg a te akaratod, minr a mennyben, ugy itt e foldonnis. A mi mindennapi kenyerunket ad meg nekunkma; es botsasd meg a mi vetkeinket, mikeppin miis megbotsatunk azoknak a kik mi ellenunc vetkeztenek; es ne vigy minket a kesertethe: de zabulits meg minket a gonoszol; mert tied az orssag, a hatalom, es a dirsoseg mind orokke. Amen.*

ANTIQUITIES.] Many Roman antiquities, such as military roads, ruins, and coins, have been found in Hungary and other parts of the ancient province of Dacia. About 20 miles from Belgrade are the remains of a most magnificent Roman bridge. 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.

HISTORY.] The Huns, after subduing this country in the middle of the third century, communicated their name to it, being then part of the ancient Pannonia. They were succeeded by the Goths; the Goths were expelled by the Lombards; they by the Avari; who were followed by the Slavi in the beginning of the 9th century. At the close of it, the Ugri or Ugurs, emigrated from the banks of the Volga, and took possession of the country. Hungary was formerly an assemblage of dif-

ferent states; and the first who assumed the title of king was Stephen, in the year 997, when he embraced Christianity. In his reign the form of government was established, and the crown rendered elective. About the year 1310, king Charles-Robert ascended the throne, and subdued Bulgaria, Servia, Croatia, Dalmatia, Slavonia, and many other provinces; but many of those conquests were afterwards reduced by the Venetians, Turks, and other powers. In the 15th century, Huniades, who was guardian to the infant king Ladislaus, bravely repulsed the Turks when they invaded Hungary; and, upon the death of Ladislaus, the Hungarians, in 1438, raised Matthias Corvinus, son of Huniades, to their throne. Lewis, king of Hungary, in 1526, was killed in a battle, fighting against Solyman, emperor of the Turks. This battle proved almost fatal to Hungary: but the archduke Ferdinand, brother to the emperor Charles V., having married the sister of Lewis, 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, SLAVONIA, THE BUCKOWINE, CROATIA, AND DALMATIA.

THESE countries appear under one division, for several reasons, and particularly because we have no very exact account of their extent and boundaries. The most authentic is as follows:—TRANSYLVANIA is bounded on the north by the Carpathian mountains, which divide it from Gallicia; on the east by Moldavia and Walachia; on the south by Walachia; and on the west by Hungary. It lies between 22 and 26 degrees of east longitude, and 45 and 48 of north latitude. Its length is about 160, and its breadth 120 miles; contains nearly 14,000 square miles, and is surrounded on all sides by high mountains. Its produce, vegetables, and animals, are almost the same with those of Hungary. The air is wholesome and temperate; but the wine of this country, though good, is not equal to the Hungarian. Its interior government still partakes greatly of the ancient feudal system, being composed of many independent states and princes, who are little more than nominally subject to the Austrians. Papists, Lutherans, Calvinists, Socinians, Arians, Greeks, Mahometans, and other sectaries, here enjoy their several religions. Transylvania is thought to add but little to the Austrian revenue, though it exports some metals and salt to Hungary. All sorts of provisions are very cheap, and excellent in their kinds. Hermanstadt, the capital, contains about 16,000 inhabitants, and is a large, strong, and well-built city; as are Clausenburg and Weissenburg. The seat of government is at Hermanstadt, and the governor is assisted by a council made up of Roman-catholics, Calvinists, and Lutherans. The diet, or parliament, meets by summons, and receives the commands of the sovereign, to whom of late they have been more devoted than formerly. They have a liberty of making remonstrances and representations in case of grievances.

Transylvania is part of ancient Dacia, the inhabitants of which long employed the Roman arms before they could be subdued. It was over-

run by the Goths on the decline of the Roman empire, and then by the Huns. Their descendants retain the same military character. The population of the country is estimated at 1,500,000. The military force is at present reduced to six regiments of 1500 each; but it is well known, that, during the last two wars in which the house of Austria was engaged, the Transylvanians did great services. Hermanstadt is the only bishopric; and the Transylvanians at present seem to trouble themselves little either about learning or religion, though the Roman-catholic is the established church. Stephen I., king of Hungary, introduced Christianity there about the year 1000; and it was afterwards governed by an Hungarian vaivod or viceroy. The various revolutions in their government prove their impatience under slavery; and though the treaty of Carlowitz, in 1699, gave the sovereignty of Transylvania, as also of Slavonia, to the house of Austria, yet the natives enjoy what we may call a loyal aristocracy, which their sovereigns do not think proper to invade. In October 1784, on account of the real or feigned oppressions of the nobility, near 16,000 assembled, and committed great depredations on those whose conduct had been obnoxious to them. Several had their palaces burnt, and were glad to escape with their lives. The revolters were disappointed in their attempt on Clausenburg; and afterwards offered to separate, and go home in peace, on the terms of a general pardon, better treatment from the nobility, and a freedom from vassalage. Lenient terms were granted to them; and, with the punishment of a few, the insurrection was suppressed.

The BUCKOWINE was formerly a part of Transylvania, and afterwards of Moldavia, but was ceded to the Austrians by the Turks in 1771. It is situate between Moldavia and Gallicia, is about 90 miles long and 50 broad, and contains nearly 3,000 square miles and about 130,000 inhabitants. The country is full of woods, and produces but little corn. The people derive their support from the cattle they rear, and the wax and honey afforded them by their bees. The inhabitants consist of various nations, as Walachians, Germans, Hungarians, Armenians, Jews, and a great number of gypsies. The language is the Walachian, but the German becomes continually more prevalent. This country has been united by the Austrian government to Gallicia, and is under the same administration. The capital is Tzernowitz, situate on the Pruth, the see of a Greek archbishop, and containing about 6,000 inhabitants.

SLAVONIA lies between the 17th and 21st degrees of east longitude, and the 45th and 46th of north latitude. It is estimated to be about 200 miles in length, and 60 in breadth, and contains about 10,000 square miles. It is bounded by the Drave on the north, by the Danube on the east, by the Save on the south, and by Süria in Austria on the west. The reason why Hungary, Transylvania, Slavonia, 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 the rivers, and the strength of the country, favoured their resistance; and their descendants, notwithstanding the power of the Turks, the Austrians, the Hungarians, and the Poles, still retain the same spirit of independency. Without regarding 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, since it is well known that they preserved the

pragmatic sanction, and kept the imperial crown in that family. The Slavonians formerly so much employed 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 Slavonia 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 Slavonians are zealous Roman-catholics, though Greeks and Jews are tolerated. Here are two bishoprics; that of Posega, which is the capital of the country, and Zagrab, which lies on the Drave; but we know of no universities. Esseck is a large and strong town, remarkable for a wooden bridge, over the Drave and adjoining marshes, five miles long and fifteen paces broad, built by the Turks. Waradin and Peterwaradin are places noted in the wars between the Austrians and Turks. The inhabitants are composed of Servians, Radzians, Croats, Walachians, Germans, Hungarians, and various other nations. In 1746, Slavonia was united to Hungary, and the states send representatives to the diet of Hungary.

CROATIA is situate between the 15th and 17th degrees of east longitude, and the 45th and 47th of north latitude. It is 80 miles in length, and 70 in breadth, and contains about 2,800 square miles. The manners, government, religion, language, and customs, of the Croats are similar to those of the Slavonians and Transylvanians, who are their neighbours. They are excellent irregular troops, and, as such, are famed in modern history, under the name of Pandonrs, and various other designations. Carolstadt is a place of some note, but Zagrab, or Agram, is 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. A viceroy presides over Croatia, jointly with Slavonia, and

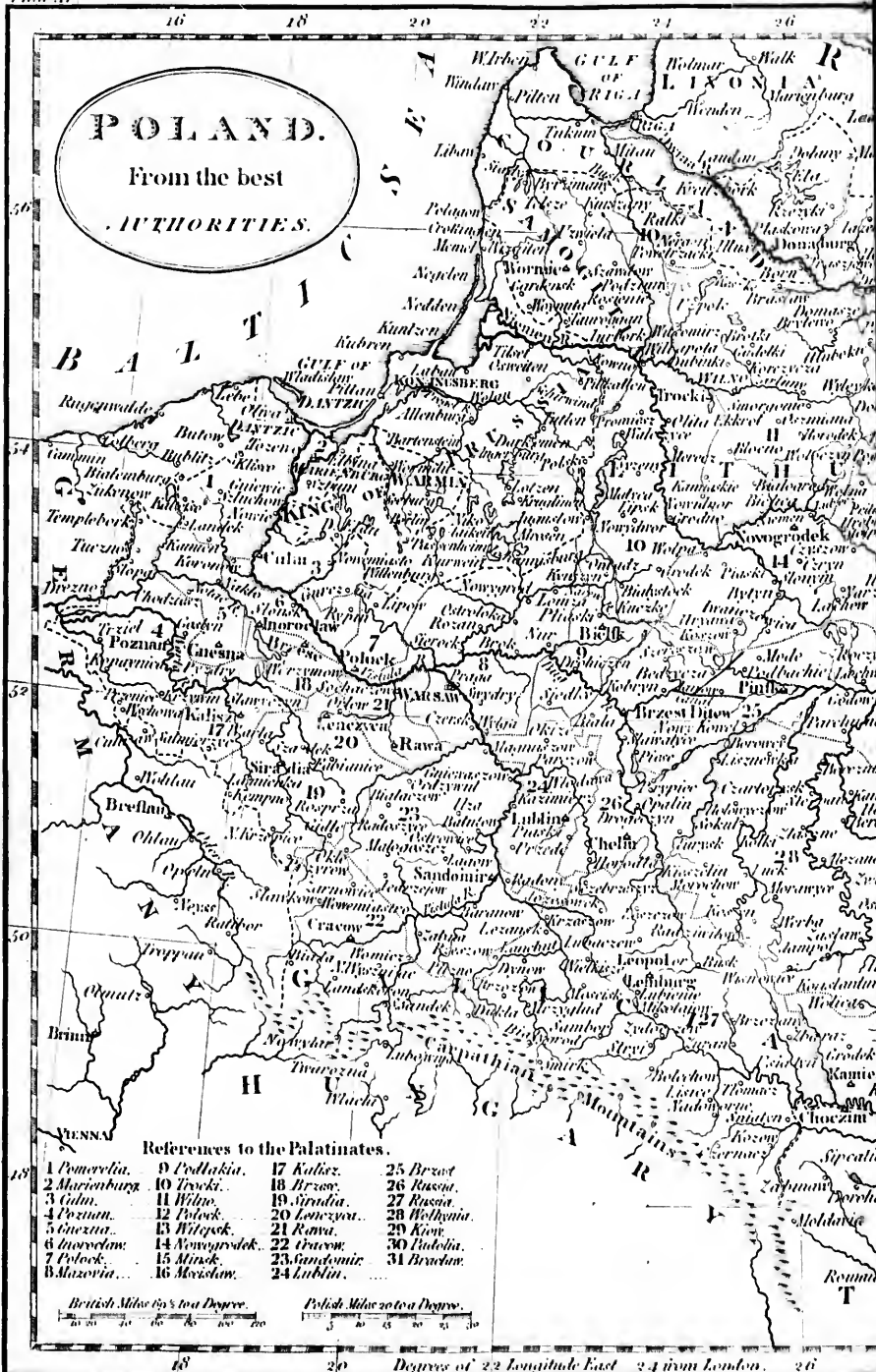
Hungarian DALMATIA. This lies in the upper part of the Adriatic Sea, and consists of five districts, in which the most remarkable places are the two following: Segna, which is a royal free town, fortified both by nature and art, and situated near the sea, in a bleak, mountainous, and barren soil. The bishop of this place is a suffragan to the archbishop of Spalatro. Here are twelve churches, and two convents. The governor resides in the old palace, called the Royal Castle. 2. Ottoschatz, a frontier fortification on the river Gatzka. That part of the fortress where the governor and the greatest part of the garrison reside, is surrounded with a wall and some towers; but the rest of the buildings, which are mean, are erected on piles in the water: so that one neighbour cannot visit another without a boat.

The part of Dalmatia formerly called Venetian Dalmatia, is now likewise subject to Austria, and together with Hungarian Dalmatia, is estimated to contain about 4,640 square miles, and above 300,000 inhabitants. The country is mountainous, but fruitful. The capital is Spalatro, which has a fine harbour, and is the see of an archbishop. Zara is another large town, with 7,000 inhabitants, and so strongly fortified that it is deemed almost impregnable. Sebenico is likewise a strong town. The natives of this part of Dalmatia carry on a considerable trade, and are esteemed the best mariners of any on the coasts of the Adriatic or any part of Italy. The Dalmatians resemble the Slavonians in their manners, and speak the same language. They profess the Roman-catholic religion.

In Venetian Dalmatia is the small aristocratic free state of Foglissa,

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POLAND.
From the best
AUTHORITIES.

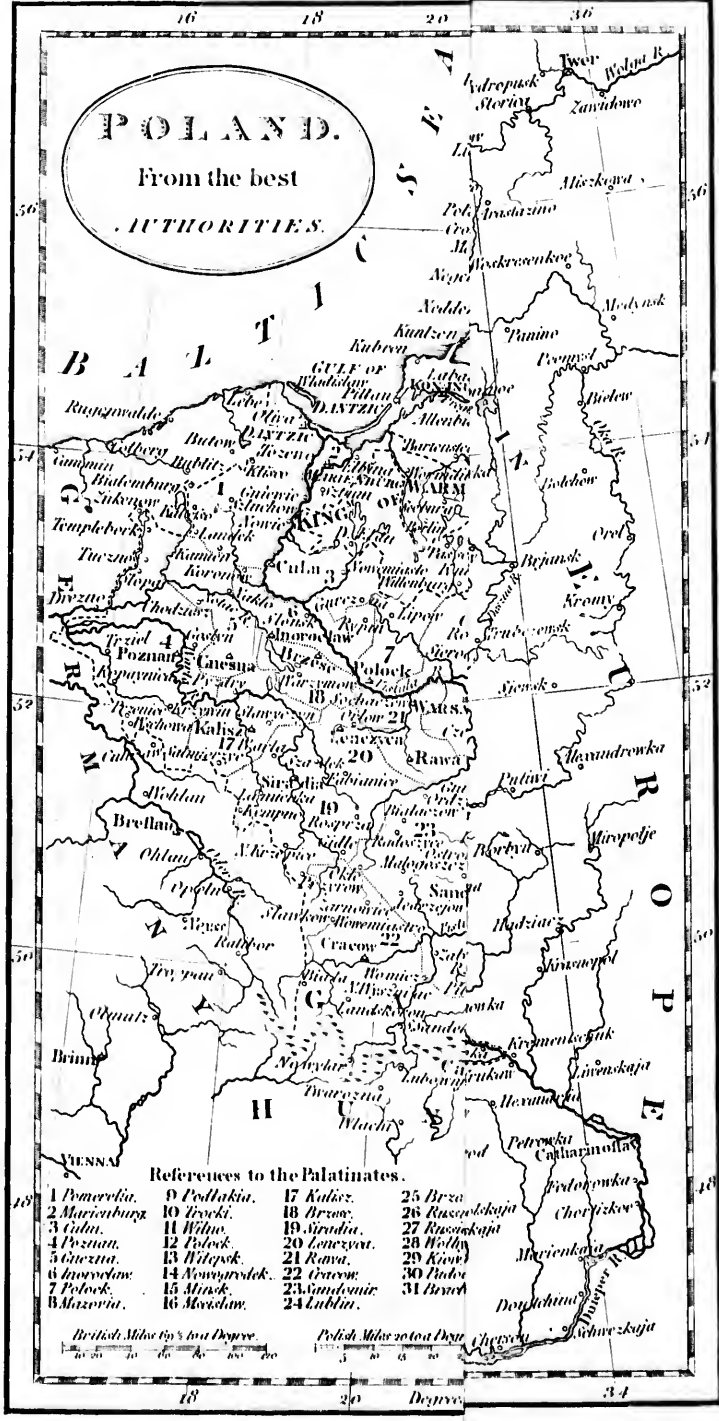


References to the Palatinates.

1 Pomerelia.	9 Podlaskia.	17 Kalisz.	25 Brzoz.
2 Marienburg.	10 Trocki.	18 Brzoz.	26 Raszyn.
3 Gdn.	11 Wilno.	19 Sradia.	27 Raszyn.
4 Poznan.	12 Polock.	20 Leczyca.	28 Wolynia.
5 Gieczna.	13 Wlqysk.	21 Rawa.	29 Kwn.
6 Luowicz.	14 Nowogródek.	22 Cracow.	30 Podolia.
7 Polock.	15 Minsk.	23 Sandomir.	31 Bractaw.
8 Mazovia.	16 Morschan.	24 Lublin.	

British Miles 60 to 100 Degrees. Polish Miles 20 to 40 Degrees.





POLAND.
From the best
AUTHORITIES.

References to the Palatinates.

1 Pomerelia.	9 Podlakkia.	17 Kalisz.	25 Brze
2 Marienburg.	10 Poznan.	18 Brzoz.	26 Rassewskaja.
3 Culm.	11 Wilno.	19 Siarbia.	27 Rassewskaja.
4 Poznan.	12 Polock.	20 Lonzow.	28 Wolyn.
5 Czestna.	13 Wileysk.	21 Rawa.	29 Kiow.
6 Inowoclaw.	14 Nowogrodok.	22 Cracow.	30 Pado.
7 Polock.	15 Minsk.	23 Sandomir.	31 Brzesk.
8 Mazowia.	16 Mowscaw.	24 Lublin.	

British Miles to a Degree.
0 10 20 30 40 50 60

Polish Miles to a Degree.
0 10 20 30 40 50 60

formerly under the protection of Venice, but now under that of the Austrian government. This state contains about 20,000 inhabitants, and its chief magistrate bears the title of *welike cnes*, or great lord, and is chosen annually from some noble Hungarian families which are settled there.

A small part of Dalmatia belongs to the Turks, and another part to the republic of Ragusa, the territory of which contains about 270 square miles, and 60,000 inhabitants. Ragusa is an aristocratical state, formed nearly after the model of that of Venice. The government is in the hands of the nobility; and the chief of the republic, who is styled rector, is changed every month, and elected by scrutiny or lot. During his short administration, he lives in the palace, and wears a ducal habit. As the Ragusans are unable to protect themselves, they make use of their wealth to procure them protectors, the chief of whom, for many years, was the grand seignor. They endeavour also to keep upon good terms with the Venetians, and other neighbouring states. But in the year 1783, a dispute arose between them and the king of Naples, respecting a claim of right to his appointing a commander of the Ragusan troops. It was terminated by the republic's putting itself under that king's protection. The city of Ragusa is not above two miles in circumference, but it is well built, and contains some handsome edifices. The ancient Epidaurus was situated not far from this city. The Ragusans profess the Romish religion; but Greeks, Armenians, and Turks, are tolerated. Almost all the citizens are traders: and they keep so watchful an eye over their freedom, that the gates of the city of Ragusa are allowed to be open only a few hours in the day. The language chiefly in use among the Ragusans is the Slavonian, but the greatest part of them speak the Italian. They have many trading vessels, and are great carriers in the Mediterranean, like the Dutch, being constantly at peace with the piratical states of Barbary. The towns of Gravosa and Stagno, 50 miles N. E. of Ragusa, are within the territories of this republic; and there are also five small islands belonging to it, the principal of which is Melida.

THE KINGDOM OF PRUSSIA, AND THE PRUSSIAN DOMINIONS IN GENERAL.

EXTENT AND SITUATION OF THE KINGDOM OF PRUSSIA PROPER.

	Miles.	Degrees.
Length	260	} between { 16° and 24° East longitude. 51° and 55° North latitude.
Breadth	240	

NAME.] THE name of Prussia is derived from its ancient inhabitants, the *Borussi*, or *Porussi*: so called from the Slavonic word *po*, near, and *Russi*; signifying the people who lived adjacent to or near the Russians.

BOUNDARIES.] The kingdom of Prussia is bounded on the north by the Baltic Sea and Russia (Samogitia), on the east by Russia (Lithuania), on the south by Galicia and Silesia, and on the west by Brandenburg and Pomerania.

DIVISIONS.] The general divisions of the kingdom of Prussia, with their extent and population, are as follow :

	Sq. miles.	Population.
East Prussia, or Old East Prussia, the ancient Ducal Prussia	12,050	940,000
West Prussia, with the district of Netz	10,100	521,630
South Prussia	15,000	1,100,000
New East Prussia.....	11,000	700,000
Total.....	48,150	3,261,630

West Prussia consists principally of the territory wrested from Poland in the year 1772 ; and South Prussia and New East Prussia, of the portion of the same country allotted to Prussia at its final division in 1795. The extent and population of South Prussia and New East Prussia, are not very accurately known, but they have been estimated as above.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, FORESTS, LAKES.] The kingdom of Prussia is in general a level country : there are no mountains ; but extensive forests and woods, especially in the parts acquired from Poland.

Prussia abounds in lakes ; the principal of which are the Sperling See, the Mauer See, and the Gneserich Lake. The first of these is 20 miles long and as many broad. In East Prussia, it is reckoned, there are 300 small lakes ; and 160 in West Prussia.

RIVERS, CANALS.] The chief rivers are the Vistula, the Pregel, the Memel, the Netze, the Bro, and the Warta. The two canals called Frederic's canals, and the Bromberg canal, unite the Netze with the Vistula.

At the mouths of the rivers Vistula and Memel, singular havens, called by the Germans *haffs*, are formed by long narrow tracts of land. This tongue of land in the Frisch-haff, at the mouth of the Vistula, is 70 miles in length, and from three to ten broad. It is said to have been thrown up by tempests about the year 1190.

METALS, MINERALS.] Prussia yields no metals, except a little iron ore : its peculiar and valuable mineral is amber, which is usually found at about the depth of 100 feet, and is often washed on shore by tempests. It is now generally supposed to be a vegetable production, mineralised by some unknown operation of nature.

CLIMATE, SOIL, PRODUCE.] The climate of Prussia is more damp and raw, and the cold more lasting, than in Germany ; but the air is salubrious, and the natives frequently attain to a considerable age. The soil is tolerable ; and produces, corn, flax, hemp, hops, tobacco, various kinds of fruits, and timber in abundance.

ANIMALS.] The uri or bison, a kind of wild ox, and a species of beaver, are found here, as are also lynxes, bears, and foxes. The horses, cattle, and sheep, resemble those of the northern parts of Germany.

CITIES, CHIEF TOWNS.] Königsberg, the capital of the kingdom of Prussia, is situate on an island formed by the river Pregel, over which it has seven bridges. This city is seven miles in circumference, and contains 4,480 houses and above 50,000 inhabitants. It carries on an extensive trade, the river being navigable for ships of considerable burden. Besides its college or university, which contains 38 professors, it has magnificent palaces, a town-house, and exchange ; as also a good harbour, and a citadel, which is called Fredericsburg, and is a regular square.

Warsaw, the late capital of Poland, now a Prussian city, is situate on the Vistula, partly in a plain and partly on a gentle ascent rising from the river. It contains many magnificent palaces and other buildings, besides churches and convents. The streets are spacious, but ill paved; and the greatest part of the houses, particularly in the suburbs, are mean wooden hovels. The city exhibits a strong contrast of wealth and poverty, and has little or no commerce.

The number of inhabitants in 1787 was nearly 90,000, including the suburb of Praga. At present, after what the city, and especially that suburb, suffered from the siege and massacre by the Russian army in 1794, they are estimated at about 66,000.

Dantzic, formerly the capital of Polish Prussia, is famous in history on many accounts, particularly for being at the head of the Hanseatic association, commonly called the Hanse-towns. It is situate on the Vistula, near five miles from the Baltic, and is a large, beautiful, populous city: its houses generally are five stories high; and many of the streets are planted with chesnut-trees. It has a fine harbour, and is still a very commercial city, although it is now on the decline in that respect. It formerly contained 80,000 inhabitants, but in the year 1793 they were diminished to 30,000. Dr. Busching affirms, that it appears from ancient records, that as early as the year 997 Dantzic was a large commercial city, and not a village or inconsiderable town, as some pretend.

Marienwerder, the seat of the government of West Prussia, stands on the Vistula. The cathedral is the largest church in the kingdom of Prussia, being 320 feet long. It seems by its strong breastworks to have formerly served as a fortress. Here is also a castle and a spacious palace, built in the old Gothic style.

Elbing and Thorn are cities of considerable trade, and contain, the former about 16,000, and the latter 9,000 inhabitants. Posen, late a Polish city, the seat of the government of South Prussia, is the see of a catholic bishop, has a university, and contains 13 convents and 15,000 inhabitants.

NATIONAL CHARACTER, MANNERS, CUSTOMS.] The character, manners, and customs of the inhabitants of the old kingdom of Prussia, are nearly the same with those of their neighbours in the north of Germany. Those of the Poles have been already described in our account of Galicia.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The Prussian manufactures are not inconsiderable: they consist of glass, iron-work; paper, gunpowder, copper, and brass mills; manufactures of cloth, camlet, linen, silk-stockings, and other articles. The inhabitants export a variety of naval stores, amber, linseed, and hemp-seed, oatmeal, fish, mead, tallow, and caviare; and it is said that 500 ships are loaded every year with those commodities, chiefly from Königsberg.

RELIGION.] The religion of Prussia is very tolerant. The established religions are those of the Lutherans and Calvinists, but chiefly the former; but papists, antipædobaptists, and almost all other sects, are here tolerated.

UNIVERSITIES, LITERATURE, LANGUAGE] The university of Königsberg was founded in 1544; that of Frankfort on the Oder in 1516, by Joachim, elector of Brandenburg. To these are to be added the Polish university of Posen, which has now become subject to Prussia. There are many schools and seminaries of education in the kingdom of Prussia, but it has produced few men of eminent literary abilities.

The language of Prussia is the German ; but in the territory lately acquired from Poland, the Polish, as may be expected, prevails.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Before we proceed to speak of the government, army, revenue, &c. of Prussia, which have a reference to the whole of the Prussian dominions, it will be proper to present the reader with a statement of the countries and provinces of which those dominions are composed, with their extent and population respectively, as they now are, after the changes made by the cession to France of the Prussian territory on the left bank of the Rhine, and the appropriation of the indemnities assigned in compensation for such cession. These, according to the latest and most authentic accounts, are as follow :

	Sq. miles.	Population.
Kingdom of Prussia, including the late acquisitions from Poland, according to the divisions above given	48,150	3,261,630
Low. Saxon. Up. Saxony.		
Prussian Pomerania	7,200	540,000
Electorate of Brandenburg	10,672	1,200,000
Part of counties of Mannsfeld and Hohenstein	160	35,000
* Abbey of Quedlinburg	32	12,000
* Town and territory of Erfurt, and the Eichsfeld	810	110,000
Duchy of Magdeburg	1,152	290,000
Principality of Halberstadt	480	100,000
* Principality, late bishopric, of Hildesheim	640	90,000
* Late imperial cities of Muhlhausen, Nordhausen, Goslar	60	31,000
Principality of East Friesland	864	120,000
Principality of Minden	496	60,000
Part of duchy of Cleve	400	55,000
County of Mark	816	124,000
Counties of Lingen and Tecklenburg	208	45,000
County of Ravensberg	272	85,000
* Principality, late bishopric, of Paderborn	868	120,000
* Principality of Munster, containing the city and greater part of the late bishopric	1,360	200,000
* Towns and territory late belonging to the abbays of		
Herforden	32	2,000
Essen	40	5,500
Werden	40	5,000
Elten	32	4,000
Franconia.		
Principality of Bayreuth or Culmbach	1,200	220,000
Principality of Anspach or Onolzbach	1,120	275,000
Prussian Silesia and the county of Glatz	11,616	1,890,000
Switzerland.—Principality of Neufchatel or Neuenburg, and the county of Valengin	240	45,000
Total	88,980	9,015,130

N. B. The territories marked with an asterisk, are those given to Prussia by the plan of indemnities carried into effect in 1803.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] His Prussian majesty is absolute through all his dominions. 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 37 bailiwicks. The states consist, 1. Of counsellors of state; 2. Of deputies from the nobility; and, 3. From the commons. Besides these institutions, Frederic II. erected a board for commerce and navigation.

REVENUE.] The revenue of the Prussian monarchy, before the additions made to it by the last division of Poland, and the changes occasioned by carrying into effect the late plan of indemnities, was estimated at 3,879,000*l.* sterling, of which

Prussia contributed	£816,600
Brandenburg	1,050,000
Silesia	937,500
Pomerania	350,000
Magdeburg and Halberstadt	241,600
Westphalia.....	483,300

Total...3,879,000

It is probable that it now amounts to considerably above four millions; for though the entire revenue of Poland was not computed to exceed 439,546*l.* sterling, it would not be surprising if the Prussian government were to find means to raise a still greater sum from its share of that kingdom only, since Austria obtains from Galicia nearly to the amount of one million sterling.

This revenue arises from the contributions, domains, salt-works, excise, posts, tolls, and various taxes and duties. The duty on amber alone is said to produce above 26,000 dollars annually.

There is no state debt, and the exchequer is very rich in consequence of the economical regulations of Frederic II.; who, notwithstanding, in the last years of his reign, expended annually, in the improvement of his dominions, to the amount of 525,000*l.* sterling; and between the years 1763 and 1784, 3,500,000*l.*

ARMY.] The Prussian army, even in time of peace, consists of about 220,000, including 40,000 cavalry, of the best disciplined troops in the world; and during the seven years' war, that force was augmented to 300,000 men. But this great military force, however it may aggrandise the power and importance of the king, is utterly inconsistent with the interests of the people. The army is chiefly composed of provincial regiments—the whole Prussian dominions being divided into circles or cantons; in each of which, one or more régiments, in proportion to the size and populousness of the division, have been originally raised, and from it the recruits continue to be taken: and each particular regiment is always quartered, in time of peace, near the canton from which its recruits are drawn. Whatever number of sons a peasant may have, they are all liable to be taken into the service, except one, who is left to assist in the management of the farm. The rest wear badges from their childhood, to mark that they are destined to be soldiers, and obliged to enter into the service whenever they are called upon. The maintaining so large an army, in a country naturally so little equal to it, occasioned, however, such a drain from population, and such a withdrawing of strength from the labours of the earth, that Frederic II. endeavoured in some degree to save his own peasantry, by drawing as many recruits as he could from other countries. These foreign recruits remain continually with the regiments in which they are placed; but the native Prussians have every year some months of fur-

lough, during which they return to the houses of their fathers or brothers, and work at the business of the farm, or in any other way they please.

ARMS.] 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 marquisate of Brandenburg. To these are added the respective arms of the several provinces subject to the Prussian crown.

ORDERS OF KNIGHTHOOD.] There are six orders of knighthood: the "*Order of Concord*," instituted by Christian Ernest, margrave of Brandenburg, in the year 1660, to distinguish the part he had acted in restoring peace to many of the princes of Europe. Frederic III. elector of Brandenburg, and afterwards king of Prussia, instituted, in 1685, the "*Order of Generosity*." The knights wear a cross of eight points, enamelled blue, having in the centre this motto, "*La Générosité*," pendent to a blue ribbon. The same prince instituted the "*Order of the Black Eagle*," on the day of his coronation at Königsberg, in the year 1700: the sovereign is always grand-master; and the number of knights, exclusive of the royal family, is limited to thirty, who must also be admitted into the "*Order of Generosity*," previous to their receiving this, unless they be sovereign princes. The badge is an eight-cornered golden blue enamelled cross, in the middle of which is the name of the sovereign, and on the edges are four black spread-eagles. It is worn suspended from a broad orange-coloured ribbon which passes from the left to the right. The knights wear on the left side of their coats a silver star, in the middle of which is a black eagle, with the motto *Suum Cuique*. The "*Order of Merit*" was instituted by Frederic II. in the year 1740, to reward the merit of persons either in arms or arts, without distinction of birth, religion, or country. The king is sovereign, and the number of knights unlimited. Frederic II. likewise instituted the orders of "*St. Stephen*" and "*St. John*;" the former in 1754, the latter in 1756.

HISTORY.] The ancient history of Prussia, like that of other kingdoms, is lost in the clouds of fiction and romance. The early inhabitants, a brave and warlike people, descended from the Slavonians, refused to submit to the neighbouring princes, who, on pretence of converting them to Christianity, endeavoured 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 1227, 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 a vast waste of blood, in 1406 a peace was concluded between the knights of the Teutonic order and Casimir IV. king of Poland, who had undertaken the cause of the oppressed people; by which it was agreed, that the part now called Polish Prussia should continue a free province, under the king's protection; and that the knights and the grand-master should possess the other part, acknowledging 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, laid aside the habit of his order, embraced Luther-

anism, and 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 brother and his male heirs. Thus ended the sovereignty of the Teutonic order in Prussia, after it had subsisted nearly 300 years. In 1637, 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 John 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, proclaimed January 18, 1701, and soon after acknowledged as such by all the powers of Christendom. His grandson, Frederic II., 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 abilities, and considerably increased the revenues of his country, but too often at the expense of humanity. At his death, which happened in 1740, he is said to have left seven millions sterling in his treasury, which enabled his son, by his wonderful victories, and the more wonderful resources by which he repaired his defeats, to become the admiration of the age. He improved the arts of peace as well as of war, and distinguished himself as a poet, philosopher, and legislator. Some of the principal transactions of his reign have already been related in our account of the history of Germany. In the year 1783 he published a rescript signifying his pleasure that no kneeling should in future be practised in honour of his person, assigning for his reason, that this act of humiliation was not due but to the Divinity; and near 2,000,000 of crowns were expended by him, in 1782, in draining marshes, establishing factories, settling colonies, relieving distress, and in other purposes of philanthropy and policy.

The late king of Prussia, who succeeded his uncle, August 17, 1786, made many salutary regulations for his subjects, and established a court of honour to prevent the diabolical practice of duelling in his dominions.

The exertions of Prussia against France, till the treaty of peace concluded between those two powers on the 5th of April 1795; have been already related in our account of France.

Frederic-William II.* died at Berlin, of a dropsy, November 16, 1797, and was succeeded by his son, Frederic-William III., the present sovereign. His reign has hitherto been pacific, and he has maintained an amicable connexion with France, amid all the changes of government in that country.

Frederic-William III., born August 3, 1770, married December 24, 1793, to Louisa-Augusta-Wilhelmina-Amelia, daughter of Charles-Louis-Frederic, duke of Mecklenburg Strelitz, by whom he has issue—

* In enumerating the kings of Prussia, we have thought it most proper to follow the method used in Prussia, and throughout Germany, where the *Frederics* are distinguished from the *Frederic-Williams*: thus the uncle of the late king, and the late king, frequently here styled Frederic III. and Frederic IV., are always called, on the continent, Frederic II. and Frederic-William II.; the father of the former not being styled Frederic II. but Frederic-William I.

Frederic-William, born October 15, 1795.

Frederic-William-Louis, born March 22, 1797.

Frederica-Louisa-Charlotte-Wilhelmina, born July 13, 1798.

Charles-Frederic-Alexander, born June 29, 1801.

Queen Dowager—Frederica-Louisa, daughter of the landgrave Louis IX. of Hesse Darmstadt; born Oct. 16, 1751.

SILESIA.

SILESIA is situate between $49^{\circ} 30'$ and $52^{\circ} 20'$ of north latitude, and 15 and 19 degrees of east longitude. It is bounded on the north by the Mark of Brandenburg and Lusatia, on the east by Galicia and South Prussia, on the south by Hungary and Moravia, and on the west by Moravia, Bohemia, and Lusatia. It belongs to Prussia, except a small part of Upper or Southern Silesia. The Prussian part contains 10,960 square miles and 1,816,000 inhabitants. Since the division of Poland in 1795, a part of that country, in extent about 656 square miles, has been incorporated with it, and placed under the same government. The Austrian part contains 1296 square miles and 280,000 inhabitants.

Silesia is divided into Lower and Upper Silesia. The former is again subdivided into the seven principalities of Breslau, Brieg, Schwiednitz, Jauer, Liegnitz, Wohlau, and Glogau, immediately subject to the Prussian monarch, besides some other principalities and lordships not immediately subject; and the latter, into the three immediate principalities of Munsterberg, Oppeln, and Ratibor, besides some mediate principalities and inferior lordships. The Austrian part of Silesia, at the extremity of Upper Silesia, is divided into the two circles of Jagerndorf and Teschen.

The Sudetic chain of mountains, a part of which is called the Riesengebirge, or Giant-mountain, divide this country from Bohemia. The Elbe and the Oder have their sources among these mountains; the latter of which flows through the country, dividing it nearly into two equal parts. Besides these, the principal rivers are the Vistula, the Niesse, the Bober, the Oppa, the Quies, and the Elsa. In the northern parts are several small lakes and morasses. The mountainous parts contain mines of gold and silver, but they are not worked; they also produce copper, lead, and iron, sulphur, salt-petre, alum, and vitriol. The soil in the vicinity of South Prussia and Lusatia is sandy, and not very productive; but this deficiency is compensated by the fertility of the other and larger part of Silesia, which produces wheat, rye, barley, oats, maize, buckwheat, linseed, peas, beans, hops, and madder. In the mountains of Upper Silesia, tar, pitch, and resin, are made from the pine and fir; and the larch-trees yield turpentine. The breed of sheep here is said to be very profitable on account of the excellency of their wool. The wild animals of this country are lynxes, which frequent only the mountainous parts; a few bears and wolves; and foxes, weasels, otters, and beavers; but the latter in no great number. In the Oder are caught salmon and sturgeon, the latter of which are sometimes extremely large; as also skate and lampreys. The other rivers, but especially the lakes and ponds, abound in various kinds of fish.

Silesia is said to contain 180 cities and towns, and 4,000 villages. The capital is Breslau, situate at the confluence of the Oder and the small river Ohlau, which last runs through several of the streets. It is

a large well-built fortified city, containing 3,200 houses, and upwards of 60,000 inhabitants; one third of whom are catholics, and nine-tenths of the other two-thirds Lutherans; yet the protestants have only nine churches, while the catholics have twenty-six; many of which are, however, cloisters. Breslau is the see of a catholic bishop, whose ecclesiastical jurisdiction extends over the whole of Silesia. The cathedral was founded about the year 1150, and contains several magnificent chapels, which have been added to the body of the church by different former bishops. The principal of the protestant churches is the Lutheran church of St. Elizabeth. In the library belonging to this church is what may be considered as a curious manuscript: to the naked eye it appears to be a drawing with a pen of the Venus de Medicis, upon a half-sheet of folio paper; but on examining it with a magnifying-glass, it is found to be a copy of Ovid's Art of Love, perfectly legible, and the whole five books within a compass of ten inches in length and three in width. Breslau has a university, which was founded in 1702 by the emperor Leopold.

Schweidnitz is a large and handsomely built town, which, since it has become subject to Prussia, has been rendered a very strong place. It contains upwards of 6,000 inhabitants, about one fourth of whom are catholics, and claims the intolerant and disgraceful privilege of suffering no Jews within its walls. Brieg is likewise a large well-built town, and nearly as populous as Schweidnitz.

Troppau, considered as the capital of Austrian or Bohemian Silesia, because it is the seat of the Austrian administration of that province, is situate on the Oppa: it has a castle, and contains about 3,000 inhabitants. Teschen, the other principal town in the Austrian part, situate on the Elsa, contains about 5,000 inhabitants.

The principal manufactures of Silesia are those of thread, twine, linen, flax, and damask: the chief exports are madder, mill-stones, thread, yarn, linen and woollen cloth. Since Silesia has fallen under the dominion of the kings of Prussia, commerce has been considerably improved, and many excellent regulations have been made for that purpose.

The German language is generally spoken in Silesia, and the speaking of French is considered as an affectation.

Silesia was anciently inhabited by the Suevi, a Teutonic nation. In the seventh century the Slavonians made themselves masters of the country. They embraced Christianity in the ninth century. Silesia was afterwards united with Poland, and acknowledged the Polish dukes and kings as its sovereigns. In the fourteenth century the Silesian princes rendered themselves independent of Poland, and the whole of the duchy became subject to the kings of Bohemia. On the death of the emperor Charles VI., in the year 1740, Frederic II. king of Prussia laid claim to certain principalities of Silesia, and supported his claim so powerfully by his arms, that Lower and the greater part of Upper Silesia, with the county of Glatz, were ceded to him by the treaty of Breslau, and have ever since remained subject to Prussia.

The county of Glatz is situate between Bohemia, Moravia, and Silesia, and is about 40 miles in length and 25 in breadth. It is surrounded on all sides by mountains, which contain mines of coal, copper, and iron, and quarries of stone and marble. It has excellent pastures, which feed great numbers of cattle. Glatz, the principal town, is a strongly fortified place, containing within the walls about 400 houses, and as many more in four suburbs. The number of inhabitants is about 8,000. The town carries on a considerable trade.

SWITZERLAND.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 230 } Breadth 120 }	between	{ 6 and 11 East longitude. 46 and 48 North latitude.

Containing 13,260 square miles, with 130 inhabitants to each *.

NAME.] SWITZERLAND was considered by the Romans as a part of Gaul, and inhabited by the Helvetii on the west, and the Rhæti on the east. The modern name of Switzerland, or Swisserland, seems to be derived from that of the canton of Schweiz, one of the earliest in forming the league by which the liberty of the country was asserted against the dukes of Austria. After the late revolution in its government, effected by the influence and arms of France, it took the name of the Helvetic Republic.

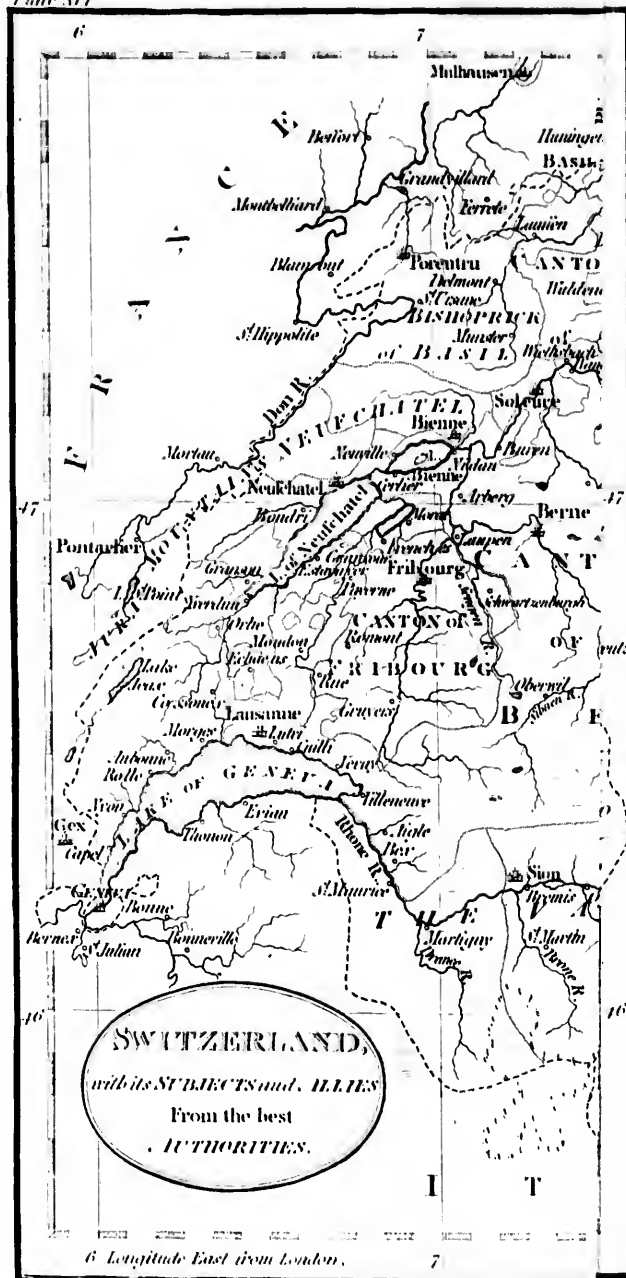
BOUNDARIES.] It is bounded on the north by the circle of Swabia in Germany, on the east by Tyrol, on the south by the Italian republic and by France, and on the west by France, from which it is separated by Mount Jura.

DIVISIONS.] Switzerland, before the year 1798, was divided into thirteen cantons, which stood, in point of precedency, as follows: 1. Zurich; 2. Bern; 3. Lucern; 4. Uri; 5. Schweiz; 6. Unterwalden; 7. Zug; 8. Glaris; 9. Basil; 10. Freyburg; 11. Solcure, or Solothurn; 12. Schaffhausen; 13. Appenzel.

Besides these there were certain districts and towns which were the subjects of the cantons, and some small states who were their allies. The extent and population of the cantons, and of their subjects and allies, were as follows :

Cantons,	Chief Towns.	Square Miles.	Population.
Bern.....	Bern.....	3,840	350,000
Zurich.....	Zurich.....	752	175,000
Lucern.....	Lucern.....	496	100,000
Uri.....	Altorf.....	480	25,000
Freyburg.....	Freyburg.....	464	73,000
Glaris.....	Glaris.....	336	20,000
Schweitz.....	Schweitz.....	320	28,000
Soleure or Solothurn..	Soleure.....	288	45,000
Appenzel.....	Appenzel.....	256	54,000

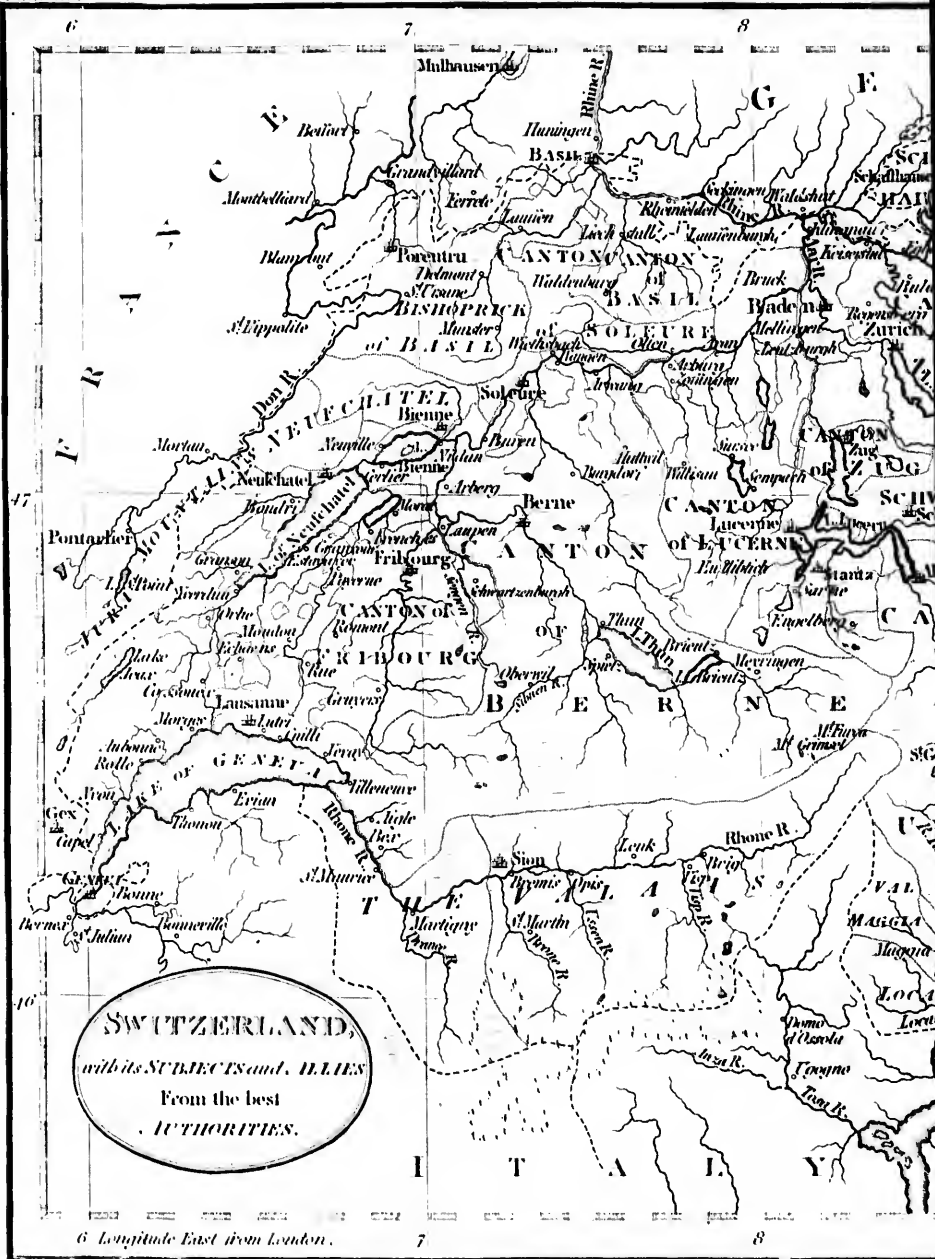
* Switzerland, before the late revolution, was computed to contain 14,960 square miles and about two millions of inhabitants: but the French having seized and annexed to France the city and territory of Geneva, the bishopric of Basil (or, as the French write it, Basle), and the towns and districts of Biel or Bienné, and Muhlhausen; and also made the Valtellin, and the lordships of Worms, and Clafen or Cleve, a part of the new Italian republic; the extent of Switzerland is reduced as above. As, likewise, the republic of the Valais, and the principality of Neuchâtel, are now rendered entirely independent of the Swiss government, these, perhaps, ought also to be deducted; in which case we shall have for the extent of Switzerland only 11,600 square miles, with 1,582,000 inhabitants.



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 - 54,000

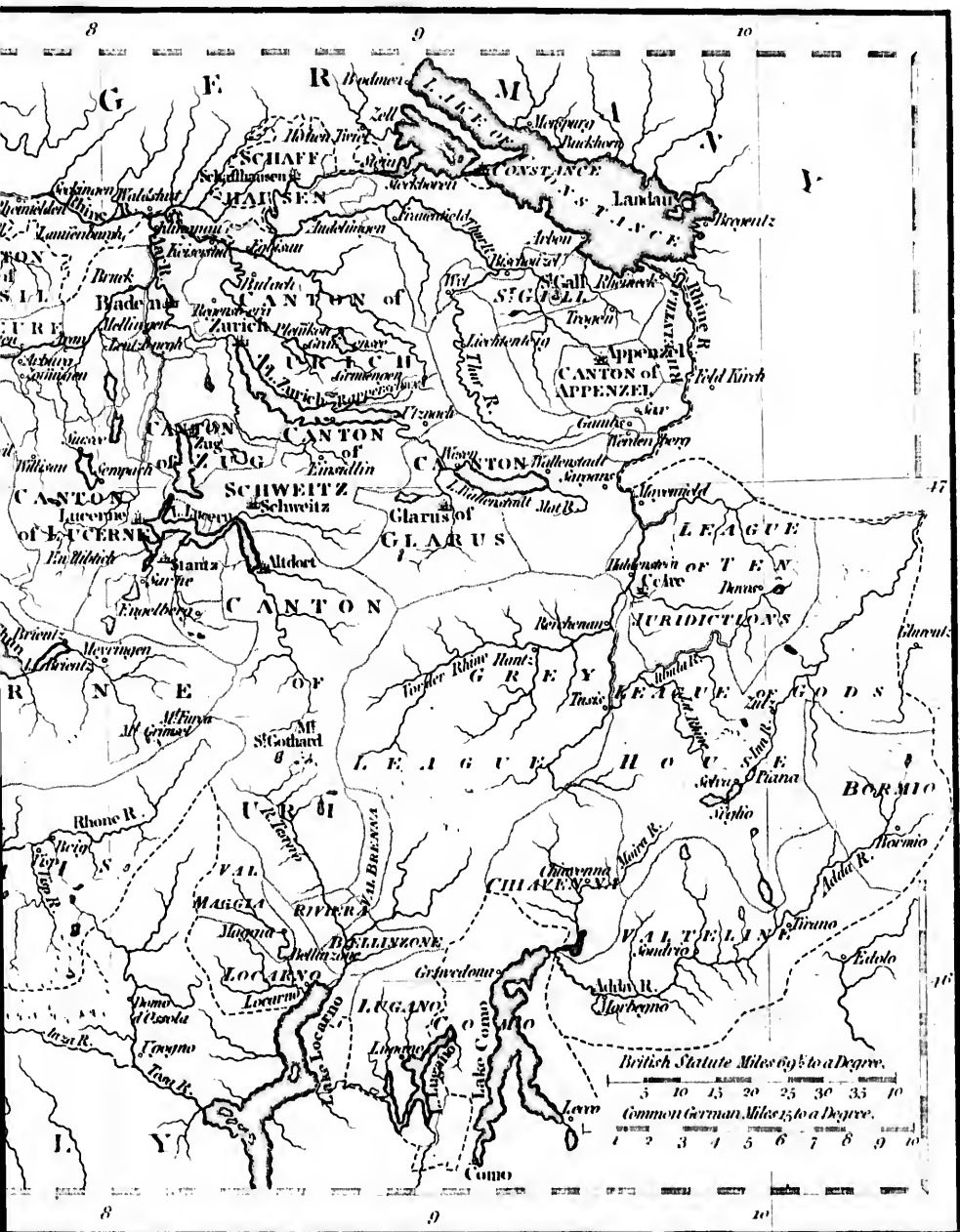
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SWITZERLAND.

Cantons.	Chief Towns.	Square Miles.	Population.
Unterwalden	Stanz	176	18,000
Basil.....	Basil.....	160	38,000
Schaffhausen	Schaffhausen	128	30,000
Zug	Zug	80	12,000
The subjects of the Swiss, consisting of the bailiwicks, free districts, towns of Bremgarten, Mellingen, &c.		1,888	348,000
The allies, viz. the republic of Geneva, the Grisons, the Valais, town of Muhlhausen, principality of Neufchatel, &c.			
	Total	14,960	1,867,000

Under the present constitution and government of Switzerland, the country, exclusive of the republic of Valais, and the territory of Neufchatel, is divided into 19 cantons, the extent and population of which are estimated as follows :

Cantons.	Chief Towns.	Square Miles.	Population.
1 Aargau	Aarau	448	100,000
2 Appenzel	Appenzel.....	256	60,000
3 Basil	Basil.....	160	40,000
4 Bern	Bern.....	1,920	200,000
5 Freyburg	Freyburg	576	70,000
6 Glaris	Glaris	336	24,000
7 Grisons	Chur or Coire.....	2,240	100,000
8 Lemman, or Pays-de-Vaud.....	Lausanne.....	1,280	136,000
9 Lucern			
10 St. Gall	St. Gall.....	704	150,000
11 Schaffhausen	Schaffhausen	128	30,000
12 Schweitz	Schweitz	384	32,000
13 Soleure	Soleure.....	240	50,000
14 Tessin.....	Bellinzona	720	160,000
15 Thurgau.....	Frauenfeld	260	75,000
16 Unterwalden	Stanz	192	20,000
17 Uri.....	Altorf	464	20,000
18 Zug	Zug.....	88	15,000
19 Zurich	Zurich.....	768	200,000
The republic of Valais	Sitten or Sion	1,360	100,000
Principality of Neufchatel, or Neuenburg, and the county of Valengin	Neufchatel	240	45,000
	Total.....	13,260	1,727,000

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, MOUNTAINS.] The face of Switzerland is in general so mountainous, that even the parts of it accounted level abound with eminences that in other countries would be called mountains. Nature seems here to have formed every thing on her grandest scale. The summits of the Alps, Mount St. Bernard, St. Gothard, the Jungfrau or Virgin, and the Schreckenhorn, or Peak of Terror, present

the most sublime and stupendous scenes : but *Mont Blanc*, the highest mountain of the old continent, is particularly distinguished from the other mountains, by having its summits and sides clothed to a considerable depth with a mantle of snow, almost without the intervention of the least rock to break the glare of the *white* appearance. According to the calculation of M. de Luc (by whose improvement of the barometer elevations are taken with a degree of accuracy before unattainable) the height of this mountain above the level of the sea is 2,301 $\frac{1}{2}$ French toises, or 15,304 English feet ; or, according to sir George Shuckborough, 15,602 feet, which gives a difference of only 358 feet. The peaks of *Teneriffe* and the summit of *Ætna* have been frequently supposed to be the highest points of the globe : but, from the most accurate observations, it will be found that *Mont Blanc* is of much more elevation, and that there are no mountains (except those in America, particularly *Climboraco*, the highest point of the *Cordilleras*, the elevation of which, according to *Condamine*, surpasses 3,000 toises, or 19,200 feet, but according to others, 20,608 feet) which are equal in altitude to *Mont Blanc*.

LAKES.] The principal lakes of Switzerland are, the lake of *Constance*, called by the Germans the *Boden See*, which is about 45 miles in length and 15 in breadth ; and the lake of *Geneva*, about 40 miles long and nine at its greatest breadth. The other lakes are those of *Lucern*, *Zurich*, *Thun*, *Bienne* or *Biel*, and *Brientz*.

RIVERS.] The chief rivers are the *Rhine* (which rises in the chain of mountains bordering on *St. Gothard*), the *Rhône*, the *Aar*, the *Reuss*, the *Tessin*, the *Oglio*, and the *Limmat*.

METALS AND MINERALS.] The mountains contain mines of iron, crystal, virgin sulphur, and springs of mineral waters.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND AGRICULTURE.] From the mountainous nature of this country, around which the Alps form an amphitheatre of more than 100 miles, the frosts are severe in winter, the eminences 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 the mountains the inhabitants are often reaping, while they are sowing on another. The valleys, however, are warm and fruitful, and well cultivated ; and nothing can be more delightful than the summer months in this charming country. It is subject to rains and tempests ; for which reason public granaries are everywhere erected, to supply the failure of the crops.

There is, perhaps, no country in the world where the advantageous effects of unwearied and persevering industry are more remarkably conspicuous than in Switzerland. In passing over the mountainous parts, the traveller is struck with admiration, to observe rocks that were formerly barren now planted with vines, or abounding with rich pasture ; and to mark the traces of the plough along the sides of precipices so steep, that a horse could not even mount them without great difficulty. In short, the inhabitants seem to have surmounted every obstruction which soil, situation, and climate, have thrown in their way, and to have spread fertility over various spots of the country, which nature seemed to have consigned to everlasting barrenness. The feet of the mountains, and sometimes also the very summits, are covered with vineyards, corn-fields, meadows, and pasture-grounds. Other parts of this country are more dreary, consisting almost entirely of barren and inaccessible rocks, some of which are continually covered with snow or ice. The valleys between these icy and snowy mountains appear like so many smooth frozen lakes, and from the latter, vast fragments of ice frequently

fall down into the more fruitful spots beneath. In some parts there is a regular gradation from extreme wildness to high cultivation; in others, the transitions are very abrupt, and very striking. Sometimes a continued chain of cultivated mountains, richly clothed with wood, and studded all over with hamlets, cottages above the clouds, pastures which appear suspended in the air, exhibit the most delightful landscape that can be conceived; and in other places appear rugged rocks, cataracts, and mountains of a prodigious height covered with ice and snow.

VEGETABLES AND ANIMALS.] Switzerland produces wheat, barley, oats, rye, flax, and hemp; plenty of apples, pears, grapes which afford an excellent wine, nuts, cherries, plums, and chestnuts; the parts towards Italy abound in peaches, almonds, figs, citrons, and pomegranates; and most of the cantons abound in timber. Besides game, fish, and fowl, are also found, in some of the higher and more inaccessible parts of the Alps, the bouquetin and the chamois, whose activity in scouring along the steep and craggy rocks, and in leaping over the precipices, is hardly conceivable. The blood of both of these animals is of so hot a nature, that the inhabitants of some of these mountains, who are subject to pleurisies, take a few drops of it, mixed with water, as a remedy for that disorder. The flesh of the chamois is esteemed very delicious. Among the Alps is likewise found a species of hares, which in summer are said perfectly to resemble other hares, but in winter become all over white, so that they are scarcely distinguishable among the snow. But this idea has been lately exploded, nor is it certain whether the two species ever couple together. The white hare seldom quits his rocky residence. Here are also yellow and white foxes, which in winter sometimes come down into the valleys.

CURIOSITIES NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] Every part of Switzerland abounds in natural curiosities; continually presenting precipices, glaciers, torrents, and cataracts. The glaciers are immense fields of ice, which usually rest on an inclined plane: being pushed forwards by the pressure of their own weight, and but weakly supported by the rugged rocks beneath, they are intersected by large transverse crevices, and present the appearance of walls, pyramids, and other fantastic shapes, observed at all heights and in all situations, wherever the declivity is beyond thirty or forty degrees.

Mr. Coxe thus describes the method of travelling over these glaciers. "We had each of us a long pole spiked with iron; and in order to secure us as much as possible from slipping, the guides fastened to our shoes *crampons*, or small bars of iron, provided with four small spikes of the same metal. At other times, instead of *crampons*, we had large nails in our shoes, which more effectually answered our purpose. The difficulty of crossing these valleys of ice arises from the immense chasms. We rolled down large stones into several of them; and the great length of time before they reached the bottom gave us some conception of their depth; our guides assured us, that in some places they are not less than five hundred feet deep. I can no otherwise convey to you an image of this body of ice broken into irregular ridges and deep chasms, than by comparing it to a lake instantaneously frozen in the midst of a violent storm."—In speaking of an unsuccessful attempt of some gentlemen to reach the summit of Mont Blanc, he presents to his readers a most horrid image of the danger of these chasms. "As they were returning in great haste (owing to the day being far advanced) one of the party slipped, in attempting to leap over a chasm of ice. He held in his hand a long pole, spiked with iron, which he struck into the ice; and upon

this he hung, dreadfully suspended for a few moments, until he was released by his companions."

Near Schaffhausen is a tremendous cataract, or rather three unequal cataracts, down which the Rhine dashes headlong upon the rock below. Near Rosiniere is a famous spring, which rises in the midst of a natural basin of twelve square feet. The force that acts upon it must be prodigious; after a great shower of rain, it carries up a column of water as thick as a man's thigh, nearly a foot above its surface. Its temperature never varies: it is clear as crystal, and its depth is unfathomable,—probably the end of some subterraneous lake, that has never found an issue for its waters.

Among the artificial curiosities may be mentioned an extraordinary hermitage two leagues from Freyburg, formed by the hands of a single hermit, who, about a century ago, laboured on it for twenty-five years. 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, ceiling, all cut out of the rock.

At Schaffhausen was a very extraordinary bridge over the Rhine, justly admired for the singularity of its architecture. The river is extremely rapid, and had already destroyed several stone bridges of the strongest construction, when a carpenter of Appenzel offered to throw a wooden bridge of a single arch across the river, which is near 400 feet wide. The magistrates, however, required that it should consist of two arches, and that he should, for that purpose, employ the middle pier of the old bridge. Accordingly the architect was obliged to obey; but he contrived to leave it a matter of doubt, whether the bridge was supported by the middle pier, and whether it would not have been equally as safe if formed solely of one arch. The sides and top were covered, and the road, which was almost level, was not carried as usual over the top of the arch, but, if the expression may be allowed, let into the middle of it, and therefore suspended. A man of the slightest weight felt it tremble under him; though waggons heavily laden might pass over without danger. Considering the boldness of the plan and construction, it must appear extraordinary that the architect was only, as was said before, a carpenter, without the least tincture of literature, totally ignorant of mathematics, and not versed in the theory of mechanics. His name was Ulrich Grubenman. The bridge was finished in less than three years, and cost about 8000*l.* sterling. It was burnt by the French when they evacuated Schaffhausen, after being defeated by the Austrians, April 13th, 1799.

At the famous pass of *Pierre Pertuis*, the road is carried through a solid rock near fifty feet thick, the height of the arch twenty-six, and its breadth twenty-five.

At Lucern (says Mr. Coxe) is to be seen a topographical representation of the most mountainous parts of Switzerland, by general Pfiffier, a native of this town, and an officer in the French service. It is a model in relief, and well deserves the attention of the curious traveller. What was finished in 1776, comprised about sixty square leagues, in the cantons of Lucern, Zug, Bern, Uri, Schweitz, and Unterwalden*. The model was twelve feet long, and nine and a half broad. The composition is principally a mastic of charcoal, lime, clay, a

* Count Stolberg, who saw this model in 1791, says of it: "This model, the size of which is vast, contains 220 square leagues."

little pitch, with a thin coat of wax; and is so hard as to be trod upon without receiving the least damage. The whole is painted with different colours, representing the objects as they appear in nature. It is worthy of particular observation, that not only the woods of oak, beech, pine, and other trees, are distinguished, but also that the strata of the several rocks are marked, each being shaped upon the spot, and formed with granite, gravel, calcareous stone, or such other natural substances as compose the original mountains. The plan is indeed so minutely exact, that it comprises not only all the mountains, lakes, towns, villages, and forests; but every cottage, every torrent, every road, and even every path, is distinctly and accurately represented. The general takes his elevations from the level of the lake of Lucern, which, according to M. de Saussure, is about fourteen hundred and eight feet above the Mediterranean. This model, exhibiting the most mountainous parts of Switzerland, conveys a sublime picture of immense Alps piled one upon another; as if the story of the Titans were realised, and they had succeeded (at least in one spot of the globe) in heaping Ossa upon Pelion, and Olympus upon Ossa. From the account of this officer, it appears, that there are continued chains of mountains of the same elevation, rising in progression to the highest range, and from thence gradually descending in the same proportion to Italy.

POPULATION, NATIONAL CHARACTER, MANNERS, CUSTOMS. } The population of this country has already been given, according to the latest estimates, under the article *Divisions*.—The Swiss are a brave, hardy, industrious people; remarkable for their fidelity, and their zealous attachment to the liberties of their country. Like the old Romans, they are equally inured to arms and agriculture. A general simplicity of manners, an open and unaffected frankness, together with an invincible spirit of freedom, are the most distinguishing characteristics of the inhabitants of Switzerland. A very striking proof of the simplicity and openness of manners of this people, and of astonishing confidence, is mentioned by Mr. Coxe, who says, upon the authority of general Pfiffer, that, on each side of the road that runs through the valley of Muotta, in the canton of Schweitz, there are several ranges of small shops uninhabited, yet filled with various goods, of which the prices are marked: any passengers who wish to become purchasers, enter the shops, take away the merchandise, and deposit the price, which the owners call for in the evening. They are in general a very enlightened nation; their common people are far more intelligent than the same rank of men in most other countries; a taste for literature is very prevalent among those who are in better circumstances, and even among many of the lowest rank; and a genuine and unartful good breeding is extremely conspicuous in the Swiss gentry. On the first entrance into this country, the traveller cannot but observe the air of content and satisfaction which appears in the countenances of the inhabitants. The cleanliness of the houses, and of the people, is peculiarly striking; and in all their manners, behaviour, and dress, some strong outlines may be traced, which distinguish this happy people from the neighbouring nations, who labour under the oppressions of despotic government. Even the Swiss cottages convey the liveliest image of cleanliness, ease, and simplicity, and cannot but strongly impress upon the observer a most pleasing conviction of the peasants' happiness. In some of the cantons, each cottage has its little territory, consisting generally of a field or two of fine pasture ground, and frequently skirted with trees, and well supplied with water. Sumptuary laws are in force in most parts of Switzerland: and no dancing is allowed, except upon particular occasions. Silk, lace, and several other

articles of luxury, are totally prohibited in some of the cantons: and even the head-dresses of the ladies are regulated. All games of hazard are also strictly prohibited: and in other games, the party who loses above six florins, which is about nine shillings of our money, incurs a considerable fine. Their diversions, therefore, are chiefly of the active and warlike kind; and as their time is not wasted in games of chance, many of them employ part of their leisure hours in reading, to the great improvement of their understandings. The youth are diligently trained to all the martial exercises, such as running, wrestling, throwing the hammer, and shooting both with the cross-bow and the musket.

GOITRES AND IDIOTS.] The inhabitants in one part of this country, particularly in the republic of Valais, are very much subject to *goïtres*, or large excrescences of flesh that grow from the throat, and often increase to a most enormous size; but what is more extraordinary, idiotism also remarkably abounds among them. "I saw," says Mr. Coxe, "many instances of both kinds; as I passed through Sion, some idiots were basking in the sun, with their tongues out, and their heads hanging down, exhibiting the most affecting spectacle of intellectual imbecility that can possibly be conceived." The causes which produce a frequency of these phænomena in this country form a very curious question.

The notion that snow-water occasions these excrescences is totally void of foundation. For, on that supposition, why are the natives of those places that lie most contiguous to the glaciers, and who drink no other water than what descends from those immense reservoirs of ice and snow, free from this malady? And why are the inhabitants of those countries in which there is no snow, afflicted with it? For these guttural tumours are to be found in the environs of Naples, in the island of Sumatra, and at Patna and Purnea in the East Indies, where snow is unknown.

The springs that supply drink to the natives are impregnated with a calcareous matter called in Switzerland *tuf*, nearly similar to the incrustations of Matlock in Derbyshire, so minutely dissolved as not in the least to affect the transparency of the water. It is not improbable that the impalpable particles of this substance, thus dissolved, should introduce themselves into the glands of the throat, and produce goïtres, for the following reasons: because *tuf*, or this calcareous deposition, abounds in all those districts where goïtres are common. There are goïtrous persons and much *tuf* in Derbyshire, in various parts of the Valais, in the Valteline, at Lucern, Freyburg, and Bern, near Aigle and Bex, in several places of the Pays-de-Vaud, near Dresden, in the valleys of Savoy and Piedmont, near Turin and Milan. But the strongest proof in favour of this opinion, says our author, is derived from the following facts. A surgeon whom I met at the baths of Leuk informed me, that he had not unfrequently extracted concretions of *tuf-stone* from several goïtres; and that from one in particular, which suppurated, he had taken several flat pieces, each about half an inch long. He added, that the same substance is found in the stomach of cows, and in the goïtrous tumours to which even the dogs of the country are subject. He had diminished and cured the goïtres of many young persons by emollient liquors, and external applications; and prevented them in future, by removing his patients from the place where the springs are impregnated with *tuf*: and if that could not be contrived, by forbidding the use of water which was not purified.

Children are occasionally born with guttural swellings, but this may arise from the aliment of the mother. It is to be presumed that people accustomed to these excrescences will not be shocked at their deformity;

but it does not appear, as some writers assert, that they consider them as beauties. To judge from the accounts of many travellers, it might be supposed that the natives, without exception, were either idiots or goitres; whereas, in fact, the Valaisans, in general, are a robust race; and all that with truth can be affirmed is, that goitrous persons and idiots are more abundant in some districts of the Valais than perhaps in any other part of the globe. It has been asserted that the people very much respect these idiots, and even consider them as *blessings from heaven*. The common people, it is certain, esteem them so, for they call them "*souls of God without sin*;" and many parents prefer these idiot children to those whose understandings are perfect, because, as they are incapable of intentional criminality, they consider them as certain of happiness in a future state. Nor is this opinion entirely without its good effect, as it disposes the parents to pay greater attention to such helpless beings. These idiots are suffered to marry, as well among themselves as with others*.

CITIES, CHIEF TOWNS, EDIFICES.] Of these the most considerable is the city of Bern, standing on the river Aar. It is extremely neat and handsome, the streets being wide and long, and including, within it, several streams and fountains. It contains about 13,000 inhabitants. Basil is accounted, by some, the capital of all Switzerland. It is situate in a fertile and delightful country, on the banks of the Rhine, and the confines of Alsace and the empire. It contains two hundred and twenty streets, and six market-places. The town-house, which stands on the river Birsec, is supported by very large pillars, and its great hall is finely painted by the celebrated Hans Holbein, who was a native of this city. The situation of Basil is pleasing: the Rhine divides it into the upper and lower town; and it is considered as one of the keys of Switzerland. Baden is famous for its antiquity and baths. Zurich is far less considerable than Bern; but in the arsenal is shown the bow of the famous William Tell; and in the library is a manuscript of excellent letters, written by the unfortunate lady Jane Grey to the judicious reformer Bullinger, in elegant Latin and German.

The city of Geneva, which, before it was annexed to France, was an associate of Switzerland, and under the protection of the Helvetic body, but within itself an independent state and republic, is well built, and well fortified; and contains 26,000 inhabitants, most of whom are Calvinists. It is situate at the efflux of the Rhone from the lake of Geneva.

MANUFACTURES, COMMERCE.] The productions of the loom, linen, dimity, lace, stockings, handkerchiefs, ribbons, silk, and painted cottons, and gloves, are common in Switzerland; and the inhabitants, notwithstanding their sumptuary laws, fabricate silks, velvets, and woollen manufactures. The Swiss export horned cattle, horses, sheep, cheese, butter, leather, linen, lace, wrought cotton and silk, and watches. They import corn, flax, silk, cotton, spices, and salt. The situation of Switzerland, and its numerous navigable lakes and rivers, would be very favourable to commerce, were the inhabitants more intent and assiduous to avail themselves of these advantages.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The old constitution and government of Switzerland were very complicated, from the cantons, though belonging to the same body, being partly aristocratical, and partly democratical. Every canton was absolute in its own jurisdiction; but

* Coxe's Travels through Switzerland, vol. i. p. 385, &c.

those of Bern, Zurich, and Lucern, with other dependencies, were aristocratical, with a certain mixture of democracy, Bern excepted. Those of Uri, Schwitz, Unterwalden, Zug, Glaris, and Appenzel, were democratical. Basil, though it had the appearance of an aristocracy, rather inclined to a democracy. But even these aristocracies and democracies differed in their particular modes of government. However, in all of them the real interests of the people appear to have been much attended to; and they enjoyed a degree of happiness not to be expected in despotic governments. Each canton prudently reconciled itself to the errors of its neighbour, and cemented, on the basis of affection, a system of mutual defence.

The confederacy, considered as a republic, comprehended three divisions. The first were the Swiss, properly so called; the second the Grisons, or the states confederated with the Swiss for their common protection; the third, those prefectures which, though subject to the other two, by purchase or otherwise, preserved each its own particular magistrates. Every canton formed within itself a little republic; but when any controversy arose that might affect the whole confederacy, it was referred to the general diet, which sat at Baden, where, each canton having a vote, every question was decided by the majority. The general diet consisted of two deputies from each canton, besides a deputy from the abbot of St. Gall, and the cities of St. Gall and Bienne. It is observed by Mr. Coxe, to whom the public have been indebted for the best account of Switzerland that has appeared, that there is no country in which happiness and content more universally prevail among the people. For whether the government be aristocratical, democratical, or mixed, a general spirit of liberty pervades and actuates the several constitutions; so that even the oligarchical states (which, of all others, are usually the most tyrannical) are here peculiarly mild; and the property of the subject is securely guarded against every kind of violation. A harmony is maintained by the concurrence of their mutual felicity; and their sumptuary laws, and equal division of their fortunes among their children, seem to insure its continuance. There is no part of Europe which contains, within the same extent of region, so many independent commonwealths, and such a variety of different governments, as are collected together in this remarkable and delightful country; and yet, with such wisdom was the Helvetic union composed, and so little have the Swiss, of late years, been actuated by the spirit of conquest, that, since the firm and complete establishment of their general confederacy, and till the unprovoked invasion of their country by the French, they have scarcely ever had occasion to employ their arms against a foreign enemy; and have had no hostile commotions among themselves, that were not very soon happily terminated.

In the year 1798, Switzerland, obliged to yield to the intrigues and arms of France, abolished the old constitution, and framed another on the French model; by which the whole country was declared a republic one and indivisible, and the government vested in two councils and a directory. But in the year 1802 this constitution was likewise abolished, by the authority of the first consul of France, and another presented to them for their acceptance; but which the great majority of them rejected, as still more repugnant to their political principles and habits than the former. Their opposition was so determined that they had recourse to arms; and the first consul thought proper to withdraw his constitution, and offer them a new one, which they consented to accept. By this, as under the original constitution of Switzerland, each of the cau-

tons has its distinct internal government, which, in seven of them, Schweiz, Appenzel, Glaris, Unterwalden, Uri, Zug, and the Grisons, is of the democratic kind, all the male inhabitants above twenty years of age having voices in the *landesgemeinde*, or assembly, in which all laws and regulations proposed by the magistrates and public officers are discussed. The government of seven others, Bern, Zurich, Soleure, Freyburg, Lucern, Basil, and Schaffhausen, is of the aristocratic form, being administered by a great and little council, the composition and privileges of which are different in the different states. The five new cantons, Aargau, Lemman, Thurgau, St. Gall, and Tesino (or Ticino) are likewise aristocratic, and governed by two councils. The general government of the country, is administered by a diet, to which each of the cantons sends a member, and which assembles annually at Freyburg, Bern, Soleure, Basil, Zurich, and Lucern, in rotation. The president of the diet is a kind of chief magistrate, and is styled *landamman* of Switzerland. The nineteen deputies, of which the diet consists, have, in the whole, twenty-five voices; the deputies of those cantons, the population of which exceeds 100,000, *viz.* Bern, Zurich, Lemman, Aargau, St. Gall, and the Grisons, having two voices; those of the other cantons have only one. The diet assembles on the first Monday in June, and, in the ordinary course of affairs, continues its sittings during one month. It decides on war and peace, and concludes treaties of alliance and commerce; but, on these subjects, there must be a concurrence of three-fourths of the cantons.

REVENUE.] The revenue of Switzerland, before that country was oppressed and plundered by the French, was estimated at 1,050,000*l.* sterling. It was derived from, 1. The profits of the demesne land; 2. The tenth of the produce of all the lands in the country; 3. Customs and duties on merchandise; 4. The revenues arising from the sale of salt, and some casual taxes.

The finances of Bern and Zurich were in a very flourishing state, and those cantons were said to be possessed of great wealth, which has, no doubt, fallen a prey to French rapacity and extortion. In the smaller cantons the revenues scarcely defrayed the expenses.

MILITARY FORCE.] The internal strength of the Swiss cantons, independent of the militia, consists of 13,400 men, raised according to the population and abilities of each. Every burgher, peasant, and subject, was obliged to exercise himself in the use of arms; appear on the stated days for shooting at the mark; furnish himself with proper clothing, accoutrements, powder and ball; and to be always ready for the defence of his country. The Swiss engaged in the service of foreign princes and states, either merely as guards, or as marching regiments: in the latter case the government permitted the enlisting of volunteers, though only for such states as they were in alliance with, or with whom they had entered into a previous agreement on that article. But no subject was to be forced into foreign service, or even to be enlisted without the concurrence of the magistracy.

By the new constitution, no canton is to have more than 200 troops that receive pay, nor to embody more than 500 militia, without the consent of the *landamman*.

RELIGION.] Though all the Swiss cantons form but one political republic, yet they are not united in religion. The cantons of Lucern, Uri, Schweiz, Unterwalden, Zug, Freyburg, and Soleure, are catholics; those of Bern, Zurich, Basil, and Schaffhausen, Calvinists; and those of Appenzel and Glaris, of both religions. Of the six new cantons, Le-

man and Tesino, are catholics; and the Grisons, Aargau, St. Gall, and Thurgau, of both religions. The catholics are under the jurisdiction, in ecclesiastical matters, of the bishops of Basil, Lausanne, Sion, and Coire, and the abbots of St. Gall and Einsidlen. The republic of Valais, though formerly the scene of cruel persecutions on account of its affection to protestantism, is catholic. The inhabitants of the principality of Neuchâtel are chiefly Calvinists; but all sects of religion are tolerated. These differences in religion formerly created many public commotions, which seem now to have subsided. Ulric Zwingli, or Zwinglius, born at Wildhausen, 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 may be said to be the religion of the protestant Swiss. But this must be understood chiefly with respect to the mode of church-government; for, in some doctrinal points, they are far from being universally Calvinistical. There is, however, too much religious bigotry prevalent among them; and, though they are ardently attached to the interests of civil liberty, their sentiments on the subject of religious toleration are, in general, much less liberal.

[LITERATURE.] 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, whose works the present age has received with so much approbation, was a citizen of Geneva. Rousseau gave a force to the French language, which it was thought incapable of receiving. In England he is generally known as a prose writer only, but the French admire him as a poet. His opera of the *Devin de Village*, in particular, is much esteemed. M. Bonnet, and Mess. de Saussure and de Luc, also deserve to be mentioned with applause. Haller, a native of Bern, deserves the highest eulogy, as a poet, physiologist, and a philosopher. Lavater, so celebrated for his essays on physiognomy, and some other works, was likewise of this country.

[UNIVERSITIES.] The university of Basil, founded in 1459, has a very curious physic-garden, which contains the choicest exotics; and adjoining to the library, which possesses some valuable manuscripts, is a museum well furnished with natural and artificial curiosities, and with a great number of medals and paintings. In the cabinets of Erasmus and Amerbach, which also belong to this university, there are no less than twenty original pieces of Holbein; for one of which, representing a dead Christ, a thousand ducats have been offered. The other universities, which indeed are commonly only styled colleges, are those of Bern, Lausanne, and Zurich.

[LANGUAGE.] Several languages prevail in Switzerland; but the most common is German. The Swiss who border upon France speak an impure French, as those near Italy do a corrupt Italian.

[ANTIQUITIES.] Some Roman antiquities are found in this country, but they are not numerous. The ruins of Caesar's wall, which extended eighteen miles in length, from Mount Jura to the banks of lake Lemau, 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.

[HISTORY.] The present Swiss and Grisons, as has been already mentioned, are the descendants of the ancient Helvetii, subdued by Julius

Cæsar. Their mountainous uninviting situation formed a better security for their liberties than their forts or armies. They continued long under little more 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 against the cruelty of their governors. This served only to double the hardships of the people; and one of Albert's Austrian governors, Gresler, 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. The famous William Tell being observed to pass frequently without taking notice of the hat, and being an excellent marksman, the tyrant condemned him to be hanged, unless he cleft an apple upon his son's head, at a certain distance, with an arrow. Tell cleft the apple; and Gresler asking him the meaning of another arrow he saw stuck in his belt, he bluntly answered, that it was intended for his (Gresler'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 foundation of the Helvetic liberty.

It appears, however, that, before this event, the revolt of the Swiss from the Austrian tyranny had been planned by some noble patriots among them. Their measures were so just, and their course so intrepid, that they soon effected a union of several cantons.

Zurich, driven by oppression, sought first an alliance with Lucern, Uri, Schweiz, and Unterwalden, on the principles of mutual defence; and the frequent successes of their arms against Albert, duke of Austria, insensibly formed the grand Helvetic union. They first conquered Glaris and Zug, and admitted them to an equal participation of their rights. Bern united itself in 1353; Freyburg and Soleure 130 years after; Basil and Schaffhausen in 1501; and Appenzel, in 1513, completed the confederacy, which repeatedly defeated the united powers of France and Germany; till, by the treaty of Westphalia, in 1648, their confederacy was declared to be a free and independent state.

Neuchâtel, since the year 1707, has been under the dominion of the king of Prussia; but the inhabitants are free to serve any prince whatever, and by no means bound to take an active part in his wars. The king has the power of recruiting among them, and of naming a governor; but the revenue he derives is not above 5000*l.* yearly, great part of which is laid out on the roads and other public works of the country.

Towards the close of the year 1797, Switzerland fell a prey to the rapacity and ambition of France; the emissaries and partisans of which republic had prepared the way for the subjugation of the country, by exciting among the people a spirit of discontent against the government, especially in the aristocratic republics. That the aristocracies of Switzerland were not entirely blameless, either in their conduct towards their subjects or towards the French, may, perhaps, be true: but if the power of the state, and its very moderate emoluments, were in some, or perhaps the majority, of the cantons, monopolised by a few families, it must still be remembered that their authority was exercised with the utmost moderation, and that the people were contented and happy. The real views of the French directory, in their attack on Switzerland, however they might endeavour to colour them by pretending that they were invited by the people, and that their sole aim was to assert the cause of general liberty, no doubt were to give employment to, and pro-

cure pay and plunder for, their armies; as also to secure the command of a country, the possession of the important posts of which, in case of a renewal of hostilities with the empire, would both secure their frontier, and enable them to attack with much greater advantage.

The first act of hostility on the part of the French was the seizing of the Helvetic part of the bishopric of Basle, of which they took possession under some frivolous pretext, and contrary to an express treaty concluded with the Swiss in the year 1792. The Helvetic body, knowing they were too weak to resist, submitted patiently to this usurpation; but soon after an insurrection which took place in the Pays-de-Vaud, and which, it is not improbable, was produced by the instigation of the agents of France, afforded an opportunity for an interference which soon terminated in the subjection of almost the whole of Switzerland to the French yoke, and almost the entire overthrow of its form of government. In the month of December, the French directory took upon them to demand of the government of Bern, what they termed the restoration of the rights of that people, and the assembling of the states of the Pays-de-Vaud. This demand they immediately prepared to enforce by arms, and general Meynard was ordered to march with a body of 15,000 men, to support the claims of the discontented in that country. The supreme council of Bern, fearful of entering into a contest with the powerful armies of France, on the 5th of January, 1798, issued a proclamation enjoining the citizens of the Pays-de-Vaud to assemble in arms, to renew the oath of allegiance, to proceed to reform the abuses of the government, and to assert and re-establish all their ancient rights. The malcontents, however, encouraged by the protection of the French army, proceeded to open hostilities, and seized on the castle of Chignon. The government of Bern now had recourse to arms, and ordered a body of 20,000 troops, under the command of colonel Weiss, to disperse the insurgents. But the contest was soon decided by the French army under general Meynard, which immediately advanced, while the Swiss retreated, and, by the beginning of February, had taken possession of the whole of the Pays-de-Vaud.

The council of Bern still attempted to negotiate with the French directory; but, at the same time, assembled an army of about 20,000 men, the command of which they gave to M. d'Erlach, formerly a field-marshal in the service of France. This force was joined by the quotas of the other Swiss cantons, amounting to about 5500 men. The directory, however, required that the ancient magistrates of Bern should be dismissed from their offices, and the constitution of the state changed to one more agreeable to democratic principles and the new system of liberty and equality. These conditions the government of Bern absolutely refused to submit to, and sent orders to break off all further negotiations. The directory, alarmed at this appearance of firmness and resistance, and fearing they were not sufficiently prepared, sent general Brune to take the command of their army in the Pays-de-Vaud, with orders to conclude an armistice until he should receive a sufficient reinforcement. Brune, immediately upon his arrival, announced to the senate of Bern, that he came prepared to adjust all differences amicably, and requested that they would send commissioners to treat with him. These were accordingly sent, and an armistice concluded for eight days. But, on the 2d of March, two days, it is affirmed, before the truce agreed on had expired, the castle of Domach, at the northern extremity of the canton of Soleure, was attacked and carried by the French; and,

at the same time, 13,000 men were marched under the walls of Solenre, which capitulated to general Schawenbourg on the first summons. Freyburg was immediately after reduced by general Brune, and the Swiss army was forced to retreat.

The French generals immediately advanced towards Bern, where all was confusion, both in the city and in the army, the left division of which had mutinied, deserted their posts, and put to death some of their officers. The Swiss army was reduced by desertion to 14,000 men, exclusive of a rabble of undisciplined peasants, raised by the *landsturm*, or levy of the country *en masse*. About 8000 of the regular forces were stationed at Neweneg, and 6400 held the position of Frauenbrun, against which general Schawenbourg advanced from Soleure, at the head of 18,000 men. On the morning of the 5th of March, both posts were attacked by the French. The troops of Neweneg repulsed the enemy; but those at Frauenbrun, after a vigorous resistance, were compelled to retreat. M. d'Erlach rallied his men at Uteren, where a second engagement took place, but with no better success on the part of the Swiss. They afterwards, however, made a stand at Grauholtz, about a league and a half from Bern; but were thence driven to the gates of the capital, where, after another severe battle, they were entirely defeated; and, on the evening of the 5th, general Brune entered the city of Bern, by capitulation. The divisions of the Swiss army stationed at Neweneg and Guminen retreated, and the soldiers of the latter column, in a fit of rage and despair, murdered their officers, and, among others, their unfortunate general d'Erlach.

The defeat of the Bernese was followed by the submission of nearly the whole of Switzerland; though the democratic republics still made a stand, defeated general Schawenbourg, and forced him to retire with the loss of 3,000 men, after he had consented to a treaty by which he engaged not to enter the smaller cantons.

After this revolution the Swiss confederacy changed its constitution, and even its name. Provincial governments, under the direction of the French generals, were established in the different districts, and the whole assumed the name of the Helvetic republic. Contributions and requisitions were levied, as usual, by the French commissioners, and the most shocking enormities perpetrated. During the campaign of 1799, the northern part of Switzerland became the seat of war between the Austrians and the French, and the cantons of Schaffhausen and Zurich, especially the latter, suffered the severest distress from the ravages of the contending armies.

When the country, however, was no longer exposed to the horrors of war, and especially after the conclusion of the peace of Lunéville, Switzerland became gradually more reconciled to its new form of government; but this form not perfectly according with the views of Bonaparte, when he had become sovereign dictator in France, he proposed a new constitution to the Swiss, which was accepted by the senate, but gave such offence to the people in general that they flew to arms, appointed commanders, formed magazines, and took the field under several leaders, particularly Aloys Reding, who had distinguished himself in defending his country against the first invasion of the French. They defeated the French troops in several skirmishes, and, after an obstinate conflict under the walls of Bern, obliged that city to capitulate, and forced the members of the government in the interest of the French, to retire to Lausanne. These abject creatures of France applied

to the first consul, who immediately, in answer, signified his resolution of acting as *mediator*, assuring them that his mediation should be efficacious; requiring, at the same time, that deputies from the senate, and from each of the cantons, should meet at Paris to assist in forming a government that might appear less objectionable to the people. The Swiss, fearing the consequences of further resistance, reluctantly acquiesced in the proposal: the deputies met at Paris, the new constitution already described was framed and accepted, Aloys Rœding was appointed landamman of Switzerland, and on these terms tranquillity was restored to the country.

SPAIN.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.

Length 620 } between { 9° 30' West and 3° 20' East longitude.
 Breadth 510 } { 36° and 44° North latitude.

Containing 144,616 square miles, with 70 inhabitants to each.

NAMES.] 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 contained the provinces lying north of the river Iberus, or Ebro; and the Ulterior, which was the largest part, comprehended all that lay beyond that river. The name of Hispania, from which this country has received its different denominations in the modern languages, has been supposed to be derived from Hispan, one of its ancient kings, or from the town of Hispulis, the modern Seville. Bochart derives it from the Phœnician word *spanjah*, a rabbit; those animals having been formerly very numerous here.

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 Pyrenæan mountains, which separate it from France, on the north; and by the strait of the sea at Gibraltar on the south.





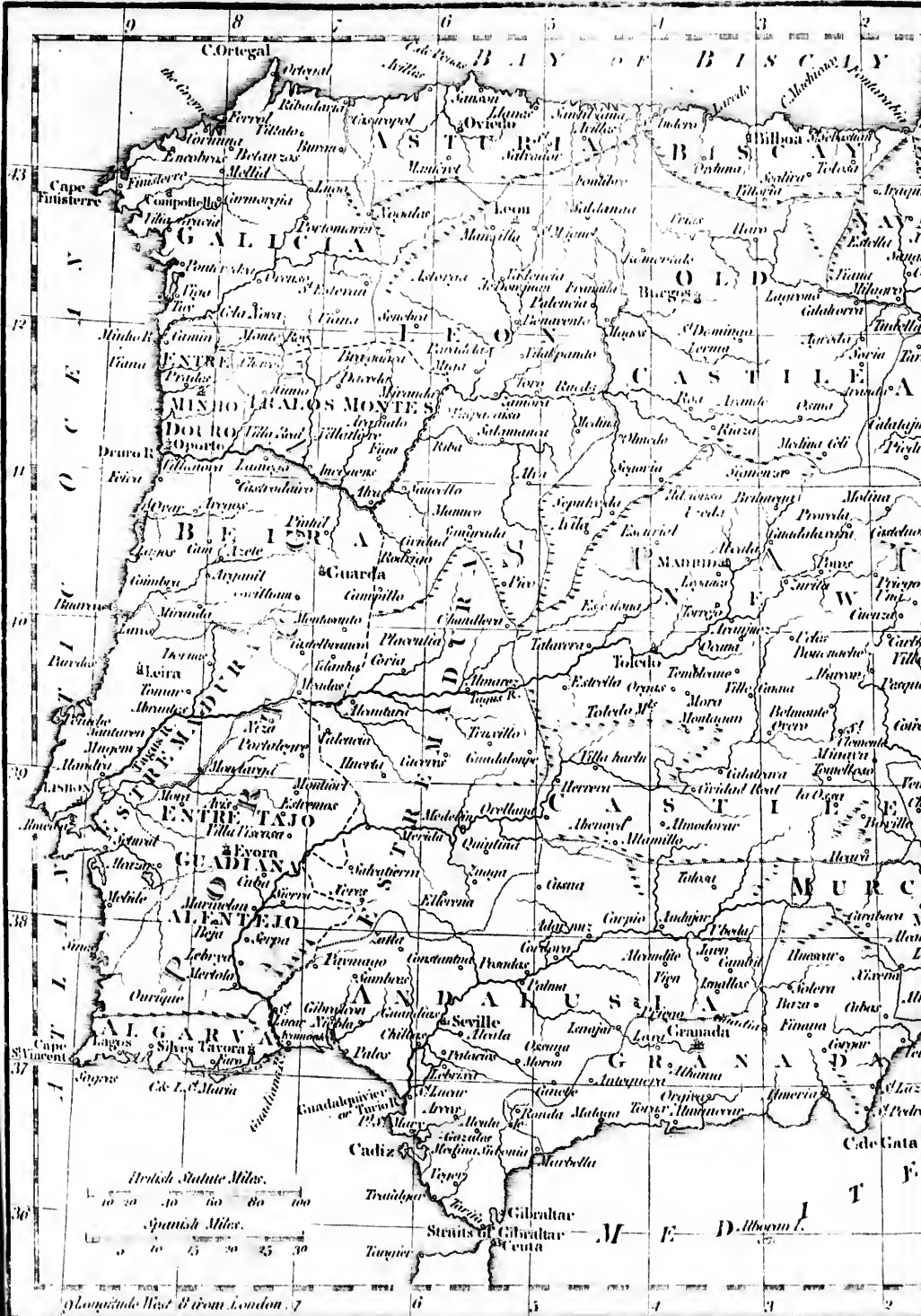
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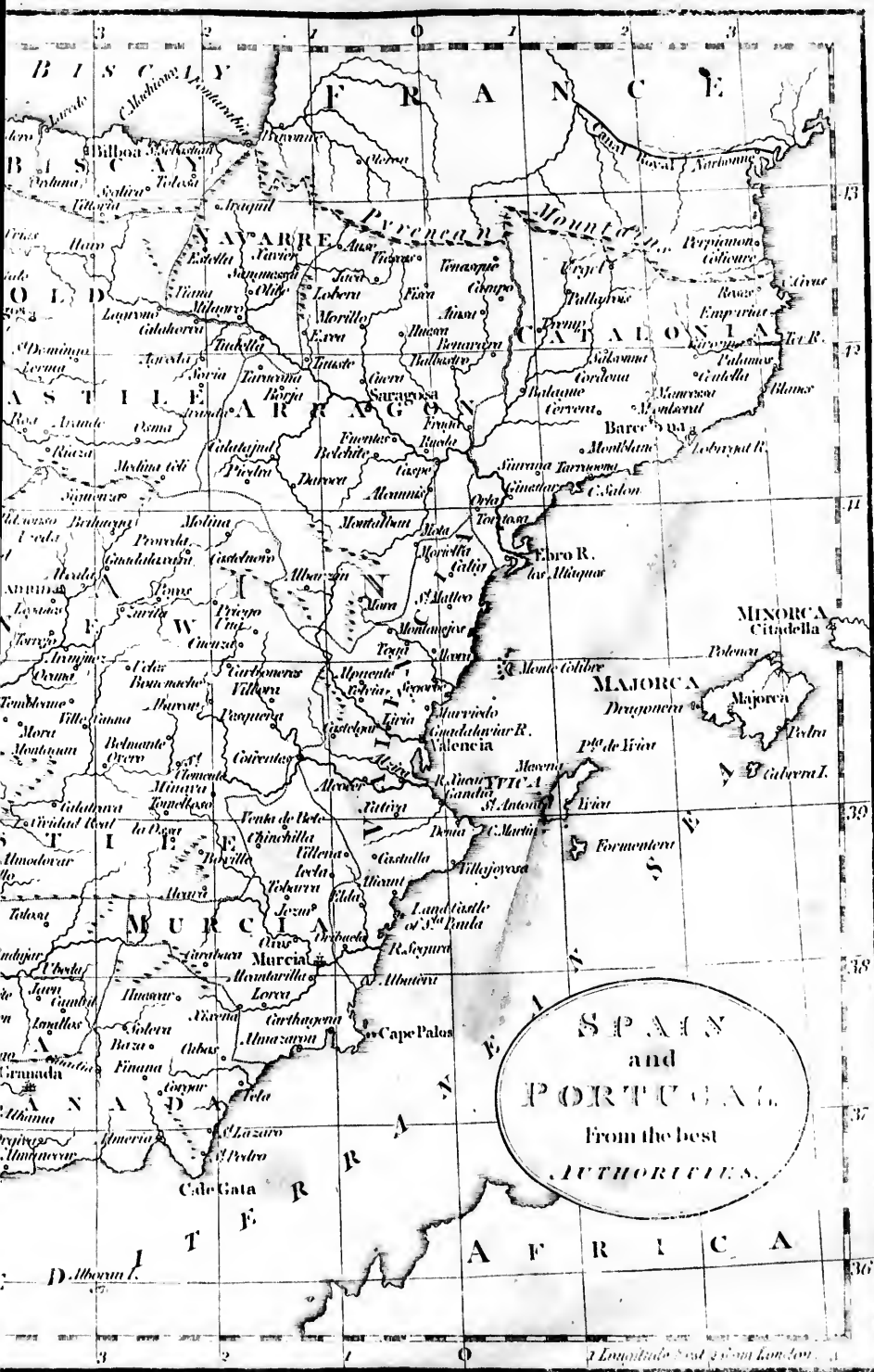
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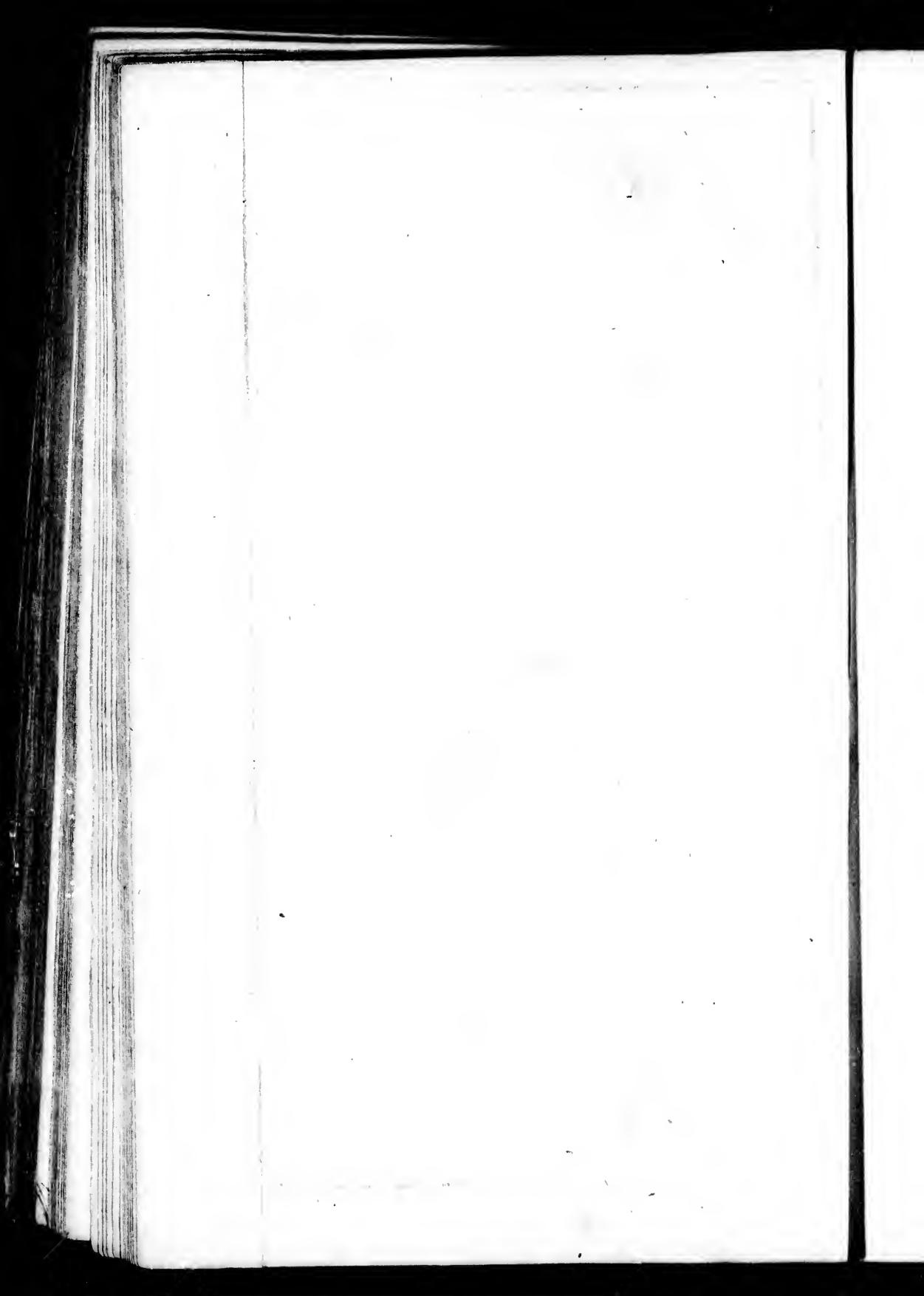
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SPAIN
and
PORTUGAL
From the best
AUTHORITIES.

Longitude West from London



[DIVISIONS.] Spain is divided into fourteen provinces, or districts (almost all of which are styled kingdoms by the Spaniards besides islands in the Mediterranean.

PROVINCES.		Square Miles.	Popula- tion.	Length.	Breadth.	CHIEF CITIES.
SPAIN	Castile, New -	22,400	1,260,000	220	180	MADRID { N. Lat. 39° 25'
	Andalusia -	15,360	1,270,000	273	135	Seville } W. Long. 8° 20'
	Castile, Old -	18,272	1,000,000	198	140	Burgos
	Arragon -	12,272	600,000	190	105	Saragossa
	Estremadura -	10,240	450,000	180	125	Badajoz
	Galicia -	10,400	1,000,000	165	120	Compostella
	Leon -	14,199	1,200,000	197	97	Leon
	Catalonia -	9,230	900,000	172	110	Barcelona
	Granada -	9,280	650,000	200	45	Granada
	Valencia -	7,840	800,000	180	75	Valencia
	Biscay -	2,880	200,000	140	55	Bilboa
	Austuria -	2,288	150,000	124	55	Oviedo
	Murcia -	6,608	500,000	87	65	Murcia
	Upper Navarre	3,200	180,000	92	45	Pampeluna
		144,816	10,160,000			
In the Medi- terranean.	Majorca I. -	1,440	140,000	58	40	Majorca
	Minorca I. -	757	27,500	41	20	Citadella.
	Yvica I. -	560		37	25	Yvica
Total -		147,568	10,327,800			

The town and fortress of Gibraltar, subject to Great Britain.

[FACE OF THE COUNTRY.] Spain in general presents abundant pastures, vineyards, groves of orange-trees, and hills covered with aromatic plants. In some parts are extensive plains, almost destitute of trees and verdure, bounded by ridges of lofty mountains, the summits of which are covered with snow during the greater part of the year.

[MOUNTAINS.] It is next to impossible to specify these, they are so numerous; the chief and the highest, are the Pyrenées, near 200 miles in length, which extend from the Bay of Biscay to the Mediterranean, and divide Spain from France. Over these mountains there are only five narrow passages to France; and the road through the pass that separates Roussillon from Catalonia reflects great honour on the engineer who planned it. It formerly required the strength of thirty men to support, and nearly as many oxen to drag up, a carriage, which four horses now do with ease. The Cantabrian mountains (as they are called) are a kind of continuance of the Pyrenées, 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.

Among the mountains of Spain, Montserrat is particularly worthy the attention of the curious traveller, being one of the most singular in the world, for situation, shape, and composition. It stands in a vast plain, about thirty miles from Barcelona, and nearly in the centre of the principality

of Catalonia. It is called by the Catalonians Monte Serrado, or the sawed mountain; and is so named from its singular and extraordinary form; for it is broken and divided, and crowned with an infinite number of spiring cones, or pine heads, so that it has the appearance, when seen at a distance, of the work of man; but, upon nearer approach, is seen to be evidently the production of nature. It is a spot so admirably adapted for retirement and contemplation, that it has, for many ages, been inhabited only by monks and hermits, whose first vow is never to forsake it. When the mountain is first perceived at a distance, it has the appearance of an infinite number of rocks cut into conical forms, and built one upon another to a prodigious height, and seems like a pile of grotto work, or Gothic spires. Upon a nearer view, each cone appears of itself a mountain: and the whole composes an enormous mass about 14 miles in circumference. The Spaniards compute it to be two leagues in height*. As it is like no other mountain, so it stands quite unconnected with any, though not far distant from some that are very lofty. A convent is erected on the mountain, dedicated to our Lady of Montserrat, to which pilgrims resort from the furthest parts of Europe. All the poor who come here are fed gratis for three days, and all the sick received into the hospital. Sometimes, on particular festivals, seven thousand persons arrive in one day; but people of condition pay a reasonable price for what they eat. On different parts of the mountain are a number of hermitages, all of which have their little chapels, ornaments for saying mass, water cisterns, and most of them little gardens. The inhabitant of one of these hermitages, which is dedicated to St. Benito, has the privilege of making an annual entertainment on a certain day, on which day all the other hermits are invited, when they receive the sacrament from the hands of the mountain vicar, and, after divine service, dine together. They meet also at this hermitage on the days of the saints to whom their several hermitages are dedicated, to say mass, and commune with each other. But at other times they live in a very solitary and recluse manner, perform various penances, and adhere to very rigid rules of abstinence. They never eat flesh; nor are they allowed to keep within their walls either dog, cat, bird, or any living thing, lest their attention should be withdrawn from heavenly to earthly affections. The number of professed monks there is 76, of lay brothers 28, and of singing boys 25; besides physician, surgeon, and servants. Mr. Thicknesse, who has published a very particular description of this extraordinary mountain, was informed by one of the hermits, that he often saw from his habitation the islands of Minorca, Majorca, and Yvica, and the kingdoms of Valencia and Murcia.

Filabres is another remarkable detached mountain, situate about three leagues from Almeria, in the province of Granada. It consists entirely of a single stone, or solid block, of white marble, a league in circuit, and near 700 yards in perpendicular height.

FORESTS.] Spain contains many forests, partly in consequence of the neglect of cultivation, and partly because they have been reserved by the sovereign for the amusement of the chase. That called Pardo is nearly thirty miles in length.

RIVERS, LAKES.] The principal rivers of Spain are the Douro, formerly Durius, which falls into the Atlantic Ocean below Oporto in Por-

* Mr. Swinburne estimates its height at only 3,300 feet; and observes that the arms of the convent arc, the Virgin Mary sitting at the foot of a rock half cut through by a saw.

tugal; the Tajo or Tagus, which falls into the Atlantic Ocean below Lisbon; the Guadiana, which falls into the same ocean near Cape Finisterre; as does the Guadalquivir at St. Lucar; and the Ebro, the ancient Iberus, which flows into the Mediterranean Sea below Tortosa.

The river Tinto, the qualities of which are very extraordinary, rises in Sierra Morena, and empties itself into the Mediterranean near Huelva. The name of Tinto has been given to it from the tinge of its waters, which are as yellow as a topaz, hardening the sand, and petrifying it in a most surprising manner. If a stone happen to fall in, and rest upon another, they both become, in a year's time, perfectly united and conglutinated.—This river withers all the plants on its banks, as well as the roots of trees, which it dyes of the same hue as its waters. No kind of verdure will grow where it reaches, nor any fish live in its stream. It kills worms in cattle when given them to drink; but in general no animals will drink out of this river, excepting goats, whose flesh nevertheless has an excellent flavour. These singular properties continue till other rivulets run into it and alter its nature; for when it passes by Niebla, it is not different from other rivers. It falls into the Mediterranean six leagues lower down.

Several lakes in Spain, particularly that of Beneventa, abound with fish, especially excellent trout. The water of a lake near Antiquera is made into salt by the heat of the sun.

The medical waters of Spain are little known: but many salutiferous springs are found in Granada, Seville, and Cordova. Throughout Spain the waters are found to have such healing qualities, that they are excelled by those of no country in Europe; and they are continually more and more resorted to, especially at Alhamar, in Granada.

CANALS.] Several canals have, of late years, been begun in Spain, but most of them are still in an unfinished state. That of Arragon is intended to form a communication, through the Ebro, from the Bay of Biscay to the Mediterranean. The canal of Castile is to begin at Segovia, about 40 miles to the north of Madrid, and extend to the Bay of Biscay. Other canals have been projected from the Escorial, and from the capital, to the Tagus; the former, it is said, is completed.

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, loadstones, hyacinths, turquois stones, quicksilver, copper, lead, sulphur, alum, calamine, crystal, marbles of several kinds, porphyry, the finest jasper, and even diamonds, emeralds, and amethysts, are found here. At Almaden in La Mancha is a mine of quicksilver, the most ancient known in the world, which produces annually 250 tons of that mineral, and has produced 900. Near Cardona in Catalonia is a mountain of fossil salt, a league in circuit, nearly 500 feet high, and extending downwards to an unknown depth. 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 brought to great perfection. Spanish gun-barrels, and swords of Toledo, are still highly valued. Among 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.

CLIMATE, SOIL, PRODUCE.] Except during the equinoctial rains, the air of Spain is dry and serene, but excessively hot in the southern provinces in June, July, and August. The vast mountains that run through the country, 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.

Such is the moisture of the hills, bounded on the north by the Bay of Biscay, and to the south by snowy mountains, that the utmost care is not sufficient to preserve their fruits, their grain, their instruments of iron, from mould, from rot, and from rust. Both the acetous and the putrid fermentation here make a rapid progress. Besides the relaxing humidity of the climate, the common food of the inhabitants contributes much to the prevalence of most diseases which infect the principality of Asturia. Yet, although subject to such a variety of endemical diseases, few countries can produce more instances of longevity; many live to the age of a hundred, some to a hundred and ten, and others much longer. The same observation may be extended to Galicia, where, in the parish of St. Juan de Poyo, A. D. 1724, the curate administered the sacrament to thirteen persons whose ages together made one thousand four hundred and ninety-nine, the youngest of these being one hundred and ten, and the oldest one hundred and twenty-seven. But in Villa de Fofinanes, one Juan de Outeyro, a poor labourer, died in the year 1726, aged more than one hundred and forty-six years.

The soil of Spain was formerly very fruitful in corn, but the natives have lately found some scarcity of it, by their disuse of tillage, through their indolence; the causes of which will be afterwards explained. 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. The wines of Spain, especially sack and sherry, are in high request among foreigners. There are, in the district of Malaga (according to Mr. Townsend), fourteen thousand wine-presses, chiefly employed in making the rich wine, which, if white, from the nature of the country, is called *Mountain*; if red, from the colour, *vino tinto*, known in England by the name of Tent. Good mountain is sold from thirteen to sixteen pounds the butt, of one hundred and thirty-five gallons, according to quality and age. It is reckoned that from eight hundred to a thousand vessels enter this port every year, of which about one-tenth are Spanish; and the exports in wine, fruit, oil, and fish, are computed at about 375,000*l.* per annum; but they have been considerably more.

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 the soil. Even sugar-canes thrive in Spain; and it yields saffron, honey, and silk, in great abundance. A late writer, Ustariz, a Spaniard, computes the number of shepherds in Spain to be 40,000; 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 of aromatic herbs, which render 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.

VEGETABLES.] Besides the vegetable productions already mentioned, Spain produces excellent wheat, rice, tobacco, and saffron. Thyme, lavender, rosemary, and other aromatic herbs, grow in prodigious abundance both on the mountains and in the valleys. A kind of grass or rush called *esparto*, which is very plentiful in the southern provinces, is made into mats and ropes, and even into fine linen.

ANIMALS.] The Spanish horses, especially those of Andalusia, are thought to be the handsomest of any in Europe, and at the same time are very swift and serviceable. The king endeavours to monopolise the finest breeds for his own stables and service. Spain furnishes likewise mules and black cattle; and the wild bulls have so much ferocity, that the bull-feasts were the most magnificent spectacle the court of Spain could exhibit; nor are they yet disused. Wolves are the chief beasts of prey in Spain, which is well stored with all the game and wild-fowl that are to be found in the neighbouring countries already described. The Spanish seas afford excellent fish of all kinds, especially anchovies, which are here cured in great perfection. This country is much infested with locusts; and Mr. Dillon observes, that, in 1754, La Mancha was covered with them, and the horrors of famine assailed the fruitful provinces of Andalusia, Murcia, and Valencia. They have sometimes appeared in the air in such numbers as to darken the sky; the clear atmosphere of Spain has become gloomy, and the finest summer day in Estremadura been rendered more dismal than the winter of Holland. Their sense of smelling is so delicate, that they can discover a corn field or a garden at a considerable distance; which they will ravage almost in an instant. Mr. Dillon is of an opinion, that the country people, by timely attention and observation, might destroy the eggs of these formidable insects, and thereby totally extirpate them.

NATURAL CURIOSITIES.] Among the natural curiosities, the medicinal springs, and some lakes where extraordinary noises are heard, form a principal part. The river Guadiana, like the Mole in England, runs under ground, and then rises again. It disappears near Alcazar de San Juan, in the country of La Mancha, and, running under ground nearly eight leagues, emerges again at some lakes called the Eyes of the Guadiana. The royal cabinet of natural history, at Madrid, was opened to the public, by his majesty's orders, in 1775. Every thing in this collection is ranged with neatness and elegance, and the apartments are opened twice a week for the public, besides being shown privately to strangers of rank. The mineral part of the cabinet, containing precious stones, marbles, ores, &c. is very perfect: but the collection of birds and beasts at present is not large, though it may be expected to improve rapidly, if care be taken to obtain the productions of the Spanish American colonies. Here is also a curious collection of vases, basins, ewers, cups, plates, and ornamental pieces, of the finest agates, amethysts, rock crystals, &c. mounted in gold and enamel, set with cameos, intaglios. &c. in elegant taste; and of very fine workmanship, said to have been brought from France by Philip V. The cabinet also contains specimens of Mexican and Peruvian vases and utensils.

In blowing up the rock of Gibraltar, many pieces of bones and teeth have been found incorporated with the stone, some of which have been brought to England, and deposited in the British Museum. On the west side of the mountain is the cave called St. Michael's, eleven hundred and ten feet above the horizon. Many pillars, of various sizes, some of

them two feet in diameter, have been formed in it by the droppings of water, which have petrified in falling. The water perpetually drips from the roof, and forms an infinite number of stalactites, of a whitish colour, composed of several coats or crusts, and which, as well as the pillars, continually increase in bulk, and may probably in time fill the whole cavern. From the summit of the rock, in clear weather, not only the town of Gibraltar may be seen, but the bay, the straits, the towns of St. Roque and Algesiras, and the Alpuxara mountains; mount Abylá, on the African shore, with its nsowy top; the cities of Ceuta, Tangier, and great part of the Barbary coast.

POPULATION.] Spain, formerly the most populous kingdom in Europe, is now but thinly inhabited. This is owing partly to the numerous emigrations to America, and partly to the indolence of the natives, who will not labour to raise food for their families. Another cause may be assigned, and that is, the vast numbers of ecclesiastics, of both sexes, who lead a life of celibacy. Some writers have assigned several other causes, such as the wars with the Moors, and the final expulsion of that people. The present inhabitants of this kingdom have been computed, by some authors, at 13 millions, and by others at 11. Feýjoo, a Spanish writer, estimates them at only 9,250,000. According to an enumeration, arranged in classes, given by Mr. Townsend, they amounted, in 1787, to 10,268,250; which corresponds with sufficient accuracy to the total of the population of the different provinces before given from the statistical tables of Bætticher. England is therefore much more than twice as populous as Spain, considering its extent.

NATIONAL CHARACTER, } The persons of the Spaniards are gene-
MANNERS, CUSTOMS. } rally 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 mustaches, and to introduce among them the French dress, instead of their black cloaks, their short jerkins, strait 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 entirely, as the same spirit is far from being extinguished. An old Castilian, or Spaniard, who sees none above him, thinks himself the most important being in nature; and the same pride is commonly communicated to his descendants. This is the true reason why 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 nearly 100 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 surprising, as Philip V. was often needy, and his ministers were far from being scrupulous of breaking their good faith with Great Britain.

From the best and most credible accounts of the late wars, it appears, that the Spaniards in America gave the most humane and noble relief to all British subjects who were in distress and fell into their hands, not only

by supplying them with necessaries, but money; and treating them in the most hospitable manner while they remained among them.

Having said thus much, we are carefully to distinguish the Spanish nobility, gentry, and traders, from 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 master with all Europe, till he was driven into exile and disgrace; and Grimaldi, the last of their Italian ministers, hazarded a rebellion in the capital, by his oppressive and unpopular measures.

The common people who live on the coasts partake of all the bad qualities that are to be found in other nations. They are an assemblage of Jews, French, Russians, Irish adventurers, and English smugglers, who, being unable to live in their own country, mingle with the Spaniards.—In time of war, they follow privateering with great success; and when peace returns, they engage in all illicit practices, and often enter into the Irish and Walloon guards in the Spanish service. There are about 40,000 gypsies, who, besides their trade of fortune-telling, are inn-keepers in the small towns and villages. The character of the Spaniards is thus drawn by Mr. Swinburne. “The Catalans appear to be the most active stirring set of men, the best calculated for business, travelling, and manufactures. The Valencians are a more sullen sedate race, better adapted to the occupations of husbandmen, less eager to change place, and of a much more timid, suspicious cast of mind than the former. The Andalusians seem to be the greatest talkers and rhodomontaders of Spain. The Castilians have a manly frankness, and less appearance of cunning and deceit. The New Castilians are, perhaps, the least industrious of the whole nation; the Old Castilians are laborious, and retain more of the ancient simplicity of manners;—both are of a firm determined spirit. The Arragonese are a mixture of the Castilian and Catalan, rather inclining to the former. The Biscayners are acute and diligent, fiery and impatient of control, more resembling a colony of republicans than a province of an absolute monarchy; and the Galicians are a plodding pains-taking race of mortals, that roam over Spain in search of a hardly-earned subsistence.”

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 mostly small and slender; but they are said to employ great art in supplying the defects of nature.—If we were to hazard a conjecture, we might reasonably suppose that those artifices rather diminish than increase 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.

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, sallad, and radishes; which, according to one of their proverbs, are food for a gentleman. The men drink very little wine; and the women use water or chocolate. Both sexes usually sleep after dinner, and take the air in the cool of the evening. This is the common practice in warm countries, such as Italy, Spain, and Portugal, where, generally speaking, the weather is clear, and the inhabitants are mostly in the habit of rising much earlier than in England: The human body cannot furnish spirits sufficient to resist the effects of the violent heat, through the whole day, without some such refreshment; it is, therefore, the universal practice to go to sleep for some hours after dinner, which in those countries is over early; and this time of repose, which lasts for two or three hours, is in Spain called *the Siesta*, and in Portugal *the Sesta*. Dancing is so much their favourite entertainment, that you may see a grandmother, mother, and daughter, all in the same country-dance. Many of their theatrical exhibitions are insipid and ridiculous bombast. The prompter's head sometimes appears through a trap-door; above the level of the stage, and he reads the play loud enough to be heard by the audience. 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 feasts, 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 showing 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, which is attended with circumstances of great barbarity, is undoubtedly of Moorish original, and was adopted by the Spaniards when upon good terms with that nation, partly through complaisance, and partly through rivalship.

There is not a town in Spain but what has a large square for the purpose of exhibiting bull-fights; and it is said, that even the poorest inhabitants of the smallest villages will often club together, in order to procure a cow or an ox, and fight them, riding upon asses for want of horses.

[CITIES, CHIEF TOWNS, EDIFICES.] Madrid, though unfortified, it being only surrounded by a mud wall, is the capital of Spain, and contains about 150,000 inhabitants. It is surrounded with very lofty mountains, whose summits are frequently covered with snow. It is well paved and lighted, and some of the streets are spacious and handsome. The houses of Madrid are of brick, and are laid out chiefly for show, convenience being little considered: thus you will usually pass through two or three large apartments of no use, in order to come at a small room at the end where the family sit. The houses in general look more like prisons than the habitations of people at their liberty; the windows, besides having a balcony, being grated with iron bars, particularly the lower range, and sometimes all the rest. Separate families generally inhabit the same house, as in Paris and Edinburgh. Foreigners are very much distressed for lodgings at Madrid, as the Spaniards are not fond of taking strangers into their houses, especially if they are not catholics. Its greatest excellency is the cheapness of its provisions; but neither tavern, coffee-house, nor newspaper, excepting the Madrid Gazette,

is to be found in the whole city. The royal palace stands on an eminence, on the west side of the city: it is a spacious magnificent structure, consisting of three courts, and commands a very fine prospect. Each of the fronts is 470 feet in length, and 100 high, and there is no palace in Europe fitted up with greater magnificence; the great audience-chamber especially, which is 120 feet long, and hung with crimson velvet richly embroidered with gold: it is ornamented also with 12 looking-glasses made at St. Ildefonso, each ten feet high, and with 12 tables of the finest Spanish marble. The other royal palaces round it are designed for hunting seats, or houses of retirement for their kings. Some of them contain fine paintings and good statues. The chief of those palaces are the Buen Retiro (now stripped of all its best pictures and furniture), Casa del Campo, Aranjuez, and St. Ildefonso.

A late traveller has represented the palace of Aranjuez, and its gardens, as extremely delightful. Here is also a park many leagues round, intersected, in different parts, by alleys of two, three, and even four miles extent. Each of those alleys is formed by two double rows of elm-trees; one double row on the right, and one on the left, which renders the shade thicker. The alleys are wide enough to admit four coaches abreast, and betwixt each double row there is a narrow channel, through which runs a stream of water. Between these alleys there are thick groves of smaller trees of various kinds; and thousands of deer and wild boars wander there at large, besides numberless hares, rabbits, pheasants, partridges, and several other kinds of birds. The river Tagus runs through this place, and divides it into two unequal parts. The central point of this great park is the king's palace, which is partly surrounded by the garden, and is exceedingly pleasant, adorned with fountains and statues; and it also contains a vast variety of the most beautiful flowers, both American and European. As to the palace of Aranjuez itself, it is rather an elegant than a magnificent building.

The palace of St. Ildefonso is built of brick, plastered and painted, but no part of the architecture is agreeable. It is two stories high, and the garden front has thirty-one windows, and twelve rooms in a suit. The gardens are on a slope, on the top of which is a great reservoir of water, called here *El Mar* (the sea), which supplies the fountains: this reservoir is furnished from the torrents which pour down the mountains. The water-works are excellent, and far surpass those at Versailles. The great entry of the palace is somewhat similar to that of Versailles, and with a large iron palisade. In the gardens are twenty-seven fountains; the basins are of white marble, and the statues, many of which are excellent, are of lead, bronzed and gilt. These gardens are in the formal French style, but ornamented with sixty-one very fine marble statues, as large as the life, with twenty-eight marble vases, and twenty leaden vases gilt. The upper part of the palace contains many valuable paintings, and the lower part antique statues, busts, and basso-relievos.

The pride of Spain, however, is the Escorial; and the natives say, perhaps with justice, that the building of it cost more than that of any other palace in Europe. The description of this palace forms a sizable quarto volume; and it is said that Philip II., who was its founder, expended upon it six millions of ducats. It is situate about twenty miles from Madrid, in a deep recess at the foot of the Guadarama mountains. It contains a prodigious number of windows, 200 in the west front, and in the east 360; and the apartments are decorated with an astonishing variety of paintings, sculpture, tapestry, ornaments of gold and silver, marble, jasper, gems, and other curious stones. This building,

besides its palace, contains a church, large, and richly ornamented; a mausoleum, cloisters, a convent, a college, and a library containing about thirty thousand volumes; but it is more particularly valuable for the Arabic and Greek manuscripts with which it is enriched. Above the shelves are paintings in fresco, by Barthelemi Carducho, the subjects of which are taken from sacred or profane history, or have relation to the sciences of which the shelves below present to us the elements. Thus, the council of Nice is represented above the books which treat of theology; the death of Archimedes, at the siege of Syracuse, indicates those which relate to the mathematics; and Cicero pronouncing his oration in favour of Rabirius, the works relative to eloquence and the bar. A very singular circumstance in this library may be agreeable to the curious reader to know, which is, that, on viewing the books, he will find them placed the contrary way, so that the edges of the leaves are outwards, and contain their titles written on them. The reason for this custom is, that Arius Montanus, a learned Spaniard of the sixteenth century, whose library had served as a foundation for that of the Escorial, had all his books placed and inscribed in that manner, which no doubt appeared to him to be the most commodious method of arranging them. He introduced his own method into the Escorial; and since his time, and for the sake of uniformity, it has been followed with respect to the books afterwards added. Here are also 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 in number 200, 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. It is thirty-six feet in diameter, and incrusted with fine marbles.

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 was dedicated, was broiled on such an utensil, and multiplying the same figure through its principal ornaments upon the doors, windows, altars, rituals, and sacerdotal habits, 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. Quentin, on St. Laurence's day, in the year 1557. The apartment where the king resides, forms the handle of the gridiron. The building is a long square of 640 feet by 580. The height of the roof is 60 feet. It has been enriched and adorned by his successors, but its outside has a gloomy appearance, and the inside is composed of different structures, some of which are master-pieces of architecture, but forming a disagreeable whole. It must, however, be confessed, that the pictures and statues that have found admission here are excellent in their kind, and some of them not to be equalled even in Italy itself.

Cadiz is the great emporium of Spanish commerce. It stands on an island separated from the continent of Andalusia, without the Straits of Gibraltar, by a very narrow arm of the sea, over which a fortified bridge is thrown, and joins it to the main land. The entrance into the bay is about 500 fathoms wide, and guarded by two forts, called the

Puntals. The 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. The streets are narrow, ill paved, and filthy, and full of rats in the night; the houses lofty, with flat roofs, and few are without a turret for a view of the sea. The population has been reckoned at 140,000 inhabitants, of which 12,000 are French, and as many Italians. The cathedral has been already 50 years building, and the roof is not yet finished. The environs are beautifully rural.

Cordova is now an inconsiderable place; the streets are crooked and dirty, and but few of the public or private buildings conspicuous for their architecture. The palaces of the inquisition and of the bishop are extensive and well situated. The cathedral was formerly a mosque divided into seventeen aisles by rows of columns of various marbles, and is very rich in plate; four of the silver candlesticks cost 850*l.* a-piece. The revenue of the see amounts to 3500*l.* per annum, but as the bishops cannot devise by will, all they die possessed of escheats to the king.

Seville, the Julia of the Romans, is, next to Madrid, the largest city in Spain, but is greatly decayed both in riches and population. The number of inhabitants, however, is still estimated at 80,000. The shape is circular, and the walls seem of Moorish construction; its circumference is five miles and a half. The suburb of Triana is as large as many towns, and remarkable for its gloomy Gothic castle, where, in 1481, the inquisition was first established in Spain. Its manufactures in wool and silk, which formerly amounted to 10,000, are now reduced to 400; and its great office of commerce to Spanish America, is removed to Cadiz. The cathedral of Seville is a fine Gothic building, with a curious steeple or tower, having a movable figure of a woman at the top, called *La Giralda*, which turns round with the wind, and which is referred to in *Don Quixote*. This steeple is reckoned one of the greatest curiosities in Spain, and is higher than *St. Paul's* in London; but the cathedral, in *Mr. Swinburne's* opinion, is by no means equal to *York minster* for lightness, elegance, or Gothic delicacy. The first clock made in the kingdom was set up in this cathedral, in the year 1400, in the presence of king *Henry III.* The prospect of the country round this city, beheld from the steeple of the cathedral, is extremely delightful.

Barcelona, formerly *Barcino*, said to be founded by *Hamilear Barca*s, is a large circular trading city, containing 15,000 houses, situated on the Mediterranean, facing *Minorca*, and is said to be the handsomest place in Spain; the houses are lofty and plain, and the streets well lighted and paved. The citadel is strong, and the place and inhabitants famous for the siege they sustained, in 1714, against a formidable army, when deserted both by England and the emperor, for whom they had taken up arms. The number of inhabitants is supposed to be nearly 150,000, and they supply Spain with most of the clothing and arms for the troops. A singular custom prevails among them: on the 1st of November, the eve of *All Souls*, they run about from house to house to eat chestnuts, believing that for every chestnut they swallow, with proper faith and unction, they shall deliver a soul out of purgatory.

Valencia is a large and almost circular city, with lofty walls. The streets are crooked and narrow, and not paved; the houses ill built and filthy, and most of the churches tawdry. Priests, nuns, and friars, of every dress, swarm in this city, whose inhabitants are computed at 80,000. Its archbishopric is one of the best in Spain; its revenue amounting to about 40,000*l.* sterling a year.

Carthagena is a large city, but has few good streets, and fewer remarkable buildings. The port is very complete, formed by nature in the figure of a heart, and the arsenal is a spacious square south-west of the town, with 40 pieces of cannon to defend it towards the sea. When Mr. Swinburne visited it in 1775, there were 800 Spanish criminals, and 600 Barbary slaves, working at the pumps, to keep the docks dry, &c., and treated with great inhumanity. The crimes for which the Spaniards were sent there deserved, indeed, exemplary punishment.

Granada stands on two hills, and the ancient palace of the Alhambra crowns the double summit between two rivers, the Douro, and the Xenil. The former glories of this city are passed away with its old inhabitants; the streets are now filthy, the aqueducts crumbled to dust, and its trade lost. Of 50,000 inhabitants, only 18,000 are reckoned useful; the surplus is made up of clergy, lawyers, children, and beggars. The amphitheatre for bull-feasts is built of stone, and one of the best in Spain. The environs of the city are still pleasing and healthful.

Bilboa is situate on the banks of the river Ybaizabal, and is about two leagues from the sea. It contains about eight hundred houses, with a large square by the water side, well shaded with pleasant walks, which extend to the outlets on the banks of the river, where there are great numbers of houses and gardens, which form a most pleasing prospect, particularly in sailing up the river; for, besides the beautiful verdure, numerous objects open gradually to the eye, and the town appears as an amphitheatre, which enlivens the landscape, and completes the scenery. The houses are solid and lofty, the streets well paved and level, and the water is so conveyed into the streets, that they may be washed at pleasure, which renders Bilboa one of the neatest towns in Europe.

Malaga is an ancient city, and not less remarkable for its opulence and extensive commerce, than for the luxuriance of its soil, yielding in great abundance the most delicious fruits; whilst its rugged mountains afford those luscious grapes which give such reputation to the Malaga wine, known in England by the name of Mountain. The city is large and populous, and of a circular form, surrounded with a double wall, strengthened by stately towers, and has nine gates. A Moorish castle, on the point of a rock, commands every part of it. The streets are narrow: and the most remarkable building in it is a stupendous cathedral, begun by Philip II., said to be as large as that of St. Paul's, in London. The bishop's income is 10,000*l.* sterling.

The city of Salamanca is of a circular form, built on three hills and two valleys, and on every side surrounded with prospects of fine houses, noble seats, gardens, orchards, fields, and distant villages; and is ancient, large, rich, and populous. There are ten gates to this city, and it contains twenty-five churches, twenty-five convents of friars, and the same number of nunneries. The most beautiful part of this city is the great square, built about forty years ago. The houses are of three stories, and all of equal height and exact symmetry, with iron balconies, and a stone balustrade on the top of them: the lower part is arched, and forms a piazza all round the square, which extends two hundred and ninety-three feet on each side. Over some of the arches are medallions, with busts of the kings of Spain, and several eminent men, in stone basso-relieve, among which are those of Ferdinando Cortez, Francis Pizarro, Davilla, and Cid Ruy. In this square the bull-fights are exhibited, for three days only, in the month of June. The river Tormes runs by this city, and has a bridge over it of twenty-five arches, built by the Romans, and yet entire.

Toledo is one of the most ancient cities in Spain, and during several centuries it held the rank of its metropolis. But the neighbourhood of Madrid has by degrees stripped it of its numerous inhabitants, and it would have been almost entirely deserted but for its cathedral, the income of which being in great part spent here, contributes chiefly to the maintenance of the few thousands that are left, and assists, in some degree, these small manufactures of sword-blades and silk-stuffs that are established in this city. It is now exceedingly ill-built, poor, and mean.

Burgos was the ancient capital of the kingdom of Castille, but now in obscurity. The cathedral is one of the most magnificent structures of the Gothic kind, now in Europe. Its form is exactly the same as that of York minster, and on the east end is an octagon building, exactly like the chapter-house at York.

Gibraltar, once a celebrated town and fortress of Andalusia, is at present in possession of Great Britain. Till the arrival of the Saracens in Spain, which took place in 711, or 712, the rock of Gibraltar went by the name of *Mons Calpe*. On their arrival, a fortress was built upon it, and it obtained the name of *Gibel Tariff*, or Mount Tariff, from the name of their general, and thence Gibraltar. It was in the possession of the Spaniards and Moors by turns, till it was taken from the former by a combined fleet of English and Dutch ships, under the command of sir George Rooke, in 1704, and this rather through accident than any thing else. The prince of Hesse, with 1800 men, landed on the isthmus; but an attack on that side was found to be impracticable, on account of the steepness of the rock. The fleet fired 15,000 shot, without making any impression on the works; so that the fortress seems to be equally impregnable both to the British and Spaniards, except by famine. At last, a party of sailors, having got merry with grog, rowed close under the New Mole in their boats; and as they saw that the garrison, which consisted only of 100 men, did not mind them, they were encouraged to attempt a landing; and having mounted the mole, hoisted a red jacket as a signal of possession. This being immediately observed from the fleet, more boats and sailors were sent out, who, in like manner, having ascended the works, got possession of a battery, and soon obliged the town to surrender. After many fruitless attempts to recover it, it was confirmed to the English by the treaty of Utrecht, in 1713. Repeated attempts have since been made to wrest it from England, but without success; the war preceding the last rendered it more famous than ever, when it underwent a long siege against the united forces of Spain and France, by land and sea, and was gallantly defended by general Elliot and his garrison, to the great loss and disgrace of the assailants; though it must be granted the place is by nature almost impregnable. Near 300 pieces of cannon, of different bores, and chiefly brass, which were sunk before the port in the floating batteries, were raised and sold, to be distributed among the garrison. It is a commodious port, and formed naturally for commanding the passage of the Straits, or, in other words, the entrance into the Mediterranean and Levant seas. But the road is neither safe against an enemy nor storms: the bay is about twenty leagues in circumference. The straits are 34 miles long, and 15 broad, through which sets a current from the Atlantic Ocean into the Mediterranean, and for the stemming of it a brisk gale is required. The town was neither large nor beautiful, and in the last siege was totally destroyed by the enemies' bombs; but on account of its fortifications is esteemed the key of Spain, and is always furnished with a garrison well provided for

its defence. The harbour is formed by a mole, which is well fortified and planted with guns. Gibraltar is accessible on the land side only by a narrow passage between the rock and the sea; but that is walled and fortified both by art and nature, and so enclosed by high steep hills, as to be almost inaccessible. It has but two gates on that side, and as many towards the sea. Across this isthmus the Spaniards have drawn a fortified line, chiefly with a view to hinder the garrison of Gibraltar from having any intercourse with the country behind them; notwithstanding which they carry on a clandestine trade, particularly in tobacco, of which the Spaniards are exceedingly fond. The garrison is, however, confined within very narrow limits; and, as the ground produces scarcely any thing, all their provisions are brought them either from England, or from Ceuta on the opposite coast of Barbary. Formerly Gibraltar was entirely under military government; but that power producing those abuses which are naturally attendant on it, the parliament thought proper to erect it into a body corporate, and the civil power is now lodged in its magistrates.

The chief islands belonging to Spain in Europe are Minorca, Majorca, and Yviza, pronounced Eviza. Minorca, which was taken by the English in 1708, under general Stanhope, and confirmed to Great Britain by the treaty of Utrecht, 1713, was re-taken by the Spaniards, February 15, 1782, and is now a Spanish island again, containing about 27,000 inhabitants.

[COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The Spaniards, unhappily for themselves, make gold and silver the chief branches both of their exports and imports. They import these metals from America, and afterwards export them to other countries of Europe. Cadiz is the chief emporium of this commerce. "Hither," says Mr. Anderson, in his History of Commerce, "other European nations send their merchandise to be shipped off in Spanish bottoms for America, sheltered (or, as our old English phrase has it, coloured) under the names of the 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 store-houses 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 merchandises exported from Cadiz to America, are of no great value; but the duty on the foreign merchandise 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."

At St. Ildesonso the glass manufacture is carried on to a degree of perfection unknown in England. The largest mirrors are made in a brass frame, 162 inches long, 93 wide, and six deep, weighing near nine tons. These are designed wholly for the royal palaces, and for presents from the king. Yet even for such purposes it is ill placed, and proves a devouring monster in a country where provisions are dear, fuel scarce, and carriage exceedingly expensive. Here is also a royal manufacture of linen, employing about fifteen looms; by which it is said the king is a considerable loser.

In the city of Valencia there is a very respectable silk manufacture, in which five thousand looms, and three hundred stocking frames, give employment to upwards of 20,000 of the inhabitants, without enumerating those who exercise professions relative to the manufacture, such as persons who prepare the wood and iron work of so great a number

of machines, or spin, wind, or dye the silk. At Alcora, in the neighbourhood of Valencia, a manufacture of porcelain has been successfully established; and they very much excel in painted tiles. In Valencia, their best apartments are floored with these, and are remarkable for neatness, for coolness, and for elegance. They are stronger and much more beautiful than those of Holland.

At Carthagea they make great quantities of the *esparto* ropes and cables, some of them spun like hemp, and others plaited. Both operations are performed with singular rapidity. These cables are excellent, because they float on the surface of the water, and are not therefore liable to be cut by the rocks on a foul coast. The *esparto* rush makes good mats for houses, *alpargates*, or short trousers and buskins for peasants, and latterly it has been spun into fine thread for the purpose of making cloth. If properly encouraged, there is no doubt that the manufacture may be brought to such perfection as to make this once useless rush a source of abundant wealth to the southern provinces of Spain, for it is the peculiar and natural production of all the high and uncultivated mountains of the south.

As to the hempen cordage which is made in Spain for the use of the royal navy, M. de Bourgoanne observes, that it is better and more durable than that of the principal dock-yards and magazines in Europe: because, in combing the hemp, all the towy part we leave in it is taken out, and made use of in caulking; whence results the double advantage of more solid cordage, and the better caulking of vessels. Another custom in our rope-yards, which the Spaniards have avoided adopting, is the tarring the cordage, and keeping it a long time piled up. In this state the tar ferments, and eats the hemp, and the cordage is extremely apt to break after being used but a short space of time.

The Spaniards formerly obtained their hemp from the north; at present they are able to do without the assistance, in this article, of any other nation. The kingdom of Granada already furnishes them with the greatest part of the hemp they use; and in case of need, they may have recourse to Arragon and Navarre. All the sail-cloth and cordage in the magazines at Cadiz are made with Spanish hemp, the texture of which is even, close, and solid.

The most important production of this country, and the most valuable article of commerce, is barilla, a species of pot-ash, procured by burning a great variety of plants almost peculiar to the kingdoms of Valencia and Murcia, such as *soza*, *algazul*, *suzon*, *sayennes*, *salicornia*, with *barilla*. It is used for making soap, for bleaching, and for glass. All the nations in Europe, by the combustion of various vegetable substances, make some kind of pot-ash; but the superior excellence of the barilla has hitherto secured the preference. The country producing it is about sixty leagues in length, and eight in breadth, on the borders of the Mediterranean. The quantity exported annually from Spain (according to the testimonies of both Mr. Townshend and M. de Bourgoanne) is about a hundred and fifty quintals, most of which are sent to France and England, and a small quantity to Genoa and Venice.

Spain is one of the richest countries in Europe in salt-petre, a most important article of commerce. The account of this surprising manufacture we shall abridge from Mr. Townshend:—"I observed," says he, "a large enclosure, with a number of mounds of about twenty feet high, at regular distances from each other. These were collected from the rubbish of the city of Madrid, and the scrapings of the highways. They had remained all the winter piled up in the manner in which I

found them. At this time men were employed in wheeling them away, and spreading abroad the earth to the thickness of about one foot, whilst others were turning what had been previously exposed to the influence of the sun and air. The preceding summer these heaps had been washed, and being thus exposed, would yield the same quantity of salt again; and, as far as appears, the produce would never fail: but, after having been washed, no salt-petre can be obtained without a subsequent exposure. Some of this earth they can lixivate once a year, some they have washed twenty times in the last seven years, and some they have subjected to this operation fifteen times in one year, judging always by their eye when they may wash it to advantage, and by their taste if it has yielded a lixivium of a proper strength; from which, by evaporating the water in boiling, they obtain the salt-petre."

The other manufactures of Spain are chiefly wool, copper, and hardware. Great efforts have been made by the government, to prevent the 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 merchandise. Meanwhile, 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 any active European nation: but of this subject there will be occasion to speak in the account of America.

[CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Spain, from being the most free, is now the most despotic kingdom in Europe; and the poverty which is so visible in most parts of the country is in a great degree the result of its government, in the administration of which no proper attention is paid to the interests and welfare of the people. 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 Castille, had greater power and privileges than those 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 *junto*, 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 cognisance of military affairs only. The council of Castille is the highest law tribunal of the kingdom. The several courts of the royal audieñces are those of Galicia, Seville, Majorca, the Canaries, Saragossa, Valencia, and Barcelona. These judge primarily in all causes within fifteen miles of their respective cities or capitals, and receive appeals from inferior jurisdictions. Besides these there are many subordinate tribunals, for the police, the finances, and other branches of the administration.

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, and 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 viceroalties of Peru and Mexico are so considerable, that they are seldom trusted to one person for more than three years; and their emoluments are sufficient to make his fortune in that time.

The foreign possessions of the crown of Spain, besides those in America, are the towns of Ceuta, Oran, and Masulquiver, on the coast of Barbary, in Africa; and the islands of St. Lazaro, the Philippines, and Ladrones, in Asia.

REVENUES.] The revenues arising to the king from Old Spain, yearly, amount to about 5,000,000*l.* 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 finds means, however, in case of a war, or public emergency, to sequester into his own hands great part of the American treasures belonging to his subjects; who never complain, because they are always punctually repaid with interest. The finances of his present catholic majesty are in better order, both for himself and his people, than those of the greater part of his predecessors.

As to the taxes whence the internal revenues arise, they are various, arbitrary, and so much suited to conveniency that we cannot state them with any certainty. They are laid 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 70,000; but in case of war they amount, without prejudice to the kingdom, to 110,000. The great dependence of the king, however, is upon his Walloon or foreign guards. His present catholic majesty has been at great care and expense to raise a powerful marine; and his fleet in Europe and America, though it has suffered considerably by the late war with England, may still consist of about fifty ships of the line and as many frigates. All along the coast of Spain are watch-towers from mile to mile, with lights and guards at night: so that from Cadiz to Barcelona, and from Bilbao to Ferrol, the whole kingdom may be soon alarmed in case of an invasion.

ROYAL ARMS, TITLES, NO- } Spain formerly comprehended twelve
BILITY, AND ORDERS. } kingdoms, all of 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 Castille; and in the uppermost on the left, and the lowest on the right, are three lions gules, for Leon; with three lilies in the centre for Anjou.

The general name for those Spanish nobility and gentry who are unmixed with the Moorish blood, is Hidalgo. They are divided into princes, dukes, marquises, counts, viscounts, and other inferior titles. Such as are created grantees 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 grantees, to appear covered before the king.

The "Order of the *Golden Fleece*," particularly described before in the orders of Germany, is generally conferred on princes and sovereign dukes: but the Spanish branch of it has many French and Italian nobility; there are no commanderies or revenues annexed to it.

The "Order of *St. James*," or *St. Jago de Compostella*, is the richest of all the orders of Spain. It was divided into two branches, each under grand master; but the office of both was given, by pope Alexander VI., to the kings of Spain and Portugal as grand masters in their respective dominions. The order is highly esteemed in Spain, and only conferred on persons of noble families. The same may be said of the "Order of *Calatrava*," first instituted by Sanchio, king of Toledo: it took its name from the castle of Calatrava, which was taken from the Moors, and here began the order, which became very powerful. Their number, influence, and possessions, were so considerable as to excite the jealousy of the crown, to which, at length, their revenues, and the office of grand master, were annexed, by pope Innocent VIII. The celebrated "Order of *Alcantara*" derived its origin from the order of St. Julian, or of the Pear-tree; but after Alcantara was taken from the Moors, and made the chief residence of the order, they assumed the name of knights of the order of Alcantara, and laid aside the old device of the pear-tree. This order is highly esteemed, and conferred only on persons of ancient and illustrious families. The "Order of the *Lady of Mercy*" is said to have been instituted by James I., king of Arragon, about the year 1218, on account of a vow made by him to the Virgin Mary, during his captivity in France, and was designed for the redemption of captives from the Moors, in which were expended large sums of money. It was first confined to men, but a lady of Barcelona afterwards got women included in it. This order possesses considerable revenues in Spain. The "Order of *Montesa*" was instituted at Valencia, at the close of the thirteenth century, in the place of the Templars, and enjoyed their possessions. Their chief seat being the town of Montesa, the order from thence derived its name, and chose St. George for their patron. In the year 1771, the late king instituted, after his own name, the "Order of *Charles III.*" in commemoration of the birth of the infant. The badge is a star of eight points, enamelled white, and edged with gold: in the centre of the cross is the image of the Virgin Mary: vestments, white and blue. On the reverse, the letters C. C. with the number III. in the centre, and this motto, *Virtuti et Merito*. None but persons of noble descent can belong to this order.

RELIGION.] The Romish religion is the only one tolerated in Spain. The inquisition is a tribunal disgraceful to human nature; but though disused, it is not yet abrogated; but the ecclesiastics and their officers can carry no sentence into execution without the royal authority. The Spaniards

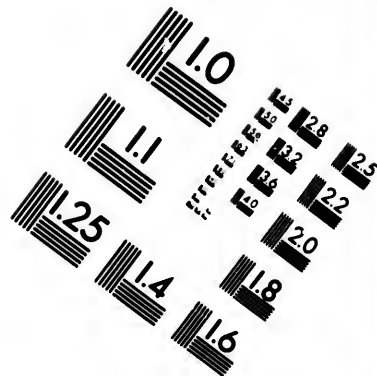
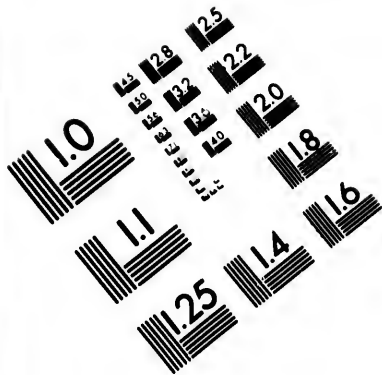
embrace and practise the Roman-catholic religion with all its absurdities; and in this they have been so steady that their king is distinguished by the epithet of *Most Catholic*. It appears, however, that the burning zeal which distinguished their ancestors above the rest of the catholic world, has lost much of its activity, and seems nearly extinguished; and the power of the clergy has been much reduced of late years. A royal edict has also been issued, to prevent the admission of novices into the different convents, without special permission, which has a great tendency to reduce the monastic orders. It is computed that there are now, in the Kingdom of Spain, 54,000 friars, 34,000 monks, and 20,000 secular clergy, but as little true moral religion as in any country under heaven.

In Catalonia, the confidence of the people in the intercession of saints, has at all periods been a source of consolation to them, but upon some occasions has betrayed them into mischief. Every company of artisans, and every ship that sails, is under the immediate protection of some patron. Besides folio volumes, which testify the innumerable miracles performed by our Lady in Montserrat, every subordinate shrine is loaded with votive tablets. This has been the parent of presumption, and among the merchants has brought many families to want. The companies of insurance in the American war, having each of them its favourite saint, such as San Ramon de Penaforte, la Virgen de la Merced, and others, associated in form by the articles of partnership, and named in every policy of insurance; and having with the most scrupulous exactness allotted to them their correspondent dividend, the same as to any other partner, they concluded that with such powerful associates it was not possible for them to suffer loss. Under this persuasion, they ventured, about the year 1779, to insure the French West-India-men at fifty per cent., when the English and Dutch had refused to do it at any premium, and indeed when most of the ships were already in the English ports. By this fatal stroke, all the insuring companies, except two, were ruined.

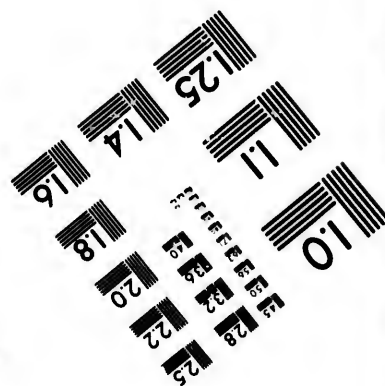
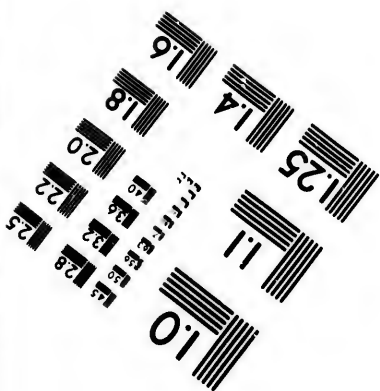
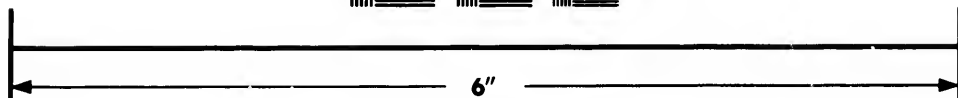
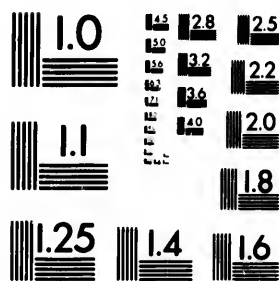
[ARCHBISHOPRICS AND BISHOPRICS.] In Spain there are eight archbishoprics, and forty-six bishoprics. The archbishop of Toledo is styled the primate of Spain; he is great-chancellor of Castille, and has a revenue of nearly 100,000*l.* sterling per annum; but the Spanish court has now many ways of lessening the revenues of the church, as by pensions, donations to hospitals, &c. and premiums to the societies of agriculture. This archbishopric pays annually 15,000 ducats to the monks of the Escorial, besides other pensions; and it is asserted that there is not a bishopric in Spain but has somebody or other quartered upon it: and the second-rate benefices are believed to be in the same predicament. Out of the rich canonries and prebends, are taken the pensions of the new order of knights of Charles III. 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.

[LITERATURE.] Spain has not produced learned men in proportion to the excellent capacities of its natives. This defect may, in some measure, be attributed to the indolence and bigotry of the Spaniards, which prevent them from making that progress in the polite arts which they otherwise would: but the greatest impediment to literature in Spain, is the despotic nature of its government. Several of the ancient fathers of the church were Spaniards; and learning owes much to Isidore,





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bishop of Seville, and cardinal Ximenes. Spain has likewise produced some excellent physicians. Such was the gloom of the Austrian government that took place with the emperor Charles V. that the inimitable Cervantes, the author of *Don Quixote*, born at Madrid in 1549, entered into the army in a station little superior to that of a common soldier, and died neglected, after fighting bravely for his country at the battle of Lepanto, in which he lost his left hand. His satire upon knight-errantry, in his adventures of *Don Quixote*, did as much service to his countrymen, by curing them of that ridiculous spirit, as it now does honour to his own memory. He was in prison for debt when he composed the first part of his history, and is perhaps to be placed at the head of moral and humorous satirists.

The Visions of *Quevedo*, and some other of his humorous and satirical pieces, having been translated into the English language, have rendered that author well known in this country. He was born at Madrid in the year 1570, and was one of the best writers of his age, excelling equally in verse and in prose. Besides his merit as a poet, he was well versed in the Oriental languages, and possessed great erudition. His works are comprised in three volumes quarto, two of which consist of poetry, and the third of pieces in prose. As a poet, he excelled both in the serious and burlesque style, and was happy in a turn of humour similar to that which we admire in Butler and Swift.

Poetry was cultivated in Spain at an early period. The most distinguished dramatic poet of this nation was Lopez de Vega, who was contemporary with our Shakspeare. He possessed an imagination astonishingly fertile, and wrote with great facility; but in his dramatic works he disregarded the unities, and adapted his plays more to the taste of the age, than to the rules of criticism. His lyric compositions, and fugitive pieces, with his prose essays, form a collection of fifty volumes, besides his dramatic works, which make twenty-six volumes more; exclusive of four hundred scriptural dramatic pieces, called in Spain *Autos Sacramentales*. Calderon was also a dramatic writer of considerable note, but many of his plays are very licentious in their tendency.

Tostatus, 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 shown great abilities in history, by investigating the antiquities of America, and writing the history of its conquest by their countrymen.—Among the writers who have appeared in Spain in modern times, father Feyjoo has been one of the most distinguished. His performances display great ingenuity, very extensive reading, and uncommon liberality of sentiment, especially when his situation and country are considered. Many of his pieces have been translated into English, and published in four volumes, 8vo. Don Francisco Perez Bayer, archdeacon of Valencia, and author of a Dissertation on the Phœnician Language, may be placed in the first rank of Spanish literati. Spain has likewise produced many travellers and voyagers to both the Indies, who are equally amusing and instructive.

Some of the Spaniards have distinguished themselves in the polite arts; and not only the cities, but the palaces, especially the Escorial, discover many striking specimens of their abilities as sculptors and architects; Palenino, in an elaborate treatise on the art of painting, in two volumes folio, has inserted the lives of two hundred and thirty-three painters and sculptors, who flourished in Spain from the time of Ferdinand the Catholic, to the conclusion of the reign of Philip IV. Aræonst

the most eminent Spanish painters, were Velasques; Murillo, who is commonly called the Spanish Vandyke; Ribeira; and Claudio Coello, whose style of painting was very similar to that of Paul Veronese.

UNIVERSITIES.] In Spain are reckoned 24 universities, the chief of which is Salamanca, founded by Alphonstus, ninth king of Leon, in the year 1200. It contains 21 colleges, some of which are very magnificent. Most of the nobility of Spain send their sons to be educated here. The others are Seville, Granada, Compostella, Toledo, Valladolid, Alcala, Sigüenza, Valencia, Lerida, Huesca, Saragossa, Tortosa, Ossuna, Onata, Candia, Barcelona, Murcia, Taragona, Baeza, Avila, Oriuela, Oviedo, and Palencia.

LANGUAGE.] The Spanish language, like the Italian, is derived from the Latin; and it might properly be called a corrupted Latin, were it not for the terminations, and the exotic words introduced into it by the Moors and Goths, especially the former. It is a majestic and expressive language; and foreigners, who understand it best, esteem it most; for the Spanish works of genius appear to disadvantage even in the best translations: and Cervantes speaks almost as awkward English, as Shakspeare does French. It may, however, be considered as a standard tongue, having nearly retained its purity for upwards of 200 years. The Lord's Prayer in Spanish is as follows:—*Padre nuestro, que estas en el cielo, santificado se el tu nombre; venga a nos el tu reyno; hagase tu voluntad, assi en la tierra como en el cielo; el pan nuestro de cada dia da nos de oy; y perdona nos nuestras deudas assi como nos otros perdonamos a nuestros deudores; no nos dexes cair en la tentacion, mas libra nos de mal; porque tao es el reyno, y la potencia, y la gloria, per los siglos. Amen.*

ANTIQUITIES.] These consist chiefly of Roman and Moorish. Near Segovia, a grand aqueduct, erected by Trajan, extends over a deep valley between two hills, and is supported by a double row of 159 arches. Other Roman aqueducts, theatres, and circi, are to be found at Tarragona, and in different parts of Spain. A ruinous watch-tower, near Cadiz, is vulgarly, but erroneously, thought to be one of the pillars of Hercules. Near the city of Salamanca are the remains of a Roman way, paved with large flat stones; it was continued to Merida, and from thence to Seville. At Toledo are the remains of an old Roman theatre, which is now converted into a church, said to be one of the most curious remains of antiquity. It is 600 feet in length, 500 in breadth, and of a proportionable height; the roof, which is amazingly bold and lofty, is supported by 350 pillars of fine marble, in ten rows, forming eleven aisles, in which are 366 altars, and 24 gates; every part being enriched and adorned with the most noble and costly ornaments. At Martorel, a large town where much black lace is manufactured, is a very high bridge, built in 1768, out of the ruins of a decayed one that had existed 1985 years from its erection by Hannibal. At the north end is a triumphal arch or gateway, said to have been raised by that general in honour of his father Hamilcar. It is almost entire, well proportioned and simple, without any kind of ornament, except a rim or two of hewn stone. Near Morviedro (once the faithful Saguntum, destroyed by Hannibal) are some Roman remains—as the ruins of the theatre, an exact semicircle about 82 yards diameter; some of the galleries are cut out of the rock, and 9000 persons might attend the exhibitions without inconvenience.

The Moorish antiquities are rich and magnificent. Among the most distinguished of these is the royal palace of the Alhambra, at Granada,

which is one of the most entire as well as the most stately of any of the edifices which the Moors erected in Spain. It was built in 1280, by the second Moorish king of Granada; and, in 1492, in the reign of their eighteenth king, was taken by the Spaniards. It is situate on a hill, which is ascended by a road bordered with hedges of double or imperial myrtles, and rows of elms. On this hill, within the walls of the Alhambra, the emperor Charles V. began a new palace in 1568, which was never finished, though the shell of it remains. It is built of yellow stone: the outside forms a square of one hundred and ninety feet. The inside is a grand circular court, with a portico of the Tuscan and a gallery of the Doric order, each supported by thirty-two columns, made of as many single pieces of marble. The grand entrance is ornamented with columns of jasper, on the pedestals of which are representations of battles, in marble basso-relievo. The Alhambra itself is a mass of many houses and towers, walled round, and built of large stones of different dimensions. Almost all the rooms have stucco walls and ceilings, some carved, some painted, and some gilt, and covered with various Arabic sentences. Here are several baths, the walls, floors, and ceilings of which are of white marble. The gardens abound with orange and lemon trees, pomegranates, and myrtles. At the end of the gardens is another palace called Ginaliph, situate on a more elevated station than the Alhambra. From the balconies of this palace is one of the finest prospects in Europe, over the whole fertile plain of Granada, bounded by snowy mountains. The Moors to this day regret the loss of Granada, and still offer up prayers to God for the recovery of the city. Many other noble monuments, erected in the Moorish times, remain in Spain, some of them in tolerable preservation, and others exhibiting superb ruins.

HISTORY.] Spain was probably first peopled by the Celts, from Gaul, to which it lies contiguous; or from Africa, from which it is only separated by the narrow strait of Gibraltar. The Phœnicians 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. In the beginning of the fifth century, the Suevi, the Vandals, and the Alani, divided this kingdom among them: but in the year 584, the Goths again became its masters.

These, in their turn, were invaded by the Saracens, who, about the end of the seventh 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, crossed the Mediterranean, ravaged Spain, and established themselves in the southerly provinces of that kingdom.

Don Pelayo is mentioned as the first old Spanish prince who distinguished himself against these infidels (who were afterwards known by the name of Moors, the greater part of them having come from Mauritania), and he took the title of king of Asturia about the year 720. 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.

The Moors in Spain were superior to all their contemporaries in arts and arms, and the Abdourahman line retained possession of the throne nearly three hundred years. Learning flourished in Spain, while the

rest of Europe was buried in ignorance and barbarity. But the Moorish princes by degrees became weak and effeminate, and their chief ministers proud and insolent. A series of civil wars ensued, which at last overturned the throne of Cordova, and the race of Abdoulrahman. Several petty principalities were formed on the ruins of this empire, and many cities of Spain had each an independent sovereign. Every adventurer was then entitled to the conquests he made from the Moors, till Spain at last was divided into twelve or thirteen kingdoms; and about the year 1095, Henry of Burgundy was declared, by the king of Leon, count of Portugal; but his son, Alfonso, 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 1492, when all the kingdoms in Spain, Portugal excepted, were united by the marriage of Ferdinand, king of Arragon, and Isabella, the heiress and afterwards queen of Castille, who took Granada, and expelled out of Spain the Moors and Jews who would not be converts to the Christian faith, to the number of 170,000 families.

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.

Charles V., of the house of Austria, and emperor of Germany, succeeded to the throne of Spain, in right of his mother, who was the daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella, in the year 1516. The extensive possessions of the house of Austria in Europe, Africa, and, above all, America, from whence it drew immense treasures, began to alarm the jealousy of neighbouring princes, but could not satisfy the ambition of Charles; and we find him constantly engaged in foreign wars, or with his own protestant subjects, whom he in vain attempted to bring back to the catholic church. He also reduced the power of the nobles in Spain, abridged the privileges of the commons, and greatly extended the regal prerogative. At last, after a long and turbulent reign, he came to a resolution that filled all Europe with astonishment, withdrawing himself entirely from any concern in the affairs of this world, in order that he might spend the remainder of his days in retirement and solitude*.

* Charles, of all his vast possessions, reserved nothing for himself but an annual pension of 100,000 crowns; and chose, for the place of his retreat, a vale in Spain, of no great extent, watered by a small brook, and surrounded by rising grounds, covered with lofty trees. He gave strict orders that the style of the building which he erected there should be such as suited his present situation, rather than his former dignity. It consisted only of six rooms; four of them in the form of friars' cells, with naked walls; and the other two, each twenty feet square, were hung with brown cloth, and furnished in the most simple manner. Here he buried in solitude and silence his grandeur, his ambition, together with all those vast projects which, during half a century, had alarmed and agitated Europe, filling every kingdom in it, by turns, with the terror of his arms, and the dread of being subjected to his power. Here he employed himself in studying the principles and in forming curious works of mechanism, of which he had always been remarkably fond. He was particularly curious with regard to the construction of clocks and watches: and having found, after repeated trials, that he could not bring any two of them to go exactly alike, he reflected, it is said, with a mixture of surprise and regret, on his own folly, in having bestowed so much time and labour on the more vain attempt of bringing mankind to a precise uniformity of sentiment concerning the intricate and mysterious doctrines of religion. And here, after two years' retirement, he was seized with a fever which carried him off, in the 59th year of his age.

Agreeably to this determination, he resigned Spain and the Netherlands, with great formality, in the presence of his principal nobility, to his son, Philip II. ; but could not prevail on the princes of Germany to elect him emperor, which dignity they conferred on Ferdinand, the brother of Charles, thereby dividing the dangerous power of the house of Austria into two branches ; Spain, with all its possessions in Africa and the New World, the Netherlands, and some Italian states ; remained with the elder branch ; whilst the empire, Hungary, and Bohemia, fell to the lot of the younger, which they still possess.

Philip II. inherited all his father's vices, with few of his good qualities. He was austere, haughty, immoderately ambitious, and, through his whole life, a cruel bigot in the cause of popery. His marriage with queen Mary of England, an unfeeling bigot like himself, his unsuccessful addresses to her sister Elizabeth, his resentment and fruitless wars with that princess, his tyranny and persecutions in the Low Countries, the revolt and loss of the United Provinces, with other particulars of his reign, have been already mentioned in the history of those countries.

In Portugal he was more successful. That kingdom, after being governed by a race of wise and brave princes, fell to Sebastian, about the year 1557. Sebastian lost his life and a fine army, in a headstrong, unjust, and ill-concerted expedition against the Moors, in Africa ; and in the year 1580, Philip united Portugal to his own dominions, though the Braganza family, of Portugal, asserted a prior right. By this acquisition, Spain became possessed of the Portuguese settlements in India, some of which she still holds.

The descendants of Philip proved to be very weak princes ; but Philip and his father had so totally ruined the ancient 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 reign of Philip IV., in the year 1640, the nobility of that nation, 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 kings of Spain, of the Austrian line, failing in the person of Charles II., who left no issue, Philip duke of Anjou, second son to the dauphin of France, and grandson to Lewis XIV., mounted that throne, in virtue of his predecessor's will, by the name of Philip V., anno 1701. 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 war, by the shameful peace of Utrecht, in 1713. And thus Lewis XIV., through a masterly train of politics (for, in his wars to support his grandson, as we have already observed, he was almost ruined), accomplished his favourite project of transferring the kingdom of Spain, with all its rich possessions in America and the Indies, from the house of Austria, to that of his own family of Bourbon. In 1734, Philip invaded Naples, and got that kingdom for his son Don Carlos, the Sicilians readily acknowledging him for their sovereign, through the oppression of the imperialists.

After a long and turbulent reign, which was disturbed by the ambition of his wife, Elizabeth of Parma, Philip died in 1746, and was succeeded by his son Ferdinand VI., a mild and peaceable prince, who reformed many abuses, and endeavoured to promote the commerce and prosperity of his kingdom. In 1759 he died, without issue, through melancholy for the loss of his wife. Ferdinand was succeeded by his brother, Charles III.

then king of Naples and the Two Sicilies, son to Philip V. by his wife the princess of Parma.

He was so warmly attached to the family compact of the house of Bourbon, that, two years after his accession, he even hazarded his American dominions to support it. War being declared between him and England, the latter took from him the famous port and city of Havannah, in the island of Cuba, and thereby rendered herself entirely mistress of the navigation of the Spanish plate-fleets. Notwithstanding the success of the English, their ministry thought proper, hastily, to conclude a peace, in consequence of which Havannah was restored to Spain. In 1775, an expedition was concerted against Algiers by the Spanish ministry, which had a most unsuccessful termination. The troops, which amounted to upwards of 24,000, and who were commanded by lieutenant-general conte de O'Reilly, landed about a league and a half to the eastward of the city of Algiers; but were disgracefully beaten back, and obliged to take shelter on board their ships, having 27 officers killed, and 191 wounded; and 501 rank and file killed, and 2088 wounded. In the years 1783 and 1784, they also renewed their attacks against Algiers by sea, but after spending much ammunition, and losing many lives, were forced to retire without doing much injury.

When the war with Great Britain and her American colonies had subsisted for some time, and France had taken part with the latter, the court of Spain was also prevailed upon to commence hostilities against Great Britain. The Spaniards closely besieged Gibraltar, both by sea and land; it having been always a great mortification to them, that this fortress should be possessed by the English. The grand attack was on the 13th of September, 1782, under the command of the duke de Crillon, by ten battering ships, from 600 to 1400 tons burden, carrying in all 212 brass guns, entirely new, and discharging shot of 26 pounds weight. The showers of shot and shells which were directed from them, from their land-batteries, and on the other hand from the various works of the garrison, exhibited a scene of which perhaps neither the pen nor the pencil can furnish a competent idea. It is sufficient to say, that *four hundred pieces* of the heaviest artillery were playing at the same moment: an instance which has scarcely occurred in any siege since the invention of those wonderful engines of destruction.

The irresistible impression of the numerous red-hot balls from the garrison was soon conspicuous; for in the afternoon, smoke was perceived to issue from the admiral's ship and another, and by one in the morning several were in flames, and numbers of rockets were thrown up from each of their ships as signals of distress; and thus ended all the hopes of the Spaniards of reducing the fortress of Gibraltar. Some trifling operations continued on the side of the Spaniards till the restoration of peace in 1783.

In other enterprises, however, the Spaniards proved more successful. The island of Minorca was surrendered to them on the 6th of February, 1782, after having been besieged for 171 days. The garrison consisted of no more than 2692 men, while the forces of the enemy amounted to 16,000, under the command of the duke de Crillon. The Spanish commander at first attempted to corrupt the governor (general Murray); but this being rejected with indignation, the siege was commenced in form; and the garrison would have showed themselves equally invincible with those of Gibraltar, had it been possible to relieve them in the same manner.

His late catholic majesty attempted to oblige his subjects to desist

from their ancient dress and manners, and carried his endeavours so far that it occasioned such a dangerous insurrection at Madrid as obliged him to part with his minister, the marquis of Squillace; thereby affording an instance of the necessity that even despotic princes are under of paying some attention to the inclinations of their subjects.

The sudden dismissal of count Florida Blanca from the office of prime minister originated in causes not disclosed. It is imagined that the court found this step necessary to appease the public murmurs at some late measures, particularly the edict concerning strangers, which contributed to impose further fetters upon commerce, and which has since been repealed. On the 28th of February, 1792, the minister was removed, and count d'Aranda, an old statesman, a warm friend of the queen and nobility of France, succeeded to his employments, till some other arrangement could be formed. It is said, he abolished the superintendant tribunal of police, a kind of civil inquisition; and in other liberal measures appeared to see the real interests of monarchs, which is certainly to concede with grace, in order to prevent the despair of the people from recurring to force. His influence, however, was but short; and he was succeeded by the duke d'Alcudia.

The irregularities committed in France, the indecent reception of the humane interference of the court of Spain in favour of the king, and the representations of the confederated sovereigns, induced the court of Spain to declare war against France, on the 23d of March 1793. The issue of this war, the treaty of peace concluded by Spain with the French republic on the 23d of July 1795, and the subsequent hostilities with England till the conclusion of the peace of Amiens, have already been mentioned in our historical accounts of those countries.

Charles IV., king of Spain, born Nov. 11, 1748, ascended the throne Dec. 13, 1788 (upon the death of his father, Charles III.) and was married to Louisa-Maria-Theresa, princess of Parma, Sept. 4, 1765, by whom he has issue,

1. Charlotte-Jochima, born April 25, 1775.
2. Maria-Louisa-Josephine, born July 9, 1777.
3. Philip, born Aug. 10, 1783.
4. Ferdinand, Prince of Asturias, born Oct. 14, 1784.
5. Charles-Marie-Isidor, born March 29, 1788.
6. Maria-Isabella, born July 6, 1789.
7. Francis-de-Paula-Anthony, born March 10, 1794.

Brothers to the king:

1. Ferdinand, the present king of the Two Sicilies, born Jan. 12, 1751: married, May 12, 1768, to the archduchess Mary-Charlotte-Louisa, sister to Joseph II. late emperor of Germany.
2. Anthony-Pascal, born Dec. 31, 1755.

PORTUGAL.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		Degrees.
Length	350	} between	{ 37° and 42' North latitude.
Breadth	120		{ 5° 40' and 9° 30' West longitude.

Containing 27,071 square miles, with 70 inhabitants to each.

NAMES.] PORTUGAL was known to the ancients by the name of Lusitania, derived by the mythologists from Lysas, the son of Bacchus, who is said to have settled a colony here. The modern name of Portugal is allowed to be derived from *Calle*, the ancient name of Oporto, with the addition of *Portu*, or port, on account of the excellence of its harbour. In the eleventh century this name was extended to the whole kingdom.

BOUNDARIES.] It is bounded by Spain on the north and east, and on the south and west by the Atlantic Ocean, being the most westerly kingdom on the continent of Europe.

DIVISIONS.] By the form of the country, it is naturally divided into three parts; the northern, middle, and southern provinces. The provinces are six in number.

	Provinces.	Square Miles.	Popula- tion.	Chief Towns.
The north- ern division	Entre Douro e Minho }	1,840	900,000	{ Oporto, Viana, Braga
	Tras os Montes	2,190	140,000	{ Miranda, Bra- ganza
The middle division	Beira	7,200	520,000	{ Coimbra, Guada
	Estremadura .	5,440	635,000	{ L. . . { 38.42. N.la. BON } 8.53. W.lo. Leiria St. Ubes
The south- ern division	Alentejo	8,800	300,000	{ Evora, Elvas, Beja
	Algarve	1,600	93,470	{ Faro, Lagos, Ta- vora
Total		27,070	2,589,470 *	

* The above numbers are those given by Mr. Murphy in his General View of the State of Portugal, 1798. The population of these provinces is thus stated in Butticher's tables:

Entre Douro e Minho	430,300	Estremadura	-	350,000
Tras os Montes	180,800	Alentejo	-	265,223
Beira	550,856	Algarve	-	63,700
		Total	-	1,849,879

As Mr. Murphy followed Portuguese authors, his statement may perhaps be exaggerated; but it seems more probable that the population of Portugal exceeds, than that it falls short of, two millions.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, MOUNTAINS.] The face of Portugal is mountainous, or rather rocky, for the mountains are generally barren: the chief are those which divide Algarve from Alentejo; those of *Tras os Montes*; *Arrabida* and *Montejunto* in *Estremadura*; *Estrella* in *Beira*; *Ossa* in *Alentejo*; and *Cintra*, about five leagues south-west of *Lisbon*, well known to navigators as being the most westerly part of all Europe. The cape contiguous to it, at the mouth of the *Tajo*, is called the rock of *Cintra*, or the rock of *Lisbon*.

RIVERS, LAKES, MINERAL WATERS.] 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 anciently celebrated for its golden sand. It has its source in the mountains of *Molina*, at the extremity of *Castille*, near *Aragon*; whence it runs for the most part due west, till it reaches *Lisbon*, and falls into the Atlantic Ocean, after traversing, in the whole of its course, 450 miles, of which 150 are in Portugal and the remainder in Spain. This river annually overflows its banks as regularly as the *Nile*, and inundates the *Champagne* lands, particularly about *Villa Franca* and *Santerem*, which renders the soil exceedingly fertile. The *Minho* and *Douro* are the boundaries of the province *Entre Douro e Minho*. Portugal contains several small lakes and springs; some of them are absorbent even of the lightest substances, such as wood, cork, and feathers. The baths called *Caldas da Rainha*, about 45 miles from *Lisbon*, are medicinal and sanative; and some hot baths are found in the little kingdom, or rather province, of *Algarve*.

METALS, MINERALS.] This country appears to have been as celebrated in ancient times for its gold and silver mines as *South America* is at present, but no mines of these metals are now worked. There are lead mines which yield silver at *Mursa* and *Lamego*, and there is a mine of copper at *Elyas*. The iron mines are well-known, but are neglected for want of fuel, though coal has been found in different parts. Portugal produces beautiful marbles, almost every kind of precious stones, and indeed minerals of every description.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AGRICULTURE.] Though Portugal is one of the smallest countries in Europe, its climate is very various in different parts; in the northern provinces it is cold, in the middle and near the sea temperate, and in the southern hot.

The air, especially about *Lisbon*, is reckoned soft and beneficial to consumptive patients; it is not so scorching as that of Spain, being refreshed from the sea-breezes.

The soil of Portugal is not in general equal to that of Spain for fertility, especially in corn, which is imported from other countries. Agriculture, at the same time, is greatly neglected. According to the best information, two-thirds of the kingdom are at present left untilled, and the portion that is under vines, olives, corn, pulse, wood, &c. is not in general in that state of improvement of which it is susceptible.

VEGETABLE PRODUCTIONS.] Fruits of every kind known in Europe, and particularly oranges, lemons, citrons, figs, grapes, apricots, peaches, almonds, and melons, grow here in many places almost spontaneously. In general, however, the fruits are not esteemed to be so highly flavoured as in Spain. The Portuguese wines, when old and genuine, are esteemed to be very friendly to the human constitution, and safe to drink*.

* The Port wines are made in the districts round *Oporto*, which does not produce one half the quantity that is consumed, under that name, in the British dominions only. The merchants in this city have very spacious wine-vaults, capable of holding 6 or 7000 pipes, and it is said that 20,000 are yearly exported from *Oporto*.

ANIMALS.] These are nearly the same as in Spain. The horses are few and of an inferior breed; but the mules are strong, hardy, and sure footed. The sheep are not very numerous. Large herds of swine are found in various parts of the country, the flesh of which, as they feed chiefly on grass and acorns, has an excellent flavour, whence the preference given to Portuguese hams in most parts of Europe, particularly in England.

NATURAL CURIOSITIES.] These consist principally of the lakes already mentioned, and some extraordinary caverns. In the province of Trás os Montes, at a place called St. Miguel das tres Minhas are three immense mines generally supposed to have been worked by the Romans. The mouth of the largest, which has been cut through the solid rock, is a mile and a half in circumference, and upwards of 500 feet deep. At the bottom it is 2400 feet in length, and 1400 in breadth. Near this is another of great dimensions, and a third in an elevated situation called Covas, the length of which is 2600 feet, the breadth 1300, and the depth 300. The lake of Escura, on the summit of the mountain of Estrella, in the province of Beira, is of a depth hitherto unascertained; its water is of a dark green colour, and it has never been known to yield fish of any kind. Fragments of the masts of ships, it is said, have been found in it, whence it has been supposed to have a subterranean communication with the sea, notwithstanding it is so far inland. It is added, as an additional proof of this conjecture, that it is smooth or agitated according as the sea is tranquil or rough, and that in stormy weather it makes a rumbling noise, that may be heard at the distance of several miles.

POPULATION.] According to the statements before given, it appears that Portugal contains about two millions, or two millions and a half, of inhabitants. The number of Portuguese in all the colonies appertaining to the crown, are estimated at about nine hundred thousand. 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 above 300,000 ecclesiastics of both sexes.

**NATIONAL CHARACTER, } The modern Portuguese retain nothing
MANNERS, CUSTOMS. }** of that adventurous enterprising spirit that rendered their forefathers so illustrious 300 years ago. They have, ever since the house of Braganza mounted the throne, degenerated in all their virtues; though some noble exceptions are still remaining among them, and no people are so little obliged as the Portuguese are to the reports of historians and travellers. Their degeneracy is evidently owing to the weakness of their monarchy, which renders them inactive for fear of disobliging their powerful neighbours; 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 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, though to the interest of their own country, 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 quality affect to be more gaily and richly dressed. The Portuguese ladies are thin, and small of stature. Their complexion is olive, their eyes black and expressive, and their features generally regular. They are esteemed to be generous, modest, and witty. They dress like the Spanish ladies, with much awkwardness and affected gravity, but in general more magnificently; and they are taught by their husbands to exact from their servants a homage, that in other countries is paid only to royal personages. The furniture of the houses, especially of their grandees, is rich and superb to excess; and they maintain an incredible number of domestics, as they never discharge any who survive after serving their ancestors. The poorer sort have scarcely any furniture at all, for they, in imitation of the Moors, sit always cross-legged on the ground. The Portuguese peasant has never reaped any advantage from the benefits of foreign trade, and of the fine and vast countries the kings of Portugal possessed in Africa or in the East; or of those still remaining to them in South America. The only foreign luxury he is yet acquainted with is tobacco; and when his feeble purse can reach it, he purchases a dried Newfoundland cod-fish—but this is a regale he dare seldom aspire to. A piece of bread made of Indian corn, and a salted pilchard, or a head of garlic, to give that bread a flavour, compose his standing dish; and if he can get a bit of the hog, the ox, or the calf he himself fattens, to regale his wretched family at Christmas or Easter, he has reached the pinnacle of happiness in this world; and indeed whatever he possessed beyond this habitual penury, according to the present state and exertions of his intellects, would quickly be taken from him, or rather he would willingly part with it, being taught by his numberless ghostly comforters, with which his country swarms, to look forward for ease and happiness to another state of existence, to which they are themselves the infallible guides and conductors.

To these remarks we shall subjoin those of Mr. Murphy, a late traveller in Portugal:—"The common people of Lisbon and its environs are a laborious and hardy race. It is painful to see the trouble they are obliged to take for want of proper implements to carry on their work. Their cars have the rude appearance of the earliest ages; these vehicles are slowly drawn by two stout oxen. The corn is shelled by the treading of the same animals. They have many other customs which to us appear very singular: for example, women sit with the left side towards the horse's head when they ride. A postillion rides on the left horse. A tailor sits at his work like a shoemaker. A hair-dresser appears on Sundays with a sword, a cockade, and two watches, at least two watch-chains. A tavern is known by a vine-bush, a house to be let by a piece of blank paper, the door of an accoucheur by a white cross, and a Jew by his extra-catholic devotion. A Portuguese peasant will not walk with a superior, an aged person, or a stranger, without giving him the right-hand side, as a mark of respect. He never passes by a human being without taking off his hat, and saluting him in these words—*The Lord preserve you for many years!* In speaking of an absent friend he always says—'I die with impatience to see him.' They all imagine their country is the blessed Elysium, and that Lisbon is the greatest city in the world."

[CITIES, CHIEF TOWNS, EDIFICES.] There are in Portugal, according to Mr. Murphy, 19 cities, and 541 towns. Lisbon, the capital of the kingdom, is situate on the north side of the mouth of the Tagus. It

stands on seven hills, and contains many grand edifices, among which one of the principal is the patriarchal church. The treasures of sacred relics, gold, silver, precious stones and costly furniture of this venerable edifice, are immense. The new square called Praça do Comercio, is 615 feet long, and 550 broad; in the centre is a noble equestrian statue of bronze of Joseph I. The new church, built by her present majesty, is the largest and most magnificent edifice erected in Lisbon since the earthquake in 1755, the fatal effects of which are still visible in many parts of the city, and never fail to impress every spectator with an awful remembrance of that disaster; according to the most accurate accounts, there were not less than 24,000 victims to it. The Portuguese have, however, availed themselves of this misfortune, and, like the English after the destructive fire of 1666, have turned the temporal evil into a permanent good. All the new streets erected in Lisbon, in the place of the old, are capacious, regular, and well paved, with convenient foot-paths for passengers, as in the streets of London. In point of cleanliness, Lisbon is no longer a subject of so much admiration to strangers as formerly; but all is not yet done, as it still wants common-sewers, pipe-waters, and privies. Lisbon 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.

Of the population of this city (says Mr. Murphy) no exact account has been recently published; and the rapid increase of its inhabitants of late years, must render any calculation of that kind very uncertain. In the year 1774, the forty parishes into which Lisbon is divided, were found to contain 33,764 houses; and in the year 1790, they amounted to 38,102. Hence it appears to have increased 4,338 houses in the course of these ten years. Now if we estimate each house on an average at six persons, which, perhaps, is within the truth, the population in the year 1790 was 228,612. To these are to be added the religious of both sexes, with their attendants, who dwell in convents and monasteries, the soldiery, the professors and students of seminaries of education, and such of the Gallician labourers as have no fixed dwelling; their aggregate amount, if my information be correct, is not very short of 1200. According to this statement, therefore, the population of Lisbon exceeds 240,000. From the magnitude of the city, indeed, we should be induced to suppose that its population was considerably more than above stated; for it is computed to be four miles long, by one and a half broad; but many of the houses have large gardens, and such as have not are, in general, laid out upon a large scale, on account of the heat of the climate.

The church and monastery near Lisbon, where the kings of Portugal are buried, are inexpressibly magnificent, and several monasteries in Portugal are dug out of the hard rock. The chapel of St. Roch is probably one of the finest and richest in the world; the paintings are mosaic work, so curiously wrought with stones of all colours, as to astonish the beholders.

The second city in this kingdom is Oporto, which is computed to contain 30,000 inhabitants. The chief article of commerce in this city is wine; and the inhabitants of half the shops in the city are coopers. The merchants assemble daily in the chief street, to transact business; and are protected from the sun by sail-cloths hung across from the oppo-

site houses. About thirty English families reside here, who are chiefly concerned in the wine-trade.

Cóimbra, in the province of Beira, is one of the most considerable of the Portuguese towns with respect to population, containing upwards of 12,000 inhabitants. Braga and Evora have nearly the same number.

MANUFACTURES, COMMERCE.] The Portuguese exchange their wine, salt, and fruit, 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 improveable. These are Brasil, the Isles of Cape Veid, Madeira, and the Azores. They bring gold from their plantations on the east and west coast of Africa, and likewise slaves for manufacturing their sugars and tobacco in Brasil, and their South American settlements.

What the value of these latter may be, is unknown perhaps to 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 a correspondence with Goa, their chief settlement in the East Indies, and their other possessions there, as Diu, Daman, Macao, &c.

CONSTITUTION, GOVERNMENT, } AND LAWS. } 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.

This government may be fairly pronounced the most despotic in Europe. The established law is generally a dead letter, excepting where its decrees are carried into execution by the supplementary mandates of the sovereign, which are generally employed in defeating the purposes of safety and protection, which law is calculated to extend equally over all the subjects.

The people here have no more share in the direction of government, in enacting of laws, and in the regulating of agriculture and commerce, than they have in the government of Russia, or China. The far greater part know nothing of what is done in that respect. Every man has no other alternative but to yield a blind and ready obedience, in whatever concerns himself, to the decrees and laws of the despot, as promulgated

from time to time by his secretaries of state. How would an Englishman, alive to all the feelings of civil liberty, tremble at reading the preamble of every new law published here! and which runs thus: "*I, the king, in virtue of my own certain knowledge, of my royal will and pleasure, and of my full, supreme, and arbitrary power, which I hold only of God, and for which I am accountable to no man on earth, I do, in consequence, order and command, &c. &c.*"

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 Supplicação 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.

REVENUES.] The revenues of the crown amount to about two millions and a half or three millions sterling, annually. The customs and duties on goods exported and imported are excessive, and farmed out. Foreign merchandise pays twenty-three per cent. on importation, and fish from Newfoundland twenty-five per cent. Fish taken in the neighbouring seas and rivers pays twenty-seven per cent. and the tax upon lands, and cattle that are sold, is ten per cent. The king derives 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 indulgences, and licences to eat flesh at times prohibited, &c.

ARMY, NAVY.] The Portuguese government depends chiefly for protection on England; and therefore, for many years, has greatly neglected the army and fleet. In the late reign, though they received the most effectual assistance from England, when invaded by the French and Spaniards, his most faithful majesty judged it expedient to raise a considerable body of troops, who were chiefly disciplined by foreign officers; but since that period the army has been again neglected, no proper encouragement being given to foreign officers, and little attention paid to the discipline of the troops, so that the military force of Portugal is now again inconsiderable, amounting, it is said, to 25,000 men. The naval force of this kingdom is computed at thirteen sail of the line and fifteen frigates.

ROYAL TITLES.] The king's titles are, King of Portugal and the Algarves, on this and on the other side of the sea in Africa. Lord of Guinea, and of the conquest, navigation, and commerce of Ethiopia, Arabia, Persia, and Brasil. John V. was complimented, by the pope, with the title of his Most Faithful Majesty. The title of the heir apparent is Prince of Brasil: and that of his eldest son Prince of Beira. The rest of the princes of the blood-royal are called Infante.

ARMS.] The arms of Portugal are, argent, five escutcheons, azure, placed cross-wise, each charged with as many besants as the first, placed saltier-wise, and pointed, sable, for Portugal. The shield bordered, gules, charged with seven towers, or, three in chief, and two in each flanch.—The supporters are two winged dragons, and the crest a dragon, or, under the two flanches, and the base of the shield appears at the end of it; two crosses, the first fleur-de-lis, vert, which is for the order of Aviez, and the second patée, 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*, "For the King and the People."

NOBILITY AND ORDERS.] The titles and distinctions of the nobility are much the same as those of Spain. The orders of knighthood are three; 1. That of *Avis* or *Aviz*, first instituted by Alphonso Henriquez king of Portugal, in the year 1147, as a military and religious order, on account of his taking Evora from the Moors. In 1213 it was subject to the order of Calatrava, in Spain; but when Don John of Portugal seized the crown, he made it again independent. 2. The "Order of *St. James*," instituted by Dennis I. king of Portugal, in the year 1310, supposing that under that saint's protection he became victorious over the Moors; and he endowed it with great privileges. The knights profess chastity, hospitality, and obedience, and none are admitted till they prove the gentility of their blood. Their ensign is a red sword, the habit white, and their principal convent is at Dalmela. 3. The "Order of *Christ*" was instituted in the year 1317, by Dennis I. of Portugal, to engage the nobility to assist him more powerfully against the Moors. The knights obtained great possessions, and elected their grand-master, till 1522, when pope Adrian VI. conferred that office on John III. and his successors to the crown of Portugal. These orders have small commanderies and revenues annexed to them, but are in little esteem. The "Order of *Malta*" has likewise twenty-two commanderies in Portugal.

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 expense of the religious institutions in the kingdom. The power of the inquisition is now taken out of the hands of the ecclesiastics, and converted into a state-trap for the benefit of the crown.

The archbishoprics are two, Braga and Evora, and there are ten bishoprics. The patriarch of Lisbon takes precedence of all the bishops and archbishops in the kingdom, is first chaplain to the king, and a cardinal of the consistory at Rome. His revenue amounts to about 30,000*l.* sterling per ann. and the revenue of the patriarchal church is above 114,000*l.* per ann.

LITERATURE.] The men of learning which this country has produced are so few that they are mentioned with indignation, even by those of the Portuguese themselves who have the smallest tincture of literature. Some efforts, though very weak, have of late been made by a few, to draw their countrymen from this deplorable state of ignorance. It is universally allowed, that the defect is not owing to the want of genius, but of a proper education. The ancestors of the present Portuguese were certainly possessed of more true knowledge, with regard to astronomy, geography, and navigation, than perhaps any other European nation, about the middle of the 16th century, and for some time after. Camoens, who himself was a great adventurer and voyager, was possessed of a true, but neglected, poetical genius.

UNIVERSITIES.] These are Coimbra, founded in 1291, by king Dennis; and which had fifty professors: but it has lately been put under some new regulations; Evora, founded in 1559; and the college of the nobles at Lisbon. All the books that belonged to the banished Jesuits, which compose a very large library, are kept in this college. The English language is likewise taught here. There is also a military

and marine academy, where young gentlemen are educated in the science of engineering and naval tactics.

LANGUAGE.] The Portuguese language differs but little from that of Spain, and that provincially, many of the words being derived from the Limosin, and other dialects of the south of France. The Lord's Prayer is as follows: *Padre nosso que estas nos ceos, sanctificado seio o tu nome; venha a nos tuo reyno, seia feita a tua vontade, assi nos ceos, como na terra. O pao nosso de cotidia, dano lo oci nestro dia. E perdou nos as nossas dexes cahir om tentacao, mas doamos a os nossos devedores. E nao nos deidas, assi como nos perlibra nos do mal. Amen.*

ANTIQUITIES.] The Roman bridge and aqueduct at Coimbra are almost entire, and deservedly admired. The walls of Santarem are said to be of Roman work likewise. At Evora are the ruins of a temple of Diana, and an aqueduct ascribed to the celebrated Quintus Sertorius. Near Braga are the remains of a temple supposed to have been dedicated to Æsculapius. At Chaves have been discovered, not long since, the ruins of a magnificent aqueduct, baths, cisterns, several fragments of columns, and capitals, and cornices of jasper exquisitely worked. There are also remains of Moerish castles and other edifices.

HISTORY.] This kingdom comprehends the greatest part of the ancient Lusitania, and shared the same fate with the other Spanish provinces, in the contest between the Carthaginians and Romans, and in the decline and fall of the Roman empire, and was successively in subjection to the Suevi, Alans, Visigoths, and Moors. In the eleventh century, Alfonso VI., king of Castille and Leon, rewarded Henry, grandson of Robert, king of France, for his bravery and assistance against the Moors, with his daughter, and that part of Portugal then in the hands of the Christians. Henry was succeeded by his son Alfonso Henry, in the year 1095, who gained a decisive victory over five Moosish kings in July 1139. This victory proved the origin of the monarchy of Portugal, for Alfonso was then proclaimed king by his soldiers. He reigned forty-six years, and was esteemed for his courage and love of learning.—His descendants maintained themselves on the throne for some centuries; indeed Sancho II. was expelled from his dominions for cowardice, in the year 1240.

Dennis I., or Dionysius, was called the *Father of his country*: he built and rebuilt forty-four cities and towns in Portugal, founded the military order of Christ, and was a very fortunate prince. He reigned forty-six years.—Under his successor, Alfonso IV., happened several earthquakes at Lisbon, which threw down part of the city, and destroyed many lives. John I. was illustrious for his courage, prudence, and conquests in Africa; under him Madeira was first discovered, in 1420, and the Canaries; he took Ceuta, and, after a reign of forty-nine years, died in the year 1433. In the reign of Alfonso V., about 1480, the Portuguese discovered the coast of Guinea; and in the reign of his successor, John II., they discovered the Cape of Good Hope, settled colonies, and built forts in Africa, Guinea, and the East Indies. Emanuel, surnamed the Great, succeeded him in 1495, and adopted the plan of his predecessors, fitting out fleets for new discoveries. Vasco de Gama, under him, cruised along the coast of Africa and Ethiopia, and landed in Hindoostan; and in the year 1500, Alvarez discovered Brasil.

John III. succeeded in 1521, and, while he lost some of his African settlements, made new acquisitions in the Indies. He sent the famous Xavier as a missionary to Japan, and, in the height of his zeal, established that infernal tribunal, the inquisition, in Portugal, anno 1526,

against the entreaties and remonstrances of his people. Sebastian, his grandson, succeeded him in 1557, and undertook a crusade against the Moors in Africa. In 1578, in a battle with the king of Fez and Morocco, on the banks of the river Lucco, he was defeated, and either slain or drowned. Henry, a cardinal, and uncle to the unfortunate Sebastian, being the son of Emanuel, succeeded, but died without issue, in the year 1580: on which, Antony, prior of Crato, was chosen king, by the states of the kingdom; but Philip II. of Spain, as has been observed in our history of that country, pretended that the crown belonged to him, because his mother was the eldest daughter of Emanuel, and sent the duke of Alva with a powerful force, who subdued the country, and proclaimed his master king of Portugal the 12th of September, 1580.

The viceroys under Philip and his two successors, Philip III. and Philip IV., behaved towards the Portuguese with great rapacity and violence. The Spanish ministers treated them as vassals of Spain, and, by their repeated acts of oppression and tyranny, so excited the hatred and courage of the Portuguese, as to produce a revolt at Lisbon, the first of December, 1640. The people obliged John, duke of Braganza, the legitimate heir to the crown, to accept it, and he succeeded to the throne by the title of John IV. almost without bloodshed; and the foreign settlements also acknowledged him as their sovereign. A fierce war subsisted for many years between the two kingdoms, and all the efforts of the Spaniards to re-unite them proved vain; so that a treaty was concluded in February, 1668, by which Portugal was declared to be free and independent.

The Portuguese could not have supported themselves under their revolt from Spain, had 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 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 the late king of Portugal. 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, he almost ruined the allies, by occasioning the loss of the battle of Almanza, in 1707.—John died in 1750, and was succeeded by his son Joseph, whose reign was neither happy to himself, nor fortunate for his people. The fatal earthquake, in 1755, overwhelmed his capital, and shook his kingdom to the centre. His succeeding administration was not distinguished by the affection that it required at home, or the reputation which it had sustained abroad. It was deeply stained with domestic blood, and rendered odious by excessive and horrible cruelty. In September, 1758, the king was attacked by assassins, and narrowly escaped with his life, in a solitary place near his country palace of Belem. The families of Aveira and Tavora were destroyed by torture, in consequence of an accusation being exhibited against them of having conspired against the king's life. But they were condemned without proper evidence, and their innocence has since been authentically declared. From this supposed conspiracy is dated the expulsion of the

Jesuits (who were conjectured to have been at the bottom of the plot) from all parts of the Portuguese dominions. The marquis de Pombal, who was at this time the prime minister of Portugal, governed the kingdom for many years with a most unbounded authority, and which appears to have been sometimes directed to the most cruel and arbitrary purposes.

In 1762, when a war broke out between Spain and England, the Spaniards, and their allies, the French, attempted to force his faithful majesty into their alliance, and offered 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 these 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 the apparent danger of Portugal. 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. However, a few English battalions put an effectual stop, by their courage and conduct, to the progress of the invasion. Portugal was saved, and a peace was concluded at Fontainebleau, in 1763.

His Portuguese majesty having no son, his eldest daughter was married, by dispensation from the pope, to don Pedro, her own uncle, to prevent the crown from falling into a foreign family. The late king died on the 24th of February, 1777, and was succeeded by his daughter, the present queen. One of the first acts of her majesty's reign was the removal from power of the marquis de Pombal; an event which excited general joy throughout the kingdom, as might naturally be expected from the arbitrary and oppressive nature of his administration: though it has been alleged in his favour, that he adopted sundry public measures which were calculated to promote the real interests of Portugal.

On the 10th of March 1792, the prince of Brasil, as presumptive heir to the crown, published an edict, declaring, that as his mother, from her unhappy situation, was incapable of managing the affairs of government, he would place his signature to public papers, till the return of her health; and that no other change should be made in the forms.

Portugal, as the ally of England, took a feeble part in the late war against France; but her exertions were confined to furnishing Spain with a few auxiliary troops, and sending a small squadron to join the English fleet. After Spain had made peace with France, a war took place between the former country and Portugal, but which was not productive of any very important events. In August 1797, a negotiation for a treaty of peace between France and Portugal was entered into, and the treaty actually concluded; but the French directory refused to ratify it, alleging that the queen of Portugal, so far from showing a disposition to abide by its articles, had put her forts and principal ports into the possession of the English. After the failure of this attempt at negotiation, Portugal continued a member of the alliance against France; though her aid was very unimportant, consisting only of a small squadron, which cruised in the Mediterranean, and assisted in the blockade of Malta. At length, a short time pre-

vious to the signing of the preliminaries of the peace of Amiens, Portugal concluded a peace with Spain, the latter power restoring some places that had been taken from Portugal; which in return ceded in perpetuity to Spain the fortress of Olivenza, with its territory and inhabitants, from the Guadiana, which river, by the same treaty, was made the boundary of the two kingdoms in that part. This treaty was signed at Badajoz, June 6, 1801; and on the 20th of September, of the same year, Portugal likewise concluded a treaty of peace with France, the principal article of which made some alterations in the limits of Portuguese and French Guiana, considerably to the advantage of the latter power.

The queen is disordered by religious melancholy; Dr. Willis, at the request of the prince, some years since, made a voyage to Lisbon, to attempt her cure; but her recovery remaining hopeless, the government of the country rests with the prince of Brasil.

Maria-Frances-Isabella, queen of Portugal, born December 17, 1734; married, June 6, 1760, to her uncle, don Pedro Clement, F. R. S. born July 5, 1717, who died May 25, 1786; began to reign February 24, 1777.

Their issue.

John-Maria-Joseph-Louis, born May 13, 1767; married, January 9, 1790, Maria-Louisa, of Spain, born July 9, 1777.

Their issue.

1. Maria-Theresa, princess of Beira, born April 29, 1793.
2. Isabella-Maria-Franziska, born May 19, 1797.
3. A prince of Beira, born August 12, 1798.

Sisters to the queen.

1. Anna-Frances-Antoinetta, born October 8, 1736.
2. Maria-Franziska-Benedicta, born July 24, 1746; married in 1476 to her nephew the prince of Brazil, who died September 11, 1788.

ITALY.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.
Length 650 } Breadth 200 }	between { 38 and 46 North latitude. { 8 and 18° 30' East longitude.

Containing, after deducting the territory lately annexed to France, and including the islands of Sicily and Sardinia, 71,050 square miles, with 220 inhabitants to each.

NAME.] THE name of Italy, *Italia*, is usually derived from Italus, the leader of an ancient colony from Arcadia. Sir Walter Raleigh has supposed, with equal ingenuity and probability, that it is the same with *Ætolia*, and received from a colony of Greeks from that country.

BOUNDARIES.] Italy is bounded on the north by Switzerland and the circle of Austria; on the east by the Adriatic Sea, on the south by the Mediterranean, and on the west by Switzerland and France.

DIVISIONS.] Italy, at present, contains the following states and kingdoms.

Plate XIII.



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Plate XVIII.

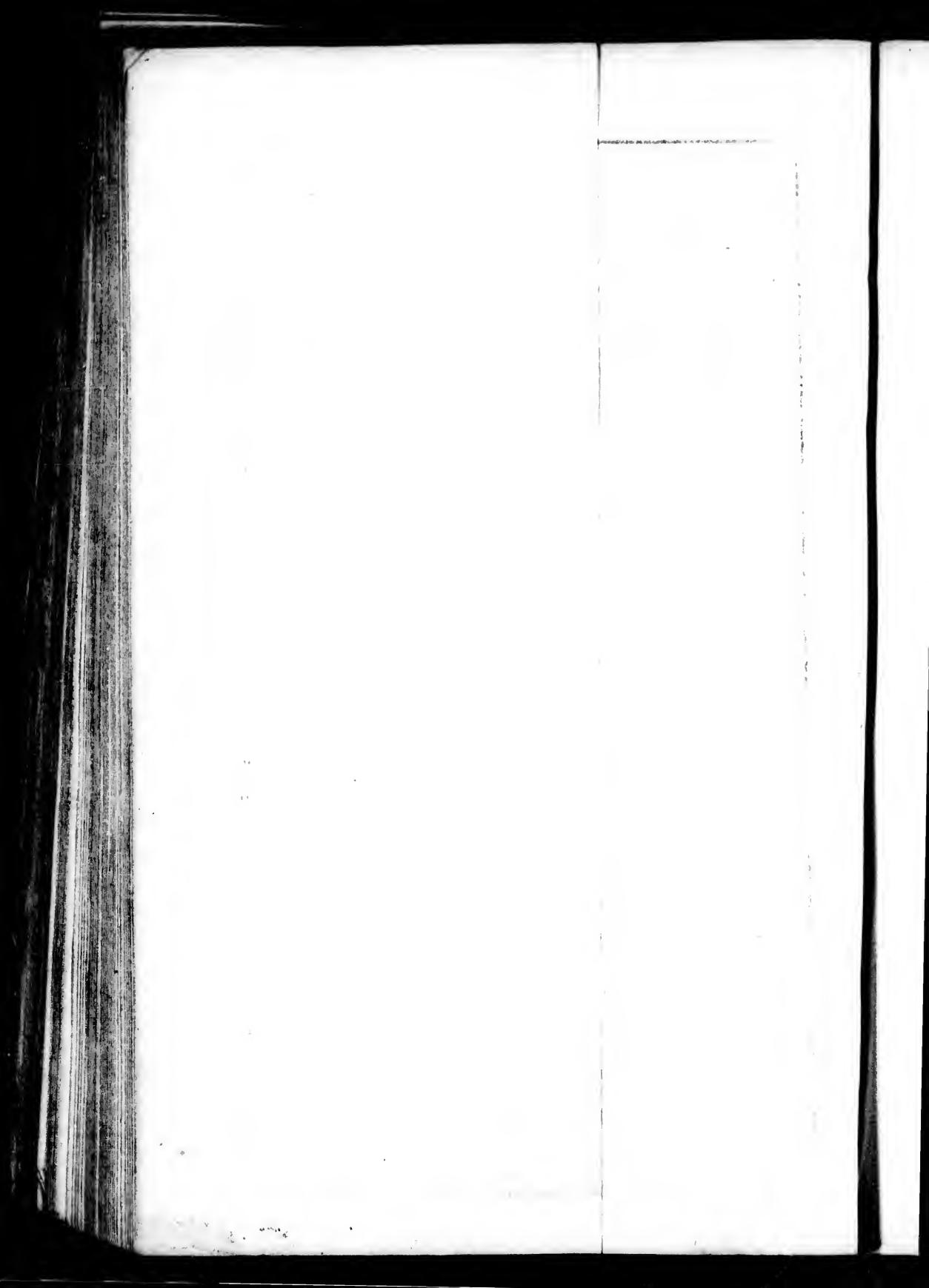


ITALY
From the best
AUTHORITIES.



Italian Miles 20 to a Degree.
10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 100 110 120
British Statute Miles six to a Degree.
10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 100 110 120

Longitude 18° East from London. 30



States.	S. Miles.	Populat.	Chief Towns.
Italian Republic	9,280	3,555,500	Milan
Ligurian Republic	1,700	600,000	Genoa
Duchy of Venice	8,000	2,000,000	Venice
Duchy of Parma } and Placentia }	1,440	250,000	Parma
Republic of Lucca	368	120,000	Lucca
Kingdom of Etruria	7,360	1,050,000	Florence
Repub. of San Marino	32	5,000	San Marino
The Ecclesiastical State	10,080	1,500,000	Rome
Kingdom of Naples	20,500	4,700,000	Naples
Island and Kingd. of Sicily	7,300	1,300,000	Palermo
Isld. and Kingd. of Sardinia	6,930	423,500	Cagliari
Total	71,050	15,504,000	

FACE OF THE COUNTRY.] The beautiful prospects and scenery of Italy have been the theme of almost all travellers in this delightful country. In some parts, indeed, there are extensive plains which have rather a naked, though not a barren appearance, and in others marshes and standing waters, which render the air unwholesome; but the general aspect of the country presents rich groves of olive, orange, citron, almond, and other fruit-trees, intermingled with corn-fields, inclosed by rows of tall poplars, elms, and mulberry-trees, which support the luxuriant branches of the vine; while transparent streams descend the eminences, and meander through the valleys, exhibiting at once the image of the most exuberant fertility, and forming the most varied and enchanting landscapes.

MOUNTAINS.] The principal mountains are the Alps on the borders of France, Switzerland, and Germany, and the Apennines, which run along the coast of Genoa, and then pass through the whole length of Italy, generally approaching nearer to the Adriatic than the Mediterranean. The celebrated volcanoes of Vesuvius and Ætna are situate, the former in the vicinity of Naples, and the latter in the island of Sicily; but we shall reserve the description of these for the head of **NATURAL CURIOSITIES.**

LAKES, RIVERS, MINERAL WATERS.] The most considerable lakes in Italy are the Lago Maggiore, or the Greater Lake, called also the Lake of Locarno, about 27 miles in length and three in breadth; the lake of Como, about 32 miles in length and two and a half in breadth; the lake of Garda, about 30 miles long and eight broad, and the lakes of Lugano, Perugia, Terni, and Celano.

The principal rivers are the Po, the Adige, the Tiber, and the Arno. The two former rise in the Alps, the first in Savoy, the second in Tyrol, and both flow into the Gulf of Venice, the former after a course of about 360 miles, the latter after having run about 200. The Tiber and the Arno rise in the Apennines and fall into the sea of Tuscany, the former near Rome, after having flowed through that city, and the latter near Pisa.

Mineral springs are found in various parts of Italy. The baths of Baia, near Naples, were celebrated in the time of the Romans. At Pisa are medicinal springs, one of which is said exactly to resemble in taste the Cheltenham water in England.

METALS, MINERALS.] The mountains of Italy abound in mines that produce 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 alum, though they are now neglected. Beautiful marble of all kinds is one of the chief productions of Italy.

CLIMATE, SOIL, PRODUCE.] The climate of Italy is various, and some parts of this country exhibit 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 Apennines, 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. The sea breezes refresh the kingdom of Naples so much, that no remarkable inconvenience of air is found there, notwithstanding its southern situation. In general, the air of Italy may be said to be dry and pure.

The happy soil of Italy produces the comforts and luxuries of life in great abundance; each district has its peculiar excellency and commodity; wines, the most delicious fruits, and oil, are the most general productions. As much corn grows here as serves the inhabitants; and, were the ground properly cultivated, the Italians might export it to their neighbours. In Lombardy, a crop of corn, another of silk, and another of wine, are obtained every year from the same land; the vines being planted in rows, with mulberry-trees for their support, and the intervals sown with corn.

In the abundance, variety, and flavour of its fruits, no country in Europe can vie with Italy; which, besides oranges, lemons, citrons, and figs, produces such quantities of chestnuts, cherries, and plums, that they are of little value to the proprietors.

ANIMALS.] There is little difference between the animals of Italy, and those of France and Germany already mentioned.

NATURAL CURIOSITIES.] Among the natural curiosities of Italy the most conspicuous are its volcanoes. Mount Vesuvius, is five Italian miles distant from the city of Naples. The declivity of this mountain towards the sea is every-where planted with vines and fruit-trees, and it is equally fertile towards the bottom. The circumjacent plain affords a delightful prospect, and the air is clear and wholesome. The south and west sides of the mountain form very different views, being, like the top, covered with black cinders and stones. The height of Mount Vesuvius has been computed to be 3,900 feet above the surface of the sea; and it has been a volcano beyond the reach of history or tradition. An animated description of its ravages in the year 79, is given by the younger Pliny, who was a witness to what he wrote. From that time to the year 1631, its eruptions were but small and moderate; then, however, it broke out with accumulated fury, and desolated miles around. In 1694, was a great eruption, which continued near a month, when burning matter was thrown out

with so much force, that some of it fell at thirty miles distance, and a vast quantity of liquid lava ran down like a river for three miles distance, carrying every thing before it which lay in its way. In 1707, when there was another eruption, such quantities of cinders and ashes were thrown out, that it was dark at Naples at noon-day. In 1707, a violent eruption happened, which is reckoned to be the 27th from that which destroyed Herculaneum, in the time of Titus. In this eruption, the ashes, or rather small cinders, showered down so fast at Naples, that the people in the streets were obliged to use umbrellas, or adopt some other expedient, to guard themselves against them. The tops of the houses and the balconies were covered with these cinders; and ships at sea, twenty leagues from Naples, were covered with them, to the great astonishment of the sailors. An eruption happened also in 1706, another in 1779, which have been particularly described by sir William Hamilton in the Philosophical Transactions; and another in June 1794, which laid waste a considerable tract of country, and destroyed several villages, and a great number of habitations. It has been observed by a modern traveller, that though Mount Vesuvius often fills the neighbouring country with terror, yet, as few things in nature are so absolutely noxious as not to produce some good, even this raging volcano, by its sulphureous and nitrous manure, and the heat of its subterraneous fires, contributes not a little to the uncommon fertility of the country about it, and to the profusion of fruits and herbage with which it is every-where covered. Besides, it is supposed that, while open and active, the mountain is less hostile to Naples, than it would be, if its eruptions were to cease, and its struggles confined to its own bowels, for then might ensue the most fatal shocks to the unstable foundation of the whole district of Terra di Lavoro.

Mount *Ætna* is 10,954 feet in height, and has been computed to be 180 miles in circumference at its base; while *Vesuvius* is only about 30. It stands separate from all other mountains, its figure is circular, and it terminates in a cone. The lower parts of it are very fruitful in corn and sugar-canes; the middle abounds with woods, olive-trees, and vines; and the upper part is almost the whole year covered with snow. Its fiery eruptions have always rendered it famous: in one of these, which happened in 1669, fourteen towns and villages were destroyed, and there have been several terrible eruptions since that time. There is generally an earthquake before any great eruption. In 1693, the port-town of Catania was overturned, and 18,000 people perished.

Near the lake Agnano and Pozzuolo, there is a valley called *Solfatara*, because vast quantities of sulphur are continually forced out of the clefts by subterranean fires. The grotto del *Came* is remarkable for its poisonous steams, and is so called from its killing dogs that enter it, if forced to remain there. Scorpions, vipers, and serpents, are said to be common in *Apulia*.

Savoy may likewise be enumerated among the curiosities of Italy. Those vast bodies of snow and ice, which are called the glaciers of *Savoy*, deserve to be particularly mentioned. There are five glaciers which extend almost to the plain of the vale of *Chamouny*, and are separated by wild forests, corn-fields, and rich meadows; so that immense tracts of ice are blended with the highest cultivation, and perpetually succeed to each other, in the most singular and striking vicissitudes. All these several valleys of ice, which lie chiefly in the hol-

lows of the mountains, and are some leagues in length, unite together at the foot of Mont Blanc; the highest mountain in Europe, and probably of the ancient world. According to the calculations of M. de Luc, the height of this mountain above the level of the sea, is 2391 $\frac{1}{4}$ French toises, or 15,303 English feet. "I am convinced," says Mr. Coxe, "from the situation of Mont Blanc, from the height of the mountains around it, from its superior elevation above them, and its being seen at a great distance from all sides, that it is higher than any mountain in Switzerland; which, beyond a doubt, is, next to Mont Blanc, the highest ground in Europe."

The cascade of Terni, about four miles from the town of that name, is perhaps the most beautiful cataract in the world. The river Velino, at a short distance from its junction with the Nar, falls suddenly down a precipice, nearly 300 feet in height, and dashes with such violence on the rocks below, that a great part of its stream rises in vapour. It afterwards falls down two other precipices, almost as high as the first; its waters each time rising in a kind of mist. The aggregate height of the three falls is supposed to be about 800 feet. Near Tivoli is another beautiful cascade, the river Teverone, the ancient Anio, falling about 50 feet.

[POPULATION, NATIONAL CHARACTER, MANNERS, CUSTOMS.] The population of Italy in its present state, as also that of the several republics and sovereignties which it contains, have already been given according to the latest and most authentic accounts.

The Italians are generally well-proportioned, and have such meaning in their looks, that they have greatly assisted the ideas of their painters. The women are well-shaped, and very amorous. The marriages, especially of the better sort, are said to be of very little value in Italy. Every wife has been represented to have her gallant or *cicisbeo*, with whom she keeps company, and sometimes cohabits, with very little ceremony, and no offence on either side. But this practice is chiefly remarkable at Venice; and indeed the representations which have been made of this kind by travellers, appear to have been much exaggerated. With regard to the modes of life, the best quality of a modern Italian is sobriety, and they submit very patiently to 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, fruits, and vegetables of all kinds, contributes to their contentment and satisfaction; and an Italian gentleman or peasant can be luxurious at a very small expense. Though perhaps all Italy does not contain many descendants of the ancient Romans, yet the present inhabitants speak of themselves as successors of 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: though they make at present but a very inconsiderable figure 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 marriages, 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 courtesans, or *bona-robas*, as they are called, make a kind of profession 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 mattress of straw, 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 coverlid. The bedstead consists of four wooden forms or benches. An English peer and peercess must lie in this manner, unless they carry an upholsterer'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 yet 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 exceedingly bad; and the butter so rancid, that it cannot be touched, or even borne within the reach of your 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."

RELIGION.] The religion of the Italians is the Roman-catholic. The inquisition here is little more than a name; and persons of all religions live unmolested in Italy, provided no gross insult is offered to their worship. 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 government of the papacy has employed many volumes in describing it. The cardinals, who are next in dignity to his holiness, are seventy; but that number is seldom or never complete: they are appointed by the pope, who takes care to have a majority of Italian cardinals, that the chair may not be removed from Rome, as it was once to Avignon in

France, the then pope being a Frenchman. In promoting foreign prelates to the cardinalship, the pope regulates himself according to the nomination of the princes who profess that religion. His chief minister is the cardinal patron, generally his nephew, or near relation, who improves the time of the pope's reign by amassing what he can. When met in a consistory, the cardinals pretend to controul the pope, in matters both spiritual and temporal, and have been sometimes known to prevail. The reign of a pope is seldom of long duration, being generally old men at the time of their election. The conclave is a scene where the cardinals principally endeavour to display their abilities, and where many transactions pass very inconsistent with their pretended inspiration by 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 protestant churches. After declaring his belief in one God, and other heads wherein Christians in general are agreed, he proceeds as follows :

“ I most firmly admit and embrace the apostolical and ecclesiastical traditions, and all other constitutions of the church of Rome.

“ I do admit the Holy Scriptures in the same sense that holy mother-church doth, whose business it is to judge of the true sense and interpretation of them ; and I will interpret them according to the unanimous consent of the fathers.

“ I do profess and believe that there are seven sacraments of the law, truly and properly so called, instituted by Jesus Christ our Lord, and necessary to the salvation of mankind, though not all of them to every one ; namely, baptism, confirmation, eucharist, penance, extreme unction, orders, and marriage, and that they do confer grace ; and that of these, baptism, confirmation, and orders, may not be repeated without sacrilege. I do also receive and admit the received and approved rites of the catholic church in her solemn administration of the abovesaid sacraments.

“ I do embrace and receive all and every thing that hath been defined and declared by the holy council of Trent * concerning original sin and justification.

“ I do also profess that in the mass there is offered unto God a true, proper, and propitiatory sacrifice for the quick and the dead ; and that in the most holy sacrament of the eucharist there is truly, really, and substantially, the body and blood, together with the soul and divinity, of our Lord Jesus Christ ; and that there is a conversion made of the whole substance of the bread into the body, and of the whole substance of the wine into the blood ; which conversion the catholic church calls Transubstantiation. I confess that under one kind only, whole and entire, Christ and a true sacrament is taken and received.

“ I do firmly believe that there is a purgatory ; and that the souls kept prisoners there do receive help by the suffrages of the faithful.

“ I do likewise believe that the saints reigning together with Christ are to be worshipped and prayed unto ; and that they do offer

* A convocation of Roman-catholic cardinals, archbishops, bishops, and divines, who assembled at Trent, by virtue of a bull from the pope, anno 1546, and devoted to him, to determine upon certain points of faith, and to suppress what they were pleased to term the rising heresies in the church.

up 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 indulgences was left by Christ to the church, and that the use of them is very beneficial to Christian people.

"I do acknowledge the holy catholic and apostolical Roman church to be the mother and mistress of all churches: and I do promise and swear true obedience to the bishop of Rome, the successor of St. Peter, the prince of the apostles, and vicar of Jesus Christ.

"I do undoubtedly receive and profess all other things which have been delivered, defined, and declared by the sacred canons and œcumenical councils, and especially by the holy synod of Trent. And all other things contrary thereto, and all heresies condemned, rejected, and anathematised by the church; I do likewise condemn, reject, and anathematise."

ARCHBISHOPRICS.] There are forty-one 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.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN, PAINTERS, } In the Introduction
STATUARIES, ARCHITECTS, AND ARTISTS. } we have particularised some of the great men which ancient 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 the celebrated father Paul, 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 have much merit: and the liberality of his sentiments, for the age in which he lived, is amazing. Among the prose writers in the Italian language, Boccacio has been thought one of the most pure and correct in point of style: he was a very natural painter of life and manners, but his productions are too licentious. Petrarcha, who wrote both in Latin and Italian, revived among the moderns the spirit and genius of ancient literature: but among the Italian poets, Dante, Ariosto, and Tasso, are the most distinguished. There are said to be upwards of

* 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 sackcloth, with lighted tapers, and monks carrying crucifixes, bawling and hellowing 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 thousand comedies in the Italian language, though not many that are excellent: but Metastasio has acquired a great reputation by writing dramatic pieces set to music. Sannazarius, 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 to the classics themselves. Secinus, who was so much distinguished by his opposition to the doctrine of the Trinity, was a native of Italy.

The Italian painters, sculptors, architects, and musicians, are unrivalled, not only in their number, but their excellence. The revival of learning, after the sack of Constantinople by the Turks, revived taste likewise, and gave mankind a relish for truth and beauty in design and colouring. Raphael, from his own ideas, assisted by the ancients, struck out a new creation with his pencil, and still stands at the head of the art of painting. Michael Angelo Buonarroti united in his own person painting, sculpture, and architecture. The colouring of Titian has perhaps never yet been equalled. Bramante, Bernini, and many other Italians, carried sculpture and architecture to an amazing height. Julio Romano, Correggio, Caracci, Veronese, and others, are, as painters, unequalled in their several manners. The same may be said of Corelli, and other Italians, in music. At present Italy cannot justly boast of any extraordinary genius in the fine arts.

UNIVERSITIES.] Those of Italy are, Rome, Venice, Florence, Mantua, Padua, Parma, Verona, Milan, Pavia, Bologna, Ferrara, Pisa*, Naples, Salerno, and Perusia.

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 acquired 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 style and writing is most in request.

The Lord's Prayer ran thus: *Padre nostro che sei nel cielo, sia sanctificato il tuo nome; il tuo regno venga; la tua volontà sia fatta siccome in cielo così anche in terra: dacci oggi il nostro pane cotidiano; e remettici i nostri debiti, siccome noi ancora rimettiamo a nostri debitori; e non inducici in tentatione, ma liberaci dal maligno; perciocché tuo è il regno, e la potenza, e la gloria in sempiterno. Amen.*

ANTIQUITIES.] Among the antiquities of Italy, the amphitheatres claim the first rank, as exhibiting the most wonderful specimens of ancient magnificence. There are at Rome considerable remains of that which was erected by Vespasian, and finished by Domitian, called the Coliseo. Twelve thousand Jewish captives were employed by Vespasian in this building; and it is said to have been capable of containing eighty-seven thousand spectators seated, and twenty thousand standing. The architecture of this amphitheatre is perfectly light, and its proportions are so just, that it does not appear so large as it really is. But it has been stripped of all its magnificent pillars and ornaments, at various times, and by various enemies. The Goths, and other barbarians, began its destruction, and popes and cardinals have endeavoured to complete its ruin. Cardinal Farnese, in particular, robbed it of some fine remains of its marble cornices, friezes, &c.; and, with infinite pains and labour, took away what was practicable of the outside casing of thar-

* Pisa has forty-six professors.

ble, which he employed in building the palace of Farnese. The amphitheatre of Verona, erected by the consul Flaminius, is thought to be the most entire of any in Italy. There are forty-five rows of steps carried all round, formed of fine blocks of marble about a foot and a half high each, and above two feet broad. Twenty-two thousand persons may be seated here at their ease, allowing one foot and a half for each person. This amphitheatre is quite perfect, and has been repaired with the greatest care, at the expense of the inhabitants. They frequently give public spectacles in it, such as horse-races, combats of wild beasts, &c. The ruins of theatres and amphitheatres are likewise visible in other places. The triumphal arches of Vespasian, Septimius Severus, and Constantine the Great, are still standing, though decayed. The ruins of the baths, palaces, and temples, answer all the ideas we can form of the Roman grandeur. The Pantheon, which is at present converted into a modern church, and which from its circular figure is commonly called the Rotunda, is more entire than any other Roman temple which is now remaining. There are still left several of the niches which anciently contained the statues of the heathen deities. The outside of the building is of Tivoli free-stone, and within it is incrustated with marble. The roof of the Pantheon is a round dome, without pillars, the diameter of which is a hundred and forty-four feet; and though it has no windows, but only a round aperture in the centre of this dome, it is very light in every part. The pavement consists of large square stones and porphyry, sloping round towards the centre, where the rain-water, falling down through the aperture on the top of the dome, is conveyed away by a proper drain covered with a stone full of holes. The colonnade in the front, which consists of sixteen columns of granite, thirty-seven feet high, exclusive of the pedestals and capitals, each cut out of a single block, and which are of the Corinthian order, can hardly be viewed without astonishment. The entrance of the church is adorned with columns forty-eight feet high, and the architrave is formed of a single piece of granite. On the left hand, on entering the portico, is a large antique vase of Numidian marble; and in the area before the church is a fountain with an antique of porphyry. The pillars of Trajan and Antonine, the former 175 feet high, and the latter covered with instructive sculptures, are still remaining. A traveller forgets the devastations of the northern barbarians, when he sees the rostrated column erected by Duilius 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 strokes of lightning, mentioned by Cicero; the original brass plates containing the laws of the twelve tables; and a thousand other identical antiquities, some of them transmitted unharmed 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, throughout Italy, are furnished with busts and statues fabricated in the times of the republic and the higher empire.

The Appian, Flamian, and Æmilian roads, the first 200 miles, the second 130, and the third 50 miles in length, are in many places still entire; and magnificent ruins of villas, reservoirs, bridges, and the like, present themselves in every part of Italy.

The subterraneous constructions of Italy are as stupendous as those above ground: such are the cloacæ, and the catacombs, or repositories for dead bodies, in the neighbourhood of Rome and Naples. It is not above 50 years since a painter's apprentice discovered the ancient city of

Pæstum or *Posidonia*, in the kingdom of Naples, still standing; for so indifferent are the country people of Italy about objects of antiquity, that it was a new discovery to the learned. An inexhaustible mine of curiosities exists in the ruins of *Herculaneum*, a city lying between *Naples* and *Vesuvius*, which, in the reign of *Nero*, was almost destroyed by an earthquake, and afterwards, in the first year of the reign of *Titus*, overwhelmed by a stream of the lava of *Vesuvius*. The melted lava in its course filled up the streets and houses in some places to the height of sixty-eight feet above the tops of the latter, and in others one hundred and ten feet. This lava is now of a consistency which renders it extremely difficult to be removed or cleared away: it is composed of bituminous particles, mixed with cinders, minerals, metallic and vitrified sandy substances, which altogether form a close and heavy mass. In the revolution of so many ages, the spot it stood upon was entirely forgotten; but in the year 1713, upon digging into these parts, some remains of this unfortunate city were discovered, and many antiquities were dug out; but the search was afterwards discontinued, till the year 1736, when the king of Naples employed men to dig perpendicularly eighty feet deep, whereupon not only the city made its appearance, but also the bed of the river which ran through it. The temple of *Jupiter* was then disclosed, and the whole of the theatre. In the temple was found a statue of gold, and the inscription that decorated the great doors of entrance. In the theatre, the fragments of a gilt chariot of bronze, with horses of the same metal, likewise gilt: this had been placed over the principal door of entrance. There were likewise found among the ruins of this city, multitudes of statues, busts, pillars, paintings, manuscripts, furniture, and various utensils. The streets of the town appear to have been quite straight and regular, the houses well built, and much alike; some of the rooms paved with Mosaic, others with fine marbles, others again with bricks three feet long and six inches thick. It appears that the town was not filled up so unexpectedly with the melted lava, as to prevent the greatest part of the inhabitants from escaping with many of the richest effects: for when the excavations were made, there was not more than a dozen skeletons found, and but little gold, silver, or precious stones.

The town of *Pompeii* was destroyed by the same eruption of *Mount Vesuvius* which occasioned the destruction of *Herculaneum*; but it was not discovered till near forty years after the discovery of *Herculaneum*. One street, and a few detached buildings of this town, have been cleared; the street is well paved with the same kind of stone of which the ancient roads are made, and narrow causeways are raised a foot and a half on each side for conveniency of foot passengers. *Dr. Moore* observes, that the street itself is not so broad as the narrowest part of the *Strand*, and is supposed to have been inhabited by tradespeople. The traces of wheels of carriages are to be seen on the pavement. The houses are small, but give an idea of neatness and conveniency. The stucco on the walls is smooth and beautiful, and as hard as marble. Some of the rooms are ornamented with paintings, mostly single figures, representing some animal. They are tolerably well executed, and a little water being thrown on them, the colours appear surprisingly fresh. Most of the houses are built on the same plan, and have one small room from the passage, which is conjectured to have been the shop, with a window to the street, and a place which seems to have been contrived for showing the goods to the greatest advantage. In another part of the town is a rectangular building, with a colonnade towards the court, something in the style of

the Royal Exchange at London, but smaller. At a considerable distance from this, is a temple of the goddess Isis, the pillars of which are of brick, stuccoed like those of the guard-room; but there is nothing very magnificent in the appearance of this edifice. The best paintings hitherto found at Pompeii, are those of this temple; they have been cut out of the walls, and removed to Portici. Few skeletons were found in the streets of this town, but a considerable number in the houses. In one apartment (says Mr. Sutherland), we saw the skeletons of 17 poor wretches who were confined by the ancles in an iron machine. Many other bodies were found, some of them in circumstances which plainly shewed that they were endeavouring to escape when the eruption overtook them.

STATES OF ITALY, GOVERNMENTS, } Thus far, of Italy in general;
CITIES, CHIEF TOWNS. } but as the Italian states are not
like the republic of Switzerland, or the empire of Germany, cemented by a political confederacy, to which every member is accountable (for every Italian state has a distinct form of government, trade, and interests), it will be necessary to take a separate view of each, to assist the reader in forming an idea of the whole.

Since the expulsion of the king of Sardinia from his possessions on the continent of Italy, and the annexation of Savoy and Piedmont to France, the first and principal state which presents itself in the northern part of Italy, is the new ITALIAN REPUBLIC, founded in the year 1797 by Bonaparte, under the name of the Cisalpine Republic. In the year 1799 it was for a time abolished, by the success of the Austrian and Russian arms; but restored again after the battle of Marengo, in 1800, and acknowledged, on the part of Austria, by the treaty of Luneville. It consists of the late Austrian duchies of Milan and Mantua, the duchy of Modena, the principalities of Massa and Carrara; the late Venetian provinces of Cremasco, Bergamasco, Bresciano, and a part of the Veronese, as far as the Adige; the three legations of the ecclesiastical state, Bologna, Ferrara, and Romagna, and the late subjects of the Grisons, Bormio, the Valteline, and Claevers. It is bounded on the north by Switzerland and the county of Tyrol; on the east by the duchy of Venice and the Adriatic Sea; on the south by the kingdom of Etruria, Lucca, and the ecclesiastical state; and on the west by Piedmont. It is divided into thirteen departments, *viz.* Agogna, Lario, Milan, Serio, Mella, Upper Po, Minchia, Crostolo, Panaro, Lower Po, Reno, Rubicon, Verona. The country is in general extremely fertile and productive. Milan, the capital and seat of government, is situate in a plain between the rivers Adda and Tesino. It is a strong city, with a citadel, and a magnificent cathedral in the Gothic taste, adorned, it is said, with 4,000 statues. It contains about 130,000 inhabitants. The other principal cities are Mantua, one of the strongest fortresses in Europe, and containing about 12,000 inhabitants, who boast that Virgil was a native of their country; Pavia, celebrated for its ancient university, founded by Charlemagne; Bologna, containing 80,000 inhabitants; Modena, with about 30,000, and 100 churches; Ferrara, a bishop's see and university; Ravenna, the late capital of the papal legation of Romagna; and Verona; of which latter city, however, a small part on the left bank of the Adige appertains to the Austrian Venetian territory.

According to the constitution of this republic, dated the 25th of January 1802, the whole executive power, without responsibility, is lodged in the president; which office was at the same time accepted by Bonaparte, the first consul of France, who appointed Melzi d'Eril his vice-

president. There is also a legislative body of seventy-five members—a legislative council of ten—a *consulta* of state of eight persons—and three colleges, of what are called *possidenti*, or landed proprietors; *dotti*, or literati and artists; and *commercianti*, or persons engaged in trade; amounting in the whole to seven hundred members, who are to be convoked once in two years, to give in a list of names of persons proper to be appointed public officers, from which they are chosen by a committee of twenty-one members, called *cenjurati*; but all real power resides in the president.

While the Milanese belonged to the house of Austria, it was a very powerful state; and formerly, when under the government of its own dukes, gave law to all Italy. The revenue of this duchy was above 300,000*l.* annually, which was supposed might maintain an army of 30,000 men. Mantua was also a rich duchy, which brought to its own dukes an annual revenue of 500,000 crowns. The duchy of Modena (formerly Mutina), before the late revolutions excited by the French in Italy, was governed by its own duke, the head of the house of Este, from whom the family of Brunswic descended. The duke was absolute within his own dominions. He was under the protection of the house of Austria, and a vassal of the empire. He has received, as an indemnity for his duchy, the territories of the Brisgau and the Ortenau in Germany.

The republic of GENOA, or the LIGURIAN republic, is greatly degenerated from its ancient power and opulence. The territory is divided into three circles, or districts, called *la Riviera di Levante*, or eastern coast; *la Riviera di Ponente*, or western coast; and *il Centro*, the centre or mid-land district. Genoa is a most superb city, and contains some very magnificent palaces, particularly those of Doria* and Durazzo. The inhabitants of distinction dress in black, in a plain, if not an uncouth, manner. Their chief manufactures are velvets, damasks, gold and silver tissues, and paper. The city of Genoa contains about 100,000 inhabitants; among whom were many rich trading individuals. Its maritime power is dwindled down to a few galleys. The common people are wretched beyond expression, as is the soil of its territory. Near the sea some parts are tolerably well cultivated. The old government of Genoa was aristocratical, being vested in the nobility; the chief person was called the doge, or duke; to which dignity no person was promoted till he was fifty years of age. Every two years a new doge was chosen, and the former became incapable, during five years, of holding the same post again. The doge gave audience to ambassadors; all orders of government were issued in his name, and he was allowed a body-guard of two hundred Germans.

By the new constitution of the Ligurian republic, framed at Paris in the year 1801, the government is vested in a doge and senate of thirty, and a legislative body of seventy members; of which one-fifth go out annually. The revenue is said to amount to above 600,000*l.*; but there are great public debts.

VENICE, now a part of the Austrian territory, was one of the most celebrated republics in the world, on account both of its constitution and former power. The duchy consists at present of the seven provinces of

* Andrew Doria, the head of this family, famous for his military exploits, and the deliverer of Genoa, was born in the territory of Genoa, in the year 1468; he was offered the sovereignty of the state, but refused it, and gave to the people that republican form of government which subsisted till the late revolution; he lived to the age of ninety-three, the refuge and friend of the unfortunate.

Venice, or the Dogeat, Treviso, Padua, Vicenza, Verona, and Belluno; which latter is divided into the three districts of Belluno, Feldre, and Cadore. 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 ancient magnificence, but is in every respect degenerated, except in the passion which its inhabitants still retain for music and mummerly during their carnivals. They seem to have lost their ancient taste for painting and architecture, and to be returning to Gothicism. They had, however, lately some spirited differences with the court of Rome, and seemed to be disposed to throw off their obedience to its head. As to the constitution of the late republic, it was originally democratical, the magistrates being chosen by a general assembly of the people, and so continued for one hundred and fifty years; but various changes afterwards took place: doges, or dukes, were appointed, who were invested with great power, which they often grossly abused, and some of them were assassinated by the people. By degrees a body of hereditary nobility was formed; continued and progressive encroachments were made on the rights of the people; and a complete aristocracy was at length established upon the ruins of the ancient popular government. The nobility were divided into six classes, amounting in the whole to 2,500, each of whom, when twenty-five years of age, had a right to be a member of the grand council. Before the late revolution, these elected a doge, or chief magistrate, in a peculiar manner by ballot, which was managed by gold and silver balls. The doge was invested with great state, and with emblems of supreme authority, but had very little power, and was not permitted to go out of the city without the permission of the grand council. The government and laws were administered, by different councils of the nobles.

The college, otherwise called the signory, was the supreme cabinet council of the state, and also the representative of the republic. This court gave audience, and delivered answers, in the name of the republic, to foreign ambassadors, to the deputies of towns and provinces, and to the generals of the army. It also received all requests and memorials on state affairs, summoned the senate at pleasure, and arranged the business to be discussed in that assembly. The council often took cognizance of state crimes, and had the power of seizing accused persons, examining them in prison, and taking their answers in writing, with the evidence against them. But the tribunal of state inquisitors, which consisted only of three members, and which was in the highest degree despotic in its manner of proceeding, had the power of deciding, without appeal, on the life of every citizen belonging to the Venetian state—the highest of the nobility, even the doge himself, not being excepted. To these three inquisitors was given the right of employing spies, considering secret intelligence, issuing orders to seize all persons whose words or actions they might think reprehensible, and afterwards trying them, and ordering them to be executed, when they thought proper. They had keys to every apartment of the ducal palace; and could, whenever they pleased, penetrate into the very bed-chamber of the doge, open his cabinet, and examine his papers; and, of course, might command access to the house of every individual in the state. They continued in office only one year, but were not responsible afterwards for their conduct whilst they were in authority. So much distrust and jealousy were dis-

played by this government, that the noble Venetians were afraid of having any intercourse with foreign ambassadors, or with foreigners of any kind, and were even cautious of visiting at each other's houses.

All the orders of Venetian nobility are dressed in black gowns, large wigs, and caps which they hold in their hands. The ceremony of the doge's marrying the Adriatic once a year, by dropping into it a ring from his bucentaur, or state barge, attended by those of all the nobility, was intermitted, for the first time for several centuries, on Ascension-day 1797; and the bucentaur has since been taken away from Venice by the French. The inhabitants of Venice amount to about 140,000. The grandeur and convenience of the city, particularly the public palaces, the treasury, and the arsenal, are beyond expression. Over the several canals of Venice are laid near 500 bridges, the greatest part of which are of stone. The Venetians still have some manufactures in scarlet cloth, gold and silver stuffs, and, above all, fine looking-glasses, all which bring in a considerable revenue to the owners; that of the state, annually, is said to have amounted to 8,000,000 of Italian ducats, each valued at twenty-pence of our money. Out of this were defrayed the expenses of the state, and the pay of the army, which, in the time of peace, consisted of 16,000 regular troops (always commanded by a foreign general) and 10,000 militia. They kept up a small fleet for curbing the insolence of the piratical states of Barbary. The French have, however, pressed into their service the ships they found here; and likewise carried away immense quantities of arms and military stores from the arsenal.

The Venetians have some orders of knighthood, the chief of which are those of the *Stola d'Oro*, so called from the robe they wear, which is conferred only on the first quality; and the military order of St. Mark, of which in the proper place.

In ecclesiastical matters, the Venetians have two patriarchs; the authority of one reaches over all the provinces, but neither of them has much power: all religious sects, even the Mohammedan and pagan, excepting protestants, are here tolerated in the free exercise of their religion.

The Venetians are a lively ingenious people, extravagantly fond of public amusements, with an uncommon relish for humour. They are in general tall and well made; and many fine manly countenances are met with in the streets of Venice, resembling those transmitted to us by the pencils of Paul Veronese and Titian. The women are of a fine style of countenance, with expressive features, and are of an easy address. The common people are remarkably sober, obliging to strangers, and gentle in their intercourse with each other. As it is very much the custom to go about in masks at Venice, and great liberties are taken during the time of the carnival, an idea has prevailed, that there is much more licentiousness of manners here than in other places: but this opinion seems to have been carried too far. Great numbers of strangers visit Venice during the time of the carnival, and there are eight or nine theatres here, including the opera-houses.

The duchy and city of PARMA, together with the duchies of Placentia and Guastalla, form one of the most flourishing states in Italy, of its extent. The soils of Parma and Placentia are fertile, and produce the richest fruits and pasturages, and contain considerable manufactures of silk. The city of Parma is the seat of a bishop's see and a university; and some of its magnificent churches are painted by the famous Correggio. It contains about 40,000 inhabitants, and Placentia about 25,000. Both

are embellished with magnificent edifices. The late duke of Parma was a prince of the house of Bourbon, and son to Don Philip, the king of Spain's younger brother. His court was thought to be the politest of any in Italy; and it is said that his revenues amounted to 175,000*l.* sterling a year. Since his death in 1803, the French have taken possession of the duchy of Parma; and it is as yet uncertain in what manner it will be disposed of by them.

The inhabitants of **LUCCA**, which is a small free commonwealth, lying on the Tuscan sea, in a delightful plain, are the most industrious of the Italians. They have improved their country into a beautiful garden, so that, though they do not exceed 120,000, their annual revenue amounts to 80,000*l.* sterling. Their capital is Lucca, which contains about 40,000 inhabitants, who deal in mercery goods, wines, and fruits, especially olives. The vicinity of the grand-duchy of Tuscany kept the people of Lucca constantly on their guard, in order to preserve their freedom; for, in such a situation, a universal concord and harmony can alone enable them to transmit to posterity the blessings of their darling Liberty, whose name they bear on their arms, and whose image is not only impressed on their coin, but also on the city gates, and all their public buildings. It is also observable, that the inhabitants of this little republic, being in possession of freedom, appear with an air of cheerfulness and plenty, seldom to be found among those of the neighbouring countries.

The **KINGDOM OF ETRURIA** is composed of the late grand-duchy of **TUSCANY**, the small *stato degli Presidi*, and the principality of Piombino. It is almost surrounded by the papal territory and the Mediterranean Sea. It is extremely fruitful, and well cultivated, producing great quantities of corn, wine, and oil. The capital is Florence, which, during the reigns of the illustrious house of Medici, was the cabinet of all that is valuable, rich, and masterly, in architecture, literature, and the arts, especially those of painting and sculpture. It contains above 70,000 inhabitants. The beauties and riches of the grand-duke's palaces have been often described; but, before they were plundered by the French, all description fell short of their contents; so that, in every respect, this city was reckoned, after Rome, the second in Italy. The celebrated Venus de Medici, which is considered as the standard of taste in female beauty and proportion, stood in a room called the Tribunal; but has been carried away by the French, and is now at Paris. From the inscription on its base, it appears to have been made by Cleomenes, an Athenian, the son of Apollodorus. It is of white marble, and was surrounded by other master-pieces of sculpture, some of which are said to be the works of Praxiteles, and other Greek masters. Every corner of this beautiful city, which stands between mountains covered with olive-trees, vineyards, and delightful villas, and divided by the Arno, is full of wonders, in the arts of painting, statuary, and architecture. It is a place of some strength, and contains an archbishop's see and a university. The inhabitants boast of the improvements they have made in the Italian tongue, by means of their *Accademia della Crusca*; and several other academies are now established at Florence. Though the Florentines affect great state, yet their nobility and gentry carry on 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.—Upon the accession of the archduke Peter Leopold, afterwards emperor of Germany, to this duchy, a great reformation was intro-

duced, both into the government and manufactures, to the great benefit of the finances. It is thought that the great-duchy of Tuscany could bring into the field, upon occasion, 30,000 fighting men, and that its revenues were above 500,000*l.* a year. The other principal towns of Tuscany are Pisa, Leghorn, and Sienna: the first and last are much decayed; but Leghorn is a very handsome city, built in the modern taste, and with such regularity, that both gates are seen from the market-place. It is well fortified, having two forts towards the sea, besides the citadel. The ramparts afford a very agreeable prospect of the sea, and of many villas on the land side. Here all nations, and even the Mohammedans, have free access, and many settle. The number of inhabitants is computed at 40,000, among whom are said to be 20,000 Jews, who live in a particular quarter of the city, have a handsome synagogue, and, though subject to very heavy imposts, are in a thriving condition, the greatest part of the commerce of this city going through their hands.

When the French erected Tuscany into a kingdom, by the name of the kingdom of Etruria, they gave the sovereignty to Louis the son of the duke of Parma, to whom the grand-duchy of Tuscany was formally ceded by the treaty of Luneville. Since his death in 1803, the government has been administered in the name of his infant son Louis, born Dec. 23, 1799, by the queen-dowager, Maria Louisa, daughter of the present king of Spain.

The republic of St. MARINO is here mentioned as a geographical curiosity. Its territories consist of a high craggy mountain, with a few eminences at the bottom, and the inhabitants boast of having preserved their liberties as a republic for 1300 years. It is under the protection of the pope; and the inoffensive manners of the inhabitants, whose number is not more than 50,000, with the small value of their territory, have preserved its constitution.

The ECCLESIASTICAL STATE, which contains Rome, formerly the capital of the world, is situated about the middle of Italy. The ill 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, surrounding their magnificent villas, and enriched with all the luxuries that art and nature could produce, are now converted into noxious pestilential marshes and quagmires; and the Campagna di Roma, that formerly contained a million of inhabitants, would afford, at present, of itself, but a miserable subsistence to about five hundred. Notwithstanding this, the pope is a considerable temporal prince; and it is supposed that his annual revenue, notwithstanding the great diminution it has suffered of late years, may be still estimated at about 600,000*l.* sterling, including the money received from foreign countries; for the taxes levied on his own subjects scarcely produce 300,000*l.*

Modern Rome, which stands on the Campus Martius, &c. is thirteen miles in circumference; and was supposed in 1787 to contain (according to Mr. Watkins) 160,000 inhabitants. Within its circuit there is a vast number of gardens and vineyards. It stands upon the Tiber, 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 of small strength, were it regularly besieged. The city, standing upon the ruins of ancient Rome, lies much higher, so that it is difficult to distinguish the seven hills on which it was originally built. When we consider Rome as it now stands, there is the strongest

reason to believe that it exceeds ancient Rome itself in the magnificence of its structure. Nothing in the old city, when mistress of the world, could come in competition with St. Peter's church; and perhaps many other churches in Rome exceed, in beauty of architecture, and value of materials, utensils, and furniture, her ancient temples; though it must be acknowledged that the Pantheon must have been an amazing structure. No city, however, in its general appearance, can unite more magnificence and poverty than this, as adjoining the most superb palaces we see the meanest habitations: and temples, the boasted ornaments of antiquity, choked up by sheds and cottages. From the drawings of this city Mr. Watkins expected to see the streets at least as broad as in London, but was disappointed. Il Corso, the principal and most admired, is but little wider than St. Martin's lane; but this mode of building their streets so narrow, is done with a view of intercepting, as much as possible, the sun's heat. The inhabitants of Rome, in 1714, amounted to 143,000. They are now estimated at 160,000.

The cities of Bologna, Ferrara, Ravenna, and Rimini, formerly a part of the papal territory, are now included in the Italian republic. Ancona, situate on the Adriatic, is a place of considerable trade, and contains about 20,000 inhabitants. It was made a free port by Clement XII., who formed a mole on the ruins of the ancient one, raised by the emperor Trajan, above 2,000 feet in length, 100 in breadth, and about 60 in depth, from the surface of the sea. Near this stands the triumphal arch of Trajan, which, next to the Maison Quarrée, at Nismes, is the most entire monument of Roman magnificence existing. Urbino, the capital of the legation of that name, is famous for being the native city of the celebrated painter Raphael. Sinigaglia, in the same legation, has about 12,000 inhabitants. The rest of the ecclesiastical state contains many towns celebrated in ancient history, and even now exhibiting the most striking vestiges of their flourishing state about the beginning of the 16th century; but they are at present little better than desolate, though here and there a luxurious magnificent church and convent may be found, which is supported by the toil and sweat of the neighbouring peasants. Loretto, in the mean time, an obscure spot never thought of or heard of in times of antiquity, became the admiration of the world, for the riches it contained, and the prodigious resort to it of pilgrims, and other devotees, from a notion industriously propagated by the Romish clergy, that the house in which the Virgin Mary is said to have dwelt at Nazareth, was carried thither through the air by angels, attended with many other miraculous circumstances, such as that all the trees, on the arrival of the sacred mansion, bowed with the profoundest reverence; and great care was taken to prevent any bits of the materials of this house from being carried to other places and exposed as relics, to the prejudice of Loretto. The image of the Virgin Mary, and of the divine infant, are of cedar, placed in a small apartment, separated from the others by a silver balustrade, which had a gate of the same metal. It is impossible to describe the gold chains, the rings and jewels, emeralds, pearls, and rubbies, wherewith this image was loaded; and the angels of solid gold, who were here placed on every side, were equally enriched with the most precious diamonds. To the superstition of Roman-catholic princes Loretto was indebted for this mass of treasure.—But on the approach of the French army, after their late invasion of the papal state, this treasure was privately withdrawn, and invaders found little to gratify their rapacity: indeed it was before

very generally supposed that the real gold and jewels had long since been carried away, and metals and stones of less value substituted in their place.

There is nothing very particular in the pope's temporal government at Rome. Like other princes, he has guards, or *sbirri*, who take care of the peace of the city, under proper magistrates, both ecclesiastical and civil. The Campagna di Roma, which contains Rome, is under the inspection of his holiness. In the other provinces he governs by legates and vice-legates. He monopolises all the corn in his territories, and has always a sufficient number of troops on foot, under proper officers, to keep the provinces in awe*.

The king of NAPLES and SICILY †, or, as he is more properly called, the king of the Two Sicilies (the name of Sicily being common to both), is possessed of the largest dominions of any prince in Italy, as they comprehend the ancient countries of Samnium, Campania, Apulia, Magna-Græcia, and the island of Sicily, containing in all about 32,000 square miles. They are bounded on all sides by the Mediterranean and the Adriatic, except on the north-east, where Naples terminates on the ecclesiastical state. The Apennine runs through it from north to south; and its surface is estimated at 3,500 square leagues. The air is hot, and the soil fruitful of every thing produced in Italy. The wines called *Vino Greco*, and *Lacrymæ Christi*, are excellent. The city of Naples, its capital, which is extremely superb, and adorned with all the profusion of art and riches, and its neighbourhood, would be one of the most delightful places in Europe to live in, were it not for their vicinity to the volcano of Vesuvius, which sometimes threatens the city with destruction, and the soil being pestered with insects and reptiles, some of which are venomous. The houses in Naples are inadequate to the population, but in general are five or six stories in height, and flat at the top; on which are placed numbers of flower vases, or fruit-trees in boxes of earth, producing a very gay and agreeable effect. Some of the streets are very handsome: no street in Rome equals in beauty the *Strada di Toledo*, at Naples; and still less can any of them be compared with those beautiful streets that lie open to the bay. The richest and most commodious convents in Europe, both for male and female votaries, are in this city; the most fertile and beautiful hills of the environs are covered with them: and a small part of their revenue is spent in feeding the poor, the monks distributing bread and scup to a certain number every day before the doors of the convents.

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 acknowledgement that his kingdom is a fief of the pontificate, yet no inquisition is established in Naples. The present revenues of that king amount to about 1,400,000*l.* sterling a-year, of which Sicily only contributes 280,000*l.* The exports of the kingdom are legumes, hemp, aniseeds, wool, oil, wine, cheese, fish, honey, wax, manna, saffron,

* Gregory Barnabas Chiaramonti, the present pope, who has assumed the name of Pius VII., was born at Cesena, August 14, 1742, and elected pope at Venice, March 13, 1800.

† Ferdinand IV., king of the Two Sicilies, third son of his late catholic majesty, the king of Spain, born Jan. 12, 1751, ascended the throne October 5, 1759; and married, April 7, 1768, to the archduchess Maria-Carolina-Louisa, sister to the late emperor.

gums, capers, macaroni, salt, pot-ash, flax, cotton, silk, and divers manufactures. The king has a numerous but generally poor nobility, consisting of princes, dukes, marquises, and other high-sounding titles; and his capital, by far the most populous in Italy, contains at least 350,000 inhabitants. Among these there are 30,000 lazaroni, or black-guards, the greater part of whom have no dwelling-houses, but sleep every night in summer under porticoes, piazzas, or any kind of shelter they can find, and in the winter, or rainy time of the year, which lasts several weeks, the rain falling in torrents, they resort to the caverns under Capo di Monte, where they sleep in crowds like sheep in a penfold. Those of them who have wives and children live in the suburbs of Naples, near Posilippo, in huts, or in caverns, or chambers dug out of that mountain. Some gain a livelihood by fishing; others by carrying burdens to and from the shipping; many walk about the streets ready to run on errands, or to perform any labour in their power for a very small recompense. As they do not meet with constant employment, their wages are not sufficient for their maintenance: but the deficiency is in some degree supplied by the soup and bread which are distributed at the doors of the convents.

But though there is so much poverty among the lower people, there is a great appearance of wealth among some of the great. The Neapolitan nobility are excessively fond of show and splendor. This appears in the brilliancy of their equipages, the number of their attendants, the richness of their dress, and the grandeur of their titles. According to a late traveller (Mr. Swinburne) luxury of late has advanced with gigantic strides in Naples. Forty years ago the Neapolitan ladies wore nets and ribbons on their heads, as the Spanish women do to this day, and not twenty of them were possessed of a cap: but hair plainly drest is a mode now confined to the lowest order of inhabitants, and all distinction of dress between the wife of a nobleman and that of a citizen is entirely laid aside. Expense and extravagance are here in the extreme.

Through every spot of the kingdom of Naples the traveller may be said to tread on classic ground, and no country presents the eye with more beautiful prospects. There are still traces of the memorable town of Cannæ, as fragments of altars, cornices, gates, walls, vaults, and underground granaries; and the scene of action between Hannibal and the Romans is still marked out to posterity, by the name of *pezzo di sangue*, "field of blood." Taranto, a city that was once the rival of Rome, is now remarkable for little else than its fisheries. Sorrento is a town placed on the brink of steep rocks, that overhang the bay, and, of all the places in the kingdom, has the most delightful climate. Nola, once famous for its amphitheatre, and as the place where Augustus Cæsar died, is now hardly worth observation.

Brundisium, now Brindisi, was the great supplier of oysters for the Roman tables. It has a fine port, but the buildings are poor and ruinous; and the fall of the Grecian empire under the Turks reduced it to a state of inactivity and poverty, from which it has not yet emerged. Except Rome, no city can boast of so many remains of ancient sculpture as Benevento: here the arch of Trajan, one of the most magnificent remains of Roman grandeur, out of Rome, erected in the year 114, is still in tolerable preservation. Reggio contains nothing remarkable but a Gothic cathedral. It was destroyed by an earthquake before the Marsian war, and rebuilt by Julius Cæsar; part of the wall still remains, and was much damaged by the earthquake in 1783, but not destroyed:

only 126 persons lost their lives out of 16,000 inhabitants. The ancient city of Oppido was entirely ruined by that earthquake, the greatest force of which seems to have been exerted near that spot, and at Casal Nuova, and Terra Nuova. From Trupea to Squillace, most of the towns and villages were either totally or in part overthrown, and many of the inhabitants buried in the ruins.

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.

Both the ancients and moderns have maintained that Sicily was originally joined to the continent of Italy, but gradually separated from it by the encroachments of the sea, and the shocks of earthquakes, so as to become a perfect island. The climate of Sicily is so hot, that even in the beginning of January the shade is refreshing: and chilling winds are only felt a few days in March, and then a small fire is sufficient to banish the cold. The only appearance of winter is found towards the summit of Mount Ætna, where snow falls, which the inhabitants have a contrivance for preserving. Churches, convents, and religious foundations, are extremely numerous here: the buildings are handsome, and the revenues considerable. If this island were better cultivated, and its government more equitable, it would in many respects be a delightful place of residence. There are a great number of fine remains of antiquity here. Some parts of this island are remarkable for the beauty of the female inhabitants. Palermo, the capital of Sicily, is computed to contain 120,000 inhabitants. The two principal streets, and which cross each other, are very fine. This is said to be the only town in all Italy which is lighted at night at the public expense. It carries on a considerable trade; as also did Messina, which, before the earthquake in 1783, was a large and well-built city, containing many churches and convents, generally elegant structures. By that earthquake a great part of the lower district of the city and of the port was destroyed, and considerable damage done to the lofty uniform buildings called the *Palazzata*, in the shape of a crescent; but the force of the earthquake, though violent, was nothing at Messina or Reggio, to what it was in the plain; for of 30,000, the supposed population of the city, only 700 are said to have perished. "The greatest mortality fell upon those towns and countries situated in the plain of Calabria Ulteriore, on the western side of the mountains Dejo, Sacro, and Caulone. At Casal Nuova, the princess Gerace, and upwards of 4000 of the inhabitants, lost their lives; at Bagnara, the number of dead amounted to 3017: Radicina and Palmi count their loss at about 3000 each; Terra Nuova about 1400; Seminari still more. The sum total of the mortality in both Calabrias and in Sicily, by the earthquakes alone, according to the returns in the secretary of state's office at Naples, was 32,367;" but sir William Hamilton says, he has good reason to believe, that, including strangers, the number of lives lost must have been considerably greater; 40,000 at least may be allowed, he believes, without exaggeration.

The island of **SARDINIA**, which gives a royal title to the duke of Savoy, lies about 150 miles south by west of Leghorn, and has seven cities or towns. Its capital, Cagliari, is a university, an archbishopric, and the seat of the viceroy, containing about 25,000 inhabitants. His Sardinian majesty's revenues, from this island, are estimated at about 44,000*l*.

sterling a-year. It yields plenty of corn and wine, and has a coral fishery. Its air is bad, from its marshes and high mountains on the north, and therefore was a place of exile for the Romans. It was formerly annexed to the crown of Spain, but at the peace of Utrecht was given to the emperor, and in 1719 to the house of Savoy*.

The island of *CORSIKA* lies opposite to the Genoese continent between the gulf of Genoa and the island of Sardinia, and is better known by the noble stand which the inhabitants made for their liberty against their Genoese tyrants, and afterwards against the base and ungenerous efforts of the French, to enslave them, than from any advantages they enjoyed 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 sea and rivers, with fish. The inhabitants are said to amount to above 160,000. Bastia, the capital, is a place of some strength; though other towns of the island that were in possession of the malcontents appear to have been but poorly fortified.

In the year 1794 it was taken by the English, and annexed to the crown of England. A constitution was framed for it, a viceroy appointed, and a parliament assembled. But it has since been retaken by, and still remains in the possession of, the French.

CAPRI, the ancient *CAPREA*, is an island to which Augustus Cæsar often came for his health and recreation, and which Tiberius made a scene of the most infamous pleasures. It lies three Italian miles from that part of the main land which projects farthest into the sea. It extends four miles in length from east to west, and about one in breadth. The western part is, for about two miles, a continued rock, very high, and inaccessible next the sea; yet *Ano-Capri*, the largest town of the island, is situated here; and in this part are several places covered with a very fruitful soil. The eastern end of the island also rises up in precipices that are nearly as high, though not quite so long, as the western. Between the rocky mountains, at each end, is a slip of lower ground that runs across the island, and is one of the pleasantest spots that can easily be conceived. It is covered with myrtles, olives, almonds, oranges, figs, vineyards, and corn fields, which look extremely fresh and beautiful, and afford a most delightful little landscape, when viewed from the tops of the neighbouring mountains. Here is situated the town of *Caprea*, two or three convents, and the bishop's palace.—In the midst of this fertile tract rises a hill, which in the reign of Tiberius was probably covered with buildings, some remains of which are still to be seen. But the most considerable ruins are at the extremity of the eastern promontory.

From this place there is a very noble prospect; on one side of it the sea extends further than the eye can reach; just opposite is the green promontory of *Sarentum*, and on the other side the bay of *Naples*.

ISCHIA, and some other islands on the coasts of *Naples* and *Italy*, have nothing to distinguish them but the ruins of their antiquities, and their being now beautiful summer retreats for their owners. *Elba* has been renowned for its mines from a period beyond the reach of history. *Virgil* and *Aristotle* mention it. Its situation is about ten miles southwest from *Tuscany*, and it is 80 miles in circumference, containing near 7000 inhabitants. It was divided between the king of *Naples*, to whom *Porto Longone* belongs, the great duke of *Tuscany*, who was master of

* Emanuel V. king of Sardinia, born July 24, 1759; married April 21, 1789, to Maria-Theresa, daughter of Ferdinand, archduke of Austria; succeeded his brother (Emanuel IV., born May 24, 1751) by cession, July 4, 1802.

Porto Ferrajo, and the prince of Ponabino. The fruits and wine of the island are very good, and the tannery, fisheries, and salt, produce a good revenue.

LIPARI ISLANDS. These islands lie to the north of Sicily, and were anciently called the Æolian islands. They are twelve in number, viz. Lipari, Stromboli, Vulcano, Saline, Felicuda, Alicudi, Panaria, Vulcanello, Basiluzzo, Lisca Bianca, Dattolo, and Fila Navi. They are subject to the king of Naples, and produce great quantities of alum, sulphur, nitre, cinnabar, and most kinds of fruits, particularly raisins, currants, and figs, in great perfection. Some of their wines are much esteemed, especially the Malvasia or Malmsey. Great quantities of pumice are exported from Lipari. All these islands are of volcanic origin, and Stromboli has a considerable volcano, which is remarkable for being continually in a state of eruption. The number of inhabitants in Lipari amount to between 9 and 10,000, and those of Stromboli to about 1000; but Vulcano is uninhabited, and several of the other islands are little more than barren rocks.

We shall here mention the isle of MALTA, though it is not properly ranked with the Italian islands. It was formerly called Melita, and is situated in 15 degrees E. long, and 36 degrees N. lat. 60 miles south of Cape Passaro in Sicily. It is of an oval figure, 20 miles long, and 12 broad. The air is clear, but excessively hot: the whole island seems to be a white rock, covered with a thin surface of earth, which is however amazingly productive of excellent fruits and vegetables. This island, or rather rock, was given to the knights of St. John of Jerusalem, in 1530, by the emperor Charles V., when the Turks drove them out of Rhodes, under the tender of one falcon yearly to the viceroy of Sicily, and to acknowledge the kings of Spain and Sicily for their protectors. They are under vows of celibacy, chastity, and perpetual war with the infidels, and are governed by a grand-master who is elected for life. The knights were required to be of noble birth, both in the paternal and maternal line, for four descents. They are divided into what are called *languages*, according to the countries from which they come. These languages are eight in number, viz. those of Provence, Auvergne, France, Italy, Aragon, Germany, Castille, and England, succeeded, by the Anglo-Bavarian language. The number of knights is unlimited. The badge of the order is a white cross, with eight points, worn on the left side.

The principal city of Malta is Valetta; founded by the grand-master, La Valette, in 1566, after the raising of the siege of Malta by the Turks. It is perhaps one of the strongest fortresses in the world, and the whole island is strongly fortified wherever a landing is practicable. The former residence of the knights was called Il Borgo, the Burgh, and after its successful resistance of the Turks, *Citta Vittoriosa* (the victorious city). The ancient capital was *Citta Vecchia*, or the Old City, called likewise *Citta Notabile*, built on the highest ground and nearly in the centre of the island. A channel about five miles in width, in the middle of which is the small island of Camino, separates Malta from the island of Goza or Gozza, which is about twelve miles long and six broad. Malta is divided into 24 casals or districts, and Goza into six. The population of these two islands is greater, in proportion to their extent, than that of any country in Europe; Malta, in 1798, being found to contain 90,000, and Goza 24,000 inhabitants*.

* Ancient and Modern Malta, by J. de Boisgelin, knight of Malta, vol. i. p. 107; —which work may be referred to for a particular description of the island, and an authentic and minute account of the institution, regulations, finances, and history of the order.

The island of Malta was surprised and seized by the French under Bonaparte, in his way to Egypt, in the year 1798, and, after a long blockade, taken by the English in 1800, by whom it is still retained. The knights have left the island, and a number of them have established the seat of the order in Calabria, under the grand-master Tomasi, elected principally by the French interest.

ARMS AND ORDERS.] The pope, as sovereign prince over the territory 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 roundles, gules, two, two, and one, and one in chief, azure, charged with three fleurs-de-lis, or. Those of Venice, azure, a lion winged, sejant, or, holding under one of his paws a book covered, argent. Those of Genoa, argent; a cross; gules, with a crown closed for the island of Corsica; and for supporters two griffins, or. The arms of Naples are, azure, semée of fleur-de-lis; or, with a label of five points, gules.

The "order of St. Januarius" was instituted by the late king of Spain; when king of Naples, in July 1738. The number of knights is limited to thirty, and after the present sovereign that office of the order is to be possessed by the kings of Naples. All the knights must prove the nobility of their descent for four centuries, and are to be addressed by the title of excellency. St. Januarius, the celebrated patron of Naples, is the patron of this order. The "order of Annunciation" was instituted in the year 1355, by Amadeus V. count of Savoy, in memory of Amadeus I. who bravely defended Rhodes against the Turks, and won those arms which are now borne by the dukes of Savoy: "gules, a cross argent." It is counted among the most respectable orders in Europe: the knight must be of a noble family, but also a catholic. In the year 1572, Emanuel Philibert, duke of Savoy, instituted the "order of St. Lazarus," and revived and united to it the obsolete order of St. Maurice; which was confirmed by the pope, on condition of maintaining two galleys against the Turks.

In the year 828 it is pretended that the body of St. Mark was removed from Alexandria, in Egypt, to Venice. Accordingly, this saint was taken for their tutelar saint and guardian, and his picture was formerly painted on their ensigns and banners. When the "order of St. Mark" was first instituted is uncertain, but it was an honour conferred by the doge or duke of Venice and the senate on persons of eminent quality, or who had done some signal service to the republic. The knights, when made, if present, were dubbed with a sword on their shoulders, the duke saying "*Esto miles fidelis*" (be a faithful soldier). Absent persons were invested by letters patent; but their title, "*Knights of St. Mark*," is merely honorary: they have no revenue, nor are they under any obligations by vows as other orders. About the year 1460, Frederic III. emperor of Germany, instituted the "order of St. George," and dedicated it to St. George, tutelar saint and patron of Genoa. The doge was perpetual grand-master. The badge, a plain cross enamelled, gules, pendent to a gold chain, and worn about their necks. The cross is also embroidered on their cloaks. In the year 1561, Casimir of Medicis, first grand-duke of Tuscany, instituted the "order of St. Stephen," in memory of a victory which secured to him the sovereignty of that province. He and his successors were to be grand-masters. The knights are allowed to marry, and their two principal conventual houses are at Pisa. It is a religious as well as military order, but the knights of

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justice and the ecclesiastics are obliged to make proof of nobility of four descents. They wear a red cross with right angles, orled or, on the left side of their habit, and on their mantle.

The "order of the *Holy Ghost*" was founded with their chief seat, the hospital of that name in Rome, by pope Innocent III., about the year 1198. They have a grand-master, and profess obedience, chastity, and poverty. Their revenue is estimated at 24,000 ducats daily, with which they entertain strangers, relieve the poor, and train up deserted children, &c. Their ensign is a white patriarchal cross with twelve points, sewed on their breast on the left side of a black mantle. The "order of *Jesus Christ*," instituted by pope John XXII., was reformed and improved by pope Paul V. The reigning pope was to be always sovereign of it, and it was designed as a mark of distinction for the pope's Italian nobility; but, on account of its frequent prostitution, it has fallen into discredit. The "order of the *Golden Spur*" is said to have been instituted by pope Pius IV. 1559, and to have been connected with the "order of Pius," instituted a year afterwards; but the badges were different. The knights of Pius are suppressed, and all that the knights of the Golden Spur have preserved to themselves, is the title of counts of the sacred palace of the Lateran. The badge is a star of eight points, white, and between the two bottom points a spur, gold.

HISTORY.] Italy was probably first peopled from Greece, as has been 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 empire of Charlemagne, who died in 814, soon experienced the same fate with that of Alexander. Under his successors it was in a short time entirely dismembered. His son, Louis the Debonair, succeeded to his dominions in France and Germany, while Bernard, the grandson of Charlemagne, reigned over Italy and the adjacent Islands. But Bernard having lost his life by the cruelty of his uncle, against whom he had levied war, and Louis himself dying in 840, his dominions were divided among his sons Lothario, Louis, and Charles. Lothario, with the title of emperor, retained Italy, Provence, and the fertile countries situated between the Saone and the Rhine; Louis had Germany; and France fell to the share of Charles, the youngest of the three brothers. Shortly after this, Italy was ravaged by different contending tyrants; but, in 964, Otho the Great re-united Italy to the imperial dominions. Italy afterwards suffered much by the contests between the popes and the emperors; it was harassed by wars and internal divisions, and at length various principalities and states were erected under different heads.

Savoy and Piedmont, in time, fell to the lots of the counts of Maurienne; the ancestors of his present Sardinian majesty, Victor Amadeus II., becoming king of Sardinia in virtue of the quadruple alliance concluded in 1718.

The great duchy of Tuscany belonged to the emperor of Germany, who governed it by deputies to the year 1240, when the famous distinctions of the Guelphs, who were the partisans of the pope, and the Gibellines, who were in the emperor's interest, 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 commonwealth, 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, which exceeded that of any sovereign prince in Europe, enabled his successors to rise to sovereign power; and pope Pius V. gave one of his descendents (Cosmo, the great patron of the arts) the title of great-duke of Tuscany in 1570, which continued in his family to the death of Gaston de Medicis, 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 (afterwards emperor, and father of Joseph II.), in lieu of the duchy of Lorraine, which was ceded to France by treaty. Leopold, his second son (brother and successor to the emperor Joseph II.) upon the death of his father, became grand-duke. When he succeeded to the imperial crown, his son Ferdinand entered upon the sovereignty of the grand duchy of Tuscany, which the French have since given, under the title of the kingdom of Etruria, to the son of the duke of Parma. As an indemnification the grand-duke has received the new electorate of Salzburg.

No country has undergone greater vicissitudes of government than Naples or Sicily, chiefly owing to the inconstancy of the natives. Christians and Saracens by turns conquered it. The Normans under Tancred drove out the Saracens, and, by their connexions with the Greeks, established there, while the rest of Europe was plunged in monkish ignorance, a most respectable monarchy, flourishing in arts and arms. About the year 1166, the popes being then all-powerful in Europe, their intrigues broke into the succession of the line of Tancred, 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, when it was annexed to the crown of Spain.

The government of the Spaniards under the Austrian line was so oppressive, that it gave rise to the famous revolt, headed by Massaniello, a young fisherman, without shoes or stockings, in the year 1647. His success was so surprising, 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 became 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 1700, when the extinction of the Austrian line opened a new scene of litigation. In 1706, the archduke Charles, afterwards emperor, took possession of the kingdom. By virtue of various treaties, which had introduced Don Carlos, the king of Spain's son, 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 capital, 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 throne 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, and his second being heir-apparent to the Spanish monarch,—he resigned the

crown of Naples to his third son, Ferdinand IV., the present sovereign, who married an archduchess of Austria.

The Milanese, the fairest portion of Italy, went through several hands: the Viscontis were succeeded by the Galeazzos and the Sforzas; but fell at last under the power of the emperor Charles V. about the year 1527, 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 1703, by the imperialists. They were dispossessed of it in 1745; but by the emperor's cession of Naples and Sicily to the present king of Spain, it returned to the house of Austria, who governed it by a viceroy, till the late conquest of it by the French, and the establishment of the new Italian republic, of which it forms the principal part.

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. 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 the duchy, and his nephew held it, with the duchy of Placentia, till his death in 1803. It is now occupied by the French.

The Venetians were formerly the most formidably marine 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 a passage 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. In 1797 the French seized upon the city of Venice, abolished its government, and soon after ceded it by treaty to the emperor, with a considerable part of its continental territory.

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, used to be crowned king of Corsica, though it does not clearly appear by what title. 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 show the effect of despair under oppression. Genoa has lately been revolutionised by France, and a new form of republican government established there.

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 of 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 would be too tedious here to enter into a detail of the ignorance of the laity, and the other causes that operated to the aggrandisement of the papacy, previous to the re-

formation. 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.

The papal power is evidently now nearly extinct. Even before the present times, when innovation and revolution have made such rapid strides, the pope was 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. The late pope Pius VI., though he acted with considerable caution and moderation, co-operated with the allied powers against France: in consequence of which, the French made an incursion into his territories, where they met with little resistance, and compelled him to sign a peace on such terms as they thought proper to dictate. He paid a considerable contribution in money; and consented that such of the most valuable statues and pictures in Rome, as commissioners appointed for that purpose should select, should be carried away, and conveyed to Paris. But about the latter end of December, 1797, a riot happening at Rome, in which the French general Duphot was killed, the French army, under general Berthier, marched against that city, entered it without resistance, and, on the 15th of February, 1798, the tree of liberty was planted, the papal government abolished, and the Roman people declared by the French commander to have entered on the rights of sovereignty, and to constitute what was termed the Roman republic. On the 20th of March the new constitution was published, and the government declared to be vested in five consuls, composing a directory under the direction of the French general as commander in chief, 32 senators, corresponding to the council of ancients in France, and 72 tribunes, called the representatives of the people.

The pope remained in Rome when the French entered it, and suffered himself to be made a prisoner by them. They confined him to his own rooms, and put the seal of confiscation on every thing he had; but in a few days they resolved that he should be sent from Rome, and on the morning of the 20th of February he left that city, accompanied by a body of French cavalry, who escorted him to Sienna in Tuscany; whence, on the 26th of May, he was removed to a Carthusian convent within two miles of Florence; from which, after the recommencement of hostilities with the allies, he was again removed to Grenoble and Valence in France, at which latter town he died on the 19th of August, 1799. In the beginning of December a conclave was held at Venice, and, on the 13th of March following, cardinal Chiaramonti was elected to the papal chair.

In November, 1798, the king of Naples commenced hostilities against the French, attacked the new Roman republic, and entered Rome in triumph. But this success was quickly followed by a fatal reverse. The French, collecting their forces, not only soon regained Rome, but totally defeated the Neapolitan army, made themselves masters of the city of Naples, and compelled its sovereign to take refuge in the island of Sicily. The successes which attended the arms of the Austrians and Russians in the campaign of 1799, aided by the powerful co-operation of the English fleet under lord Nelson, however, again expelled the French both from Naples and Rome, and the king of the two Sicilies returned to his capital. But the victory of Bonaparte at Marengo, and the conditions of the peace of Luneville, which the emperor of Germany was compelled to conclude, have again given the French a power in Italy, against which neither the pope nor the king of Naples are able

to contend. The former having been sent for by the new emperor of France, has solemnly crowned him at Paris; and in the kingdom of Naples 15,000 French troops are stationed, and it is expected will soon be considerably augmented in consequence of the disapprobation expressed by Russia at the various acts of perfidy and violence committed by the arbitrary chief of the French government.

TURKEY.

The GRAND SIGNOR's dominions are divided into

1. TURKEY IN EUROPE.
 2. TURKEY IN ASIA.
 3. TURKEY IN AFRICA.
- } 790,560 Sq. Miles.

TURKEY IN EUROPE.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.	Degrees.
Length	910	} between { 36° and 49° North latitude. 16° and 32° East longitude.
Breadth	760	

Containing 182,560 square miles, with 43 inhabitants to each.

NAME.] This extensive empire derives its name from that of its conquerors and possessors, the *Turks* or *Turkmans*, which word, according to some writers, signifies *wanderers*. The Turkish historians derive this name from that of Turk, who they say was their ancestor, and the son of Yafis or Japhet.

BOUNDARIES.] Turkey in Europe is bounded by Russia, the Bucovina, Transylvania, and Slavonia, on the North; by Circassia, the Black Sea, the Propontis, Hellespont, and Archipelago, on the East; by the Mediterranean on the South; by the same sea, and the Austrian territories, on the West.

DIVISIONS.] The following are the provinces into which it is divided.

	Provinces.	Chief Towns.	Sq. M.
North of the Danube are the provinces of	Bessarabia	Bender Belgorod } . . .	9,800
	Moldavia, olim Dacia	Jassy Choczim } . . .	20,800
	Walachia, another part of the ancient Dacia	Tergovisto	20,000

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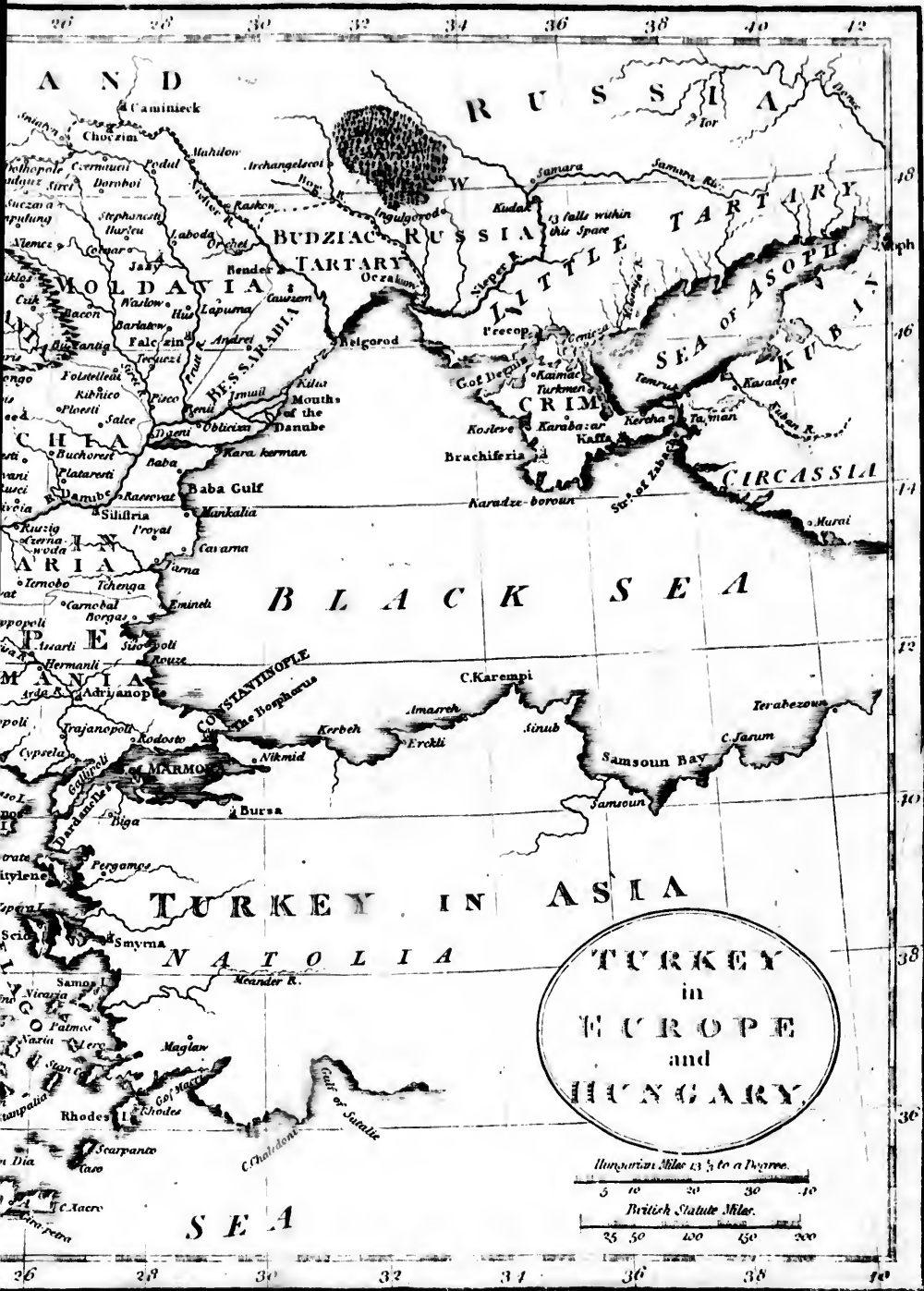
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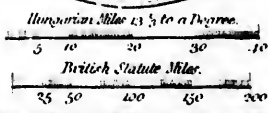




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TURKEY
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	Provinces.	Chief Towns.	Sq. M.	
South of the Danube are	Bulgaria, the east part of the ancient Mysia	Widdin	} 27,840	
		Nicopoli		
		Silistria Scopia		
On the Bosphorus and Hellespont	Servia, the west part of Mysia	Belgrade	} 16,000	
		Semendria		
		Nissa		
On the Bosphorus and Hellespont	Bosnia, part of the ancient Illyricum ..	Seraio	7,360	
		Romania, olim Thrace	Constantinople, N. I. 41. E. I. 29. 26.	880
			Macedonia	Strymon Contessa
South of Mount Rhodope, or Argentum, the north part of the ancient Greece.	Thessaly, now Janua	Salonichi	} .. 4,650	
		Larissa		
		Athens		
On the Adriatic Sea or Gulf of Venice, the ancient Illyricum	Livadia, the ancient Achaia and Boeotia	Thebes	} .. 3,420	
		Lepanto		
		Epirus		Chimæra Burtrinto Scodra
On the Adriatic Sea or Gulf of Venice, the ancient Illyricum	Albania	Durazzo	6,375	
		Turkish Croatia	Dulcigno	} 3,200
			Dalmatia	
South of the Gulf of Lepanto, the ancient Peloponnesus.	The Morca	Zara	3,680	
		The Morca	Nareuza Corinth	} ..
			The Morca	
The Morca	Olympia or Longinica, on the river Alpheus, where the games were held			
	Modon			
	Coron			
	Patras			
	Elis, or Belvidere, on the river Peneus.			
	Elis, or Belvidere, on the river Peneus.			
The ancient Crete	Island of Candia	Candia	5,200	

SEAS AND STRAITS.] The Euxine, or Black Sea; the Palus Mæotis, or Sea of Asoph; the Sea of Marmora, which separates Europe from Asia; the Archipelago; the Ionian Sea, and the Levant, would, were they properly improved, give to Turkey in Europe, particularly that part of it where Constantinople stands, every advantage both for trade and dominion. The straits of the Hellespont or Dardanelles, and the Bosphorus, or canal of Constantinople, which connect the Sea of Marmora with the Archipelago on the one side, and the Black Sea on the other, are remarkable in modern as well as in ancient history. The former, viz. the Hellespont, or Dardanelles, is only two miles and a half in breadth, and is famous for the passage of Xerxes over it, when about to invade Greece, and of Alexander in his expedition against Asia. The former, for the more easy transportation of his numerous forces, laid a bridge of boats over it. It is also celebrated by the poets in the story of two lovers, Hero and Leander, of whom, the latter swam across it to his mistress, but one night was unhappily drowned. The Bosphorus is about the same breadth, but has not been so much celebrated by historians and poets.

MOUNTAINS.] The principal mountains of Turkey in Europe, are the chain of the ancient Hæmus, now called Emineh; Mount Athos, which stands on a peninsula, projecting into the Archipelago or Ægean Sea; Olympus and Pindus, the latter now called Mezzo Novo, which separate Thessaly from Epirus, and Parnassus in Achaia, so celebrated for being consecrated to the Muses, which still retains its ancient denomination.

LAKES.] This country affords no lakes of considerable extent; but in Albania and the Morea, are found some small ones of classical celebrity.

RIVERS.] The chief rivers of European Turkey, are the Danube, which cuts the Black Sea by several channels, after having traversed the Turkish territory the extent of 400 miles; the Save; the Dneister; the Maritz or ancient Hebrus; the Vardari or ancient Axios; the Aspro Potamo, or White River, anciently the Achelous; and, in the Morea, the Rophia, the ancient Alpheus.

METALS, MINERALS.] Mines of iron, lead, and copper, are found in several parts of Turkey in Europe; but they are entirely neglected, from the ignorance and indolence of the Turks. In Macedonia were anciently gold-mines, which produced to Philip, the father of Alexander the Great, 1000 talents, or nearly three millions sterling, annually. The ancient Phrygia, and the Troad, is likewise said to be abundant in silver. Alum and sulphur, perfectly pure, are found in Greece; where also are quarries of the most beautiful marble. The island of Paros has been in all ages celebrated for its marble of an exquisite whiteness.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AGRICULTURE.] The climate of this part of Turkey is salubrious, and friendly to the imagination, unless when it is corrupted from 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 soil, though unimproved, is luxuriant beyond description; and it is necessary that it should be so for the subsistence of the inhabitants; for of agriculture very little is known or practised by the Turks.

VEGETABLE 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 Badadagi furnish the best feathers for arrows for the Turkish archers, and they sell at an uncommon price. Partridges are very plentiful in Greece; as are all other kinds of fowls and quadrupeds all over Turkey in Europe: but the Turks and Mahometans in general are not very fond of animal food.

NATURAL CURIOSITIES.] Among these is generally classed Mount Athos, already mentioned, now called Monte Santo, from the numerous convents erected on it. It is situated on a peninsula which extends into the Ægean Sea, and is indeed a chain of mountains, reaching the whole length of the peninsula, seven Turkish miles in length, and three in breadth; but it is only a single mountain that is properly called Athos. This is so lofty, that on the top, as the ancients relate, the sun-rising was beheld four hours sooner than by the inhabitants of the coast: and, at the solstice, its shade reached into the Agora, or market-place of Myrina, a town in Lemnos, which island was distant eighty-seven miles eastward. There are twenty-two convents on Mount Athos, besides a great number of cells and grottos, with the habitations of no less than six thousand monks and hermits; though the proper hermits, who live in grottos, are not above twenty: the other monks are anchorites, or such as live in cells. These Greek monks, who call themselves the inhabitants of the holy mountains, are so far from being a set of slothful people, that, besides their daily offices of religion, they cultivate the olive and vineyards, are carpenters, masons, stone-cutters, cloth-workers, tailors, &c. They also live a very austere life; their usual food, instead of flesh, being vegetables, dried olives, figs, and other fruit; onions, cheese, and, on certain days, (Lent excepted) fish. Their fasts are many and severe, which, with the healthfulness of the air, renders longevity so common there, that many of them live above a hundred years. It appears from Ælian, that anciently the mountain in general, and particularly the summit, was accounted very healthy, and conducive to long life; whence the inhabitants were called *Macrobii*, or long-lived. We are farther informed by Philostratus, in the life of Apollonius, that numbers of philosophers used to retire to this mountain, for the better contemplation of the heavens and of nature; and after their example the monks doubtless built their cells.

The cavern or grotto in the island of Antiparos, is one of the greatest natural curiosities in this country or perhaps in the world. It is above 80 yards high, and 100 wide. From the roof hang a variety of marble stalactites, of the most elegant and picturesque forms; and on the floor are large masses of stalagmite, one of which, in the centre, resembles a beautiful marble pyramid.

The famous cave of Trophonius is still a natural curiosity in Livadia, the ancient Bœotia. It is a square cavern, with a bench on each side of it, hewn out of the rock, and a round hole at one end, scarcely large enough for a man to pass through.

POPULATION.] The population of this great empire is by no means equal, either to its extent or fertility, nor is it possible to ascertain it

with any great accuracy. It certainly is not so great as it was before the Christian æra, under the emperors, or even a century ago, owing to various causes, and, above all, to the tyranny under which the natives live; and their polygamy, which is undoubtedly very unfavourable 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. According, however, to the latest and most probable estimates, European Turkey contains about eight millions of inhabitants; Turkey in Asia, ten millions; and Egypt, if that country may still be considered as a part of the Turkish empire, about two millions and a half: so that the whole number of the subjects of the Ottoman sultan, is little more than twenty millions.

NATIONAL CHARACTER, } The Turks are generally well made and
MANNERS, CUSTOMS. } robust men: in youth, 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 the generality seem hardly capable of much benevolence, or even humanity, with regard to Jews, Christians, or any who differ from them in religious matters, yet they are far from being 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 with the generality, 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 are a luxury to weary travellers. The Turks sit cross-legged upon mats, not only at their meals, but in company. Their ideas are simple and confined, seldom reaching beyond 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 vizier, pasha, or other officer, be turned out, or strangled, they say no more on the occasion than that there will be a new vizier or governor, seldom inquiring into the reason of the disgrace 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 Koran, and the comments upon it. Nothing is negotiated in Turkey without presents, and here justice may commonly be bought and sold.

The Turks dine about eleven o'clock in the forenoon, and 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 highly seasoned.

Rice is the common food of the lower sort, and 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 strong liquors. Their common salutation is by an inclination of the head, and laying their right-hand on their breast. They sleep in linen waistcoats and drawers, upon mattresses, and cover themselves with a quilt. Few or none of the considerable inhabitants of this vast empire have any notion of walking or riding either for health or diversion. The most religious among them find, however, sufficient exercise when they conform themselves to the frequent ablutions, prayers, and rites, prescribed them by Mahomet.

Their active diversions consist in shooting at a mark, or tilting it with darts, at which they are very expert. Some of their great men are fond of hunting, and take the field with numerous equipages, which are joined by their inferiors; but this is often done for political purposes, that they may know the strength of their dependents. Within doors the chess or draught-boards are their usual amusements; and if they play at chance games they never bet money, that being prohibited by the Koran.

DRESS.] The men shave their heads, leaving a lock on the crown, and wear their beards long. They cover their heads with a turban, and never put it off but when they sleep. Their shirts are without collar or wristband, and over them they throw a long vest, which they tie with a sash, and over the vest they wear a loose gown somewhat shorter. Their breeches, or drawers, are of a piece with their stockings; and instead of shoes they wear slippers, which they put off when they enter a temple or house. They suffer no Christians, or others who are not Turks, 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 relation. 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 *benna*, 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 on, the bridegroom pays down a sum of money, a license is taken out from the *cadi*, or proper magistrate, and the parties are married. The bargain is celebrated, as in other nations, with mirth and jollity; and the money is generally employed in furnishing the house of the young couple. They are not allowed by their law more than four wives, but they may have as many concubines as they can maintain. The wealthy Turks, therefore, besides their wives, keep a number of women in their harams, or, as they are improperly called in Europe, their seraglios. But all these indulgencies are sometimes insufficient to restrain 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), it is buried in a field by the iman, or priest, who pronounces a funeral sermon at the time of the interment. The male relations express their sorrow by 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.

The Greeks, who compose a large portion of the inhabitants of Turkey in Europe, are gay, witty, and cunning. They exercise various trades, and apply themselves to maritime affairs. They delight in music and dancing. The rich are well informed, supple, and very intriguing. They study languages, and make every exertion to be employed as physicians, drogmanns, or interpreters, or as agents by the Turks who hold the first places of the empire. The ancient families court the honour of furnishing the first drogman to the Porte, and of being appointed hospodars, or sovereigns of Wallachia or Moldavia, notwithstanding the danger attached to those eminent places. They are at the same time in general, timid, superstitious, and exact observers of fasts and lents. Their priests are very numerous, and affect austerity of manners. The superior clergy are well informed, and tolerably rich; the other ecclesiastics are poor, and very ignorant.

CITIES, CHIEF TOWNS, EDIFICIES.] 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 most beautiful city in Europe, and the only one, during the Gothic ages, in which there remained any traces of the ancient elegance in manners and arts. While it remained in the possession of the Greek emperors, it was the only mart in Europe for the commodities of the East Indies. It derived great advantages from its being the rendezvous of the crusaders; and being then in the meridian of its glory, the European writers, in the ages of the crusades, speak of it with astonishment. Constantinople is at this day one of the finest cities in the world, by its situation and its port. The prospect from it is noble. The most regular part is the Besestin, inclosed with walls and gates, where the merchants have their shops excellently ranged. In another part of the city is the Hippodrome, an oblong square of 400 paces by 100, where they exercise on horseback. The Meidan, or parade, is a large spacious square, the general resort of all ranks. On the opposite side of the port are four towns, but considered as a part of the suburbs, their distance being so small a person may easily be heard on the other side. They are named Pera, Galata, Scutari, and Tophana. In Pera the foreign ambassadors and all the Franks or strangers reside, not being permitted to live in the city. Galata, also, is mostly inhabited by Franks or Jews, and is a place of great trade. The seraglio abounds with antiquities. The tomb of Constantine the Great is still preserved. The mosque of St. Sophia, once a Christian church, is thought in some respects to exceed, in grandeur and architecture, St. Peter's at Rome. The city is built in a triangular form, with the seraglio standing on a point of one of the angles, from whence there is a prospect of the delightful coast of Lesser-Asia, which is not to be equalled. When we speak of the seraglio, we do not mean the apartments in which the grand seignior's women are confined, as is com-

monly imagined, but the whole inclosure of the Ottoman palace, which might well suffice for a moderate town. The wall which surrounds the seraglio is thirty feet high, having battlements, embrasures, and towers, in the style of ancient fortifications. There are in it nine gates, but only two of them magnificent; and from one of these the *Eaba Moomajun*, or sublime gate, the Ottoman court takes the name of the *Porte*, or the *Sublime Porte*, in all public transactions and records. Both the magnitude and population of Constantinople have been greatly exaggerated by credulous travellers. It is surrounded by a high and thick wall, with battlements after the Oriental manner, and towers, defended by a lined but shallow ditch, the works of which are double on the land side. Some authors have estimated it to contain above 800,000 inhabitants, and others 600,000; but, according to Mr. Dallaway, they do not exceed 400,000, including the suburbs of Galata, Pera, Tophana, and Sentaari. Of these, 200,000 are Turks, 100,000 Greeks, and the remainder Jews, Armenians, and Franks of all the European nations. The city has frequently suffered great damage by fires, either owing to the narrowness of the streets and the structure of the houses, or the practices of the Janisaries, who, it is said, fire the city as often as they are discontented with the government. In 1633, 70,000 houses were burned; in 1784 a fire consumed 10,000; and in 1788, there was so extensive a conflagration as to threaten the entire destruction of the city.

The seraglio, or palace of the emperor, is so extensive that it is said to occupy the whole of the ground on which the ancient city of Byzantium stood. The treasures contained within this imperial residence, are prodigious; and its furniture is distinguished not by its variety, but the richness of the materials of which it is composed—silk and cloth of gold are substituted for cotton and woollen stuffs; fringes are strung with pearl and inferior jewels, and the walls are wainscoted with jasper, mother-of-pearl, and veneered ivory. In the audience-chamber, where the ambassadors are received by the sultan in person, is a throne as resplendent as the mines of the east can make it, with a canopy of velvet fringed with jewels, under which he sits in state for a few minutes, to hear the compliments of the sovereign who solicits his friendship.

The ladies of the seraglio are a collection of beautiful young women, chiefly sent as presents from the provinces and the Greek islands, most of them the children of Christian parents. The brave prince Heraclius, some years since, abolished the infamous tribute of children of both sexes, which Georgia formerly paid every year to the porte. The number of women in the haram depends on the taste of the reigning monarch. Sultan Selim had two thousand; Achmet had but three hundred; and the present sultan has nearly 1600. On their admission, they are committed to the care of old ladies, taught to sew and embroider, music, dancing, and other accomplishments, and furnished with the richest clothes and ornaments. They all sleep in separate beds, and between every fifth there is a preceptress. Their chief governess is called *katon kaja*, or governess of the noble young ladies. These ladies are scarcely ever suffered to go abroad, except when the grand seignor removes from one place to another, when a troop of black eunuchs convey them to the boats, which are inclosed with lattices and linen curtains; and when they go by land, they are put into close chariots, and signals are made at certain distances, to give notice that none may 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 quick-

ness; and some dwarfs, who are exhibited for the diversion of his majesty.

Opposite to the seraglio, on the Asiatic side, and about a mile and a half distant across the water, is Scutari, adorned with a royal mosque, and a pleasant house of the grand signor. On the brow of an adjacent hill is a grand prospect, embracing in one view the city of Constantinople, the suburbs Galata and Pera, the small seas of the Bosphorus and Propontis, with the adjacent countries on each shore.

Adrianople, the second city of European Turkey, is situate on the Maritza, or ancient Hebrus, about 140 miles N. W. of Constantinople. It is of a circular form, and surrounded by a wall and towers: it contains several splendid mosques. The seraglio, or palace, is pleasantly situated, being separated from the city by the small river Arda, and commanding an extensive view of the country, which is fertile, and celebrated for its excellent vines. The number of inhabitants in Adrianople is about 80,000. The other principal cities are Silistria, in Bulgaria, and Bucharest, the chief town of Wallachia, with about 60,000 inhabitants to each; and Belgrade, the capital of Servia, which has been repeatedly taken and re-taken by the Austrians and Turks, and contains about 25,000 inhabitants.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] These objects are little attended to in the Turkish dominions. The nature of the 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 commerce, which nature has, as it were, thrown under the feet of the inhabitants by their situation, are here totally neglected. The advantages of Tyre, Sidon, and Alexandria, and all those countries which carried on the commerce of the ancient world, are overlooked. The Turks command the navigation of the Red Sea, which opens a communication with 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 dyeing stuffs, they generally export without giving them much additional value by their own labour. The internal commerce of the empire is extremely small, and managed only 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 commodities, 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 royal navy 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, secure to the Turks the possession of countries, which, in the hands of Russians, or any active state, might

endanger the commerce of their neighbours, especially their trade with India.

CONSTITUTION, GOVERNMENT, LAWS.] The Turkish government is commonly exhibited as a picture of all that is shocking and unnatural in arbitrary power. But from the accounts of sir James Porter, who resided at the Porte, in quality of ambassador from his Britannic majesty, it appears that the rigours of that despotic government are considerably moderated by the power of religion. For though in this empire 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 expense. 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 depend 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 transgress these laws, he would become an infidel, and cease to be the lawful sovereign. The same observation extends to all the rules laid down in the Koran, which was designed by Mohammed 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 Mohammedans are regulated. Even the comments on this book, which explain the law where it is obscure, or extend and complete what Mohammed had left imperfect, are conceived to be of equal validity with the first institutions 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 the emperor, who seldom calls for the head or 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 visier, or prime-minister; the *kiaya*, second in power to the visier; the *reis-effendi*, or secretary of state; and the *aga* of the janisaries, are the most considerable. These, as well as the *mufi*, or high priest; the *pashas*, 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 further reason for plundering the people, because they are uncertain how long they may possess the dignities to which they have attained. 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 upon 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 Mohammedan religion. The rich pay a capitation tax of thirty shillings a year; tradesmen, fifteen shillings; and common labourers, six shillings and ten-pence halfpenny. 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. These form what are called the *miri*, and amount to about four millions and a half sterling. 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, becoming wealthy from the vitals of the countries and people they are sent to govern, their riches frequently give rise to a pretended suspicion of disloyalty or misconduct, and the whole fortune of the offender devolves to the crown. The devoted victim 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 the imperial decree to take off his head. The unhappy pasha 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 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 round his own neck, and said a short prayer, the officer's servants throw him on the floor, and, drawing the cord tight, soon dispatch him; after which his head is cut off, and carried to court.

The revenue of the whole Turkish empire is estimated at about seven millions sterling, while the expenses do not usually exceed five. This revenue has lately been considerably augmented by improvements in the administration of the different branches, and particularly the farms.

ARMY, NAVY.] 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 268,000 effective men. Besides these, there are also certain auxiliary forces raised by the tributary countries of this empire; as the Tartars, Walachians, Moldavians, and, till of late, the Georgians, who are commanded by their respective princes. The khan of the Crimean Tartars, before his country was subjected to Russia, was obliged to furnish 100,000 men, and to serve in person, when the grand-signor took 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 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 12,000; and the janisaries, or foot-guards, who are esteemed the best soldiers in the Turkish armies, and on whom they principally depend in an engagement. These amount to about 25,000 men, who are quartered in and near Constantinople. They frequently grow murinous, 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 100,000 foot soldiers scattered over every province of the empire, who procure

themselves to be registered in this body, to enjoy the privilege of janisaries, which are very great, being subject to no jurisdiction but that of their aga, or chief commander. Mr. Eton states the number of janisaries at 113,400; the whole of the Turkish infantry at 207,400, and the cavalry at 181,000; making a total of 388,400. But, deducting from these the leventis, who belong to the fleet, and can only be employed near the coast where the fleet is; the garrisons of Constantinople, and the fortresses and frontiers in Europe and Asia; the bostangees, who only march when the grand-signor takes the field; the miklagis, and such as serve the visier, the beglerbeks, and pashas, and never go into the battle; the remainder of effective men will amount only to 186,400. Yet the Porte (adds he) has often found it difficult to assemble 100,000 men; and in 1774, with its utmost efforts, could only bring into the field 142,000.

The naval force of the Turks is very inconsiderable. In their last war with Russia, their grand fleet consisted of not more than seventeen or eighteen sail of the line, and those not in very good condition; at present their number is lessened. Their galleys now are of no use as ships of war; but there are about twenty large vessels called caravellas, which belong to merchants, and in time of war are frequently taken into the service of the Porte, and carry 40 guns.

TITLES AND ARMS.] The emperor's titles are swelled with all the pomp of eastern magnificence. He is styled by his subjects, *the Shadow of God, a God on earth, Brother to the Sun and Moon, Disposer of all earthly Crowns, &c.* The grand-seignor's arms are, vert, a crescent, argent, crested with a turban, charged with three black plumes of heron's quills, with this motto, *Donec totum impleat orbem.*

RELIGION.] The established religion is the Mohammedan, so called from Mohammed, the author of it, some account of whom the reader will find in the following history of Arabia, the native country of that impostor. The Turks profess to be of the sect of Omar; but these are split into as many sectaries as their neighbours the Christians. The mufti or *sheik islam* is the supreme chief of the religion of Mohammed in Turkey, the oracle who is consulted, and who solves all the questions which are put to him: his decisions are called *fetvas*. The sultan has recourse to him in all difficult and intricate cases, and he promulgates no law, makes no declaration of war, establishes no impost, without having obtained a *fetfa*. It is the mufti who girds on the sultan's sword on his accession to the throne, at the same time reminding him of the obligation of defending the religion of the prophet, and of propagating its creed. The *ulemas*, or doctors of religion and the laws, constitute a powerful body sometimes formidable to the throne itself. They possess the most lucrative employments, are secure from the extortions of pashas and great men, and cannot legally be put to death without the consent of their chief the mufti. Their property, after their decease, passes as a right to their heirs, and cannot be appropriated by the imperial treasury, unless they have accepted some office under the government. The *imauns*, who serve the mosques, and the *muezins*, whose employment is to ascend the minarets five times a day to call the people to prayers, do not belong to this body: they may be dismissed from their office, or voluntarily resign it, and return into the class of simple private persons.

The toleration of the Turks has been much extolled, but they make this toleration a source of revenue. The Christians 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. Constantinople, 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. All male Christians pay also a capitation tax from seventeen years old to sixty, according to their stations.

The insulting distinction of Christian and Mohammedan (says Mr. Eton) is carried to so great a length, that even the minutiae of dress are rendered subjects of restriction. A Christian must wear only clothes and head-dresses of dark colours, and such as Turks never wear, with slippers of black leather, and must paint his house black, or dark brown. The least violation of these frivolous and disgusting regulations is punished with death. Nor is it at all uncommon for a Christian to have his head struck off in the street, for indulging in a little more foppery of dress than the sultan or visier, whom he may meet incognito, approves. If a Christian strikes a Mohammedan, he is most commonly put to death on the spot, or at least ruined by fines and severely bastinadoed; and if he strikes, though by accident, a sherif, or descendant of Mohammed, who wears the green turban, of whom there are thousands in some cities, it is death without remission.

[LITERATURE.] The Turks till of late professed a sovereign contempt for our learning. Greece, which was the native country of genius, arts, and sciences, produces at present, besides Turks, numerous bands of Christian bishops, priests, and monks, who in general are as ignorant as the Turks themselves, and are divided into various absurd sects of what they call Christianity. The education of the Turks seldom extends farther than reading the Turkish language and the Koran, and writing a common letter. Their jurisprudence and theology consist only of commentaries on the Koran; their astronomy is astrology, and their chemistry alchemy; of the history and geography of other countries they are perfectly ignorant. Some of them understand astronomy, so far as to calculate the time of an eclipse; but the number of these being very small, they are looked upon as extraordinary persons.

[LANGUAGE.] The Turkish language is derived from the Zagatai, a dialect of the Tartarian. It is the easiest of any we are acquainted with, because it is the most regular. It has only one conjugation of verbs, one declension of nouns, and no gender. There is no exception nor any irregular verb or noun in the language. It is not very copious, yet it is manly, energetic, and sonorous. To supply the want of words, their writers frequently mix with it the Arabic and Persian. The Lord's Prayer in Turkish is as follows:

Bahumuz hanghe guiglesson, chuduss olssum ssenungh adun; gelson ssenung mendlehetin; olssum ssenungh isicung ni esse gugthaule gyrd; echame gumozî hergunon vere bize begun, zem bassa bize bo slygomozî; nyere hiede basiaruz borsetiglero mosî; hem yedma hize ge hencme; de churtule bizjaramuzdan. Amen.

The Greeks speak a modernised Greek, and in the Asiatic provinces the Arabic and a dialect of the Syriac is spoken. A specimen of the modern Greek follows in their Paternoster:

Patet hemas, opios iso ces tos ouranous; hagiasthito to onoma sou: na eri he basilin sou: to thelma sou na genetez itzon eu to ge, os is ton oura-

kon: to ptsoni hemus doze hemus semoren: ka sichorase hemos ta crinata hemon itzane, ka hemus sichorasomen ekinous opou hemus adikoun: ka meu ternes hemus is to pirasmo, alla sosen hemas apo to kavo. Amen.

ANTIQUITIES.] Almost every spot of ground, every river, and every fountain in Greece, presents the traveller with the ruins of a celebrated antiquity. On the isthmus of Corinth, the ruins of Neptune's temple, and the theatre where the Isthmian games were celebrated, are still visible. Athens, which contains at present above 10,000 inhabitants, is a fruitful source of the most magnificent and celebrated antiquities in the world; a minute account of which would exceed the limits of this work; but it will be proper to mention some of the most considerable. Among the antiquities of this once superb city, are the remains of the temple of Minerva, built of white marble, and encompassed with forty-six fluted columns of the Doric order, forty-two feet high, and seven feet and a half in circumference: the architrave is adorned with basso-relievos, admirably executed, representing the wars of the Athenians. To the south-east of the Acropolis, a citadel which defends the town, are seventeen beautiful columns of the Corinthian order, thought to be the remains of the emperor Adrian's palace. They are of fine white marble, about fifty feet high, including the capitals and bases. Just without the city stands the temple of Theseus, surrounded with fluted columns of the Doric order; the portico at the west end is adorned with the battle of the Centaurs, in basso-relievo; that at the east appears to be a continuation of the same history: and on the outside of the porticoes, in the spaces between the triglyphs, are represented the exploits of Theseus. On the south-west of Athens is a beautiful structure, commonly called the Lantern of Demosthenes: this is a small round edifice of white marble, the roof of which is supported by six fluted columns of the Corinthian order, nine feet and a half high; in the space between the columns are panels of marble; and the whole is covered with a cupola, carved with the resemblance of scales: and on the frieze are beautifully represented, in relievo, the labours of Hercules. Here are also to be seen the temple of the Winds, the remains of the theatre of Bacchus, of the magnificent aqueduct of the emperor Adrian, and of the temples of Jupiter Olympius and Augustus. The remains of the temple of the oracle of Apollo are still visible at Castri, on the south side of Mount Parnassus; and the marble steps that descend to a pleasing running water, supposed to be the renowned Castalian spring, with the niches for statues in the rock, are still discernible.

The history of the Turks will be given at the end of our account of Turkey in Asia, from which country they derive their origin and extended their conquests into Europe.

ISLANDS belonging to TURKEY in Europe, being part of Ancient GREECE.

THE principal of these islands, so celebrated in the Grecian history, is CANDIA, the ancient CRETE, famous in remote antiquity for being the birth-place of Jupiter, the kingdom of Minos the legislator, and for its hundred cities. This island is situate between 35 and 36 degrees of north latitude, being 180 miles long, and 40 broad, almost equally distant from Europe, Asia, and Africa, and contains 5,220 square miles.

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 valleys of this island produce wine, fruits, and corn; all of them remarkably excellent in their kind. The siege of Candia, the capital of the island, in modern times, was of much longer duration and more bloody than that of Troy. The Turks invested it in the beginning of the year 1645; and its Venetian garrison, after bravely defending itself against fifty-six assaults, 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.

NEGROPONT, the ancient ΕΥΒΕΑ, 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, and contains about 1300 square miles. Here the Turkish galleys lie. The tides on its coasts are irregular; and the island itself is very fertile, producing corn, wine, fruit, and cattle, in such abundance, that all kinds of provisions are extremely cheap. The chief towns in the island are, Negropont, called by the Greeks Egripo, situated on the south-west coast of the island, on the narrowest part of the strait; and Castel Rosso, the ancient Carystus.

LEMNOS, or STALIMENE, lies on the north part of the Ægean 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, much used in medicine, sometimes called *terra Lemnia*, or *terra sigillata*, because it is sealed up by the Turks, who derive from it a considerable revenue.

SCYROS is about sixty miles in circumference, and is remarkable chiefly for the remains of antiquity which it contains: about three hundred Greek families inhabit it.

The CYCLADES islands lie like a circle round Delos, now called Dilli, the chief of them, which is south of the islands Mycone and Tirse, and almost mid-way 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 it is chiefly renowned for the beauty and whiteness of its marble.

SANTORIN is one of the southernmost 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 burning soon ceased. It is about 200 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 increased. 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 islands in the Ionian Sea, on the other side of Greece, belonged

to Venice till the late revolution, and the cession by the French of the greater part of the Venetian dominions to Austria. They were first occupied by the French, but were taken from them by the Russians and Turks, who, in 1800, formed them into an aristocratical republic, by the name of the **REPUBLIC OF THE SEVEN ISLANDS**, which was recognised by the treaty of Amiens. This republic is under the protection of Russia and Turkey, to the latter of which it pays a certain tribute every three years. But Russia appears to take the greatest interest in these islands; and seems to treat them as a distant possession appertaining to its empire. There are now nearly 10,000 Russian troops in Corfu and some others of these islands; which are nominally governed by a legislative body and a president, but in reality by the Russian general and troops. The seven islands which compose this republic, are Corfu, Paxo, Santa Maura, Cefalonia, Theaki, Zante, and Cerigo.

CORFU, the ancient **CORCYRA**, and the **PIÆACIA** of Homer, who places here his gardens of Alcinous, is about 45 miles long and 20 broad. It is situate opposite Albania, near the continent, between 39 and 40 degrees of north latitude, and 19 and 20 of east longitude. The air is healthy, the soil fertile, particularly in the northern part; and the fruits of every kind excellent, especially a delicious species of figs, there called *Fracazzoni*. Its other principal produce is salt, oil, and honey. The number of inhabitants is about 70,000. The town of Corfu, the capital, has an excellent harbour, is a place of considerable strength, and the seat of government for this republic.

PAXO, or **PAXU**, situate at a little distance to the south of Corfu, is about 15 miles in circumference: it produces wine, oil, and almonds; but has but few inhabitants. The town is called San Nicolo, and has a good harbour. Opposite to it is a small island called *Antipaxo*.

SANTA MAURA, the ancient **LEUCADIA**, is about fifty miles in circumference: it was anciently joined to the continent, but the isthmus was cut through by the Carthaginians, or, as others say, the Corinthians: the channel between the island and the continent is at present, it is said, not more than 50 paces broad. It produces corn, wine, oil, citrons, pomegranates, almonds, and other fruits, and has fine pastures. The principal article of its trade is salt. The town of St. Maura contains about 6,000 inhabitants, and is well fortified. Port Drepano in this island is an excellent harbour.

CEFALONIA, the ancient **CEPHALLENIA**, is situate opposite the Gulf of Lepanto, anciently the Sea of *Crissa*, and is about 40 miles in length, and from 10 to 20 in breadth. The climate is extremely mild; flowers bloom in the season which corresponds to winter, and the trees bear ripe fruits twice in the year, in April and November, but those of the latter month are smaller than the others. The number of inhabitants in this island is between 60 and 70,000. The chief articles of commerce are oil, muscadine wine, and the species of grapes called *currants**. The principal town is of the same name.

THEAKI, or **LITTLE CEFALONIA**, a small island opposite Cefalonia, claims particular notice, because it was the ancient **ITHACA**, the birth-place and kingdom of Ulysses. It contains only about 3,000 inhabitants. The name of the principal town is *Valthi*, which has a spacious harbour.

ZANTE, the ancient **ZACYNTHUS**, is situate opposite the western coast of the Morea, and is about 14 miles long and 8 broad. The climate

* So called from a corruption of *Corjath*, whence the vines were originally brought.

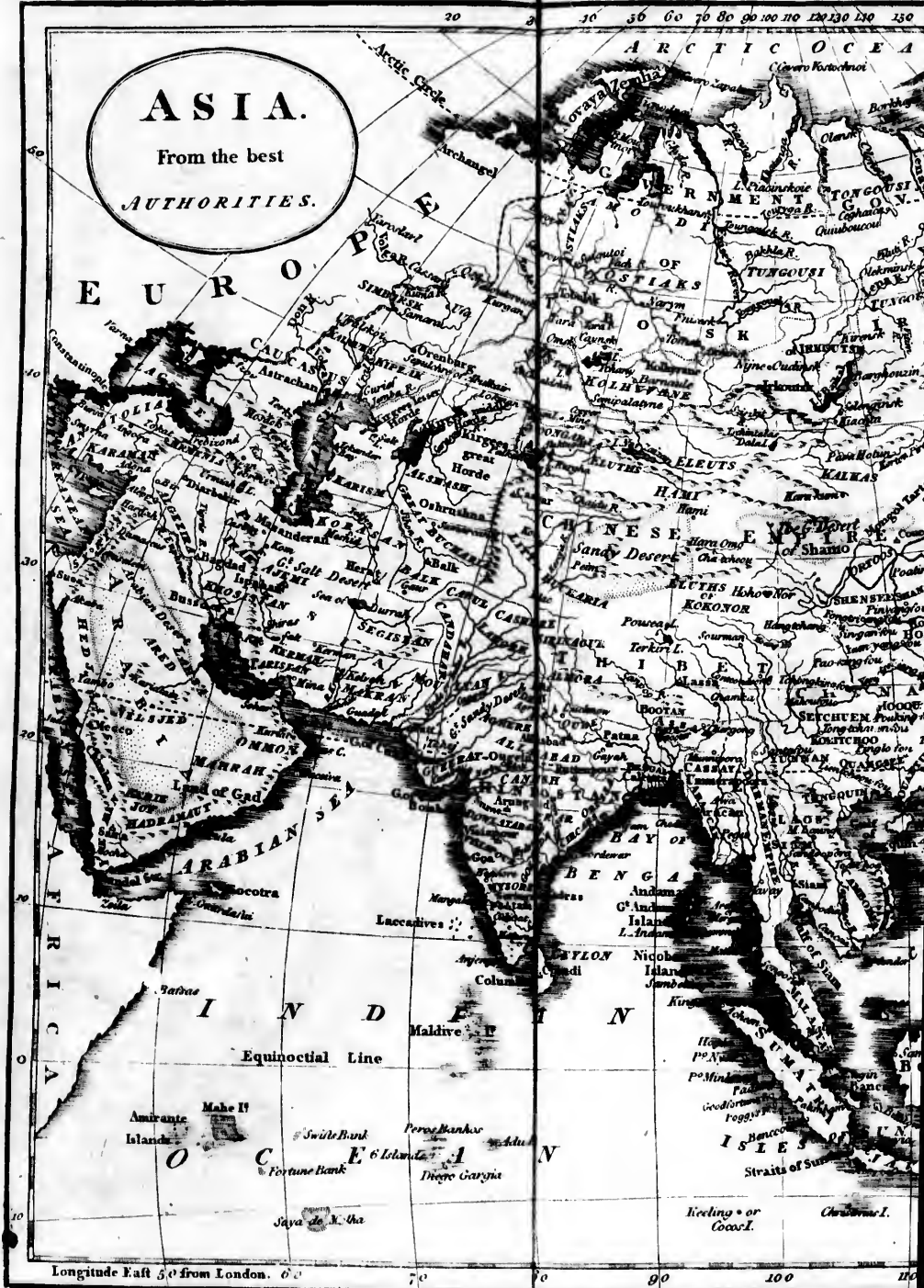
and produce is similar to those of the other islands. Its principal riches consist in currants, which are cultivated in a large plain under the shelter of mountains, which gives the sun greater power to bring them to maturity. Here are also the finest peaches in the world, each weighing eight or ten ounces. The number of inhabitants in this island is about 30,000. The principal town is Zante, which is fortified and has a good harbour.

CERIGO, the ancient *CYTHERA*, according to the mythologists the favourite residence of Venus, is situate to the south-east of the Morea, and is about 50 miles in circumference. The greater part of it is mountainous and rocky, but the rest produces corn, and excellent grapes. The town of San Nicolo in this island has a fort and a good road for ships.

A S I A.

AS Asia exceeds Europe and Africa in the extent of its territories, it is also superior to them in the serenity of its air, the fertility of its soil, the deliciousness of its fruits, the fragrancy and balsamic qualities of its plants, spices, and gums; the salubrity of its drugs; the quantity, variety, beauty, and value of 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 all-wise Creator planted the garden of Eden, in which he formed the first man and first woman, from whom the race of mankind was to spring. Asia became again the nursery of the world after the deluge, whence the descendants of Noah dispersed their various colonies into all the other parts of the globe. It was in Asia that God placed his once-favourite people, the Hebrews, whom he enlightened by revelations delivered by the prophets, and to whom he gave the Oracles of Truth. It was here that the great and merciful work of our redemption was accomplished by his divine Son; and it was from hence that the light of his glorious Gospel was carried, with amazing rapidity, into all the known nations, by his disciples and followers. Here the first Christian churches were founded, and the Christian faith miraculously propagated and cherished, even with the blood of innumerable martyrs. It was in Asia that the first edifices were reared, and the first empires founded; while the other parts of the globe were inhabited only by wild animals. On all these accounts, this quarter claims a superiority over the rest. But it must be owned that a great change has happened in that part of it called Turkey, which has lost much of its ancient splendour; and, from the most populous and best cultivated spot in Asia, is almost become a wild and uncultivated desert. The other parts of Asia continue much in their former condition, the soil being as remarkable for its fertility as most of the inhabitants for their indolence, effeminacy, and luxury. This effeminacy is chiefly owing to the warmth of the climate, though in some measure heightened by custom and education: and the symptoms of it are more or less visible, as the several nations are seated nearer or further from the north. Hence the Tartars, who live in nearly 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, Hindoos, and all the inhabitants of the most

ASIA.
From the best
AUTHORITIES.



Longitude East 50 from London. 60 70 80 90 100 110



70 80 90 100 110 120 130 140 150 160

PACIFIC OCEAN

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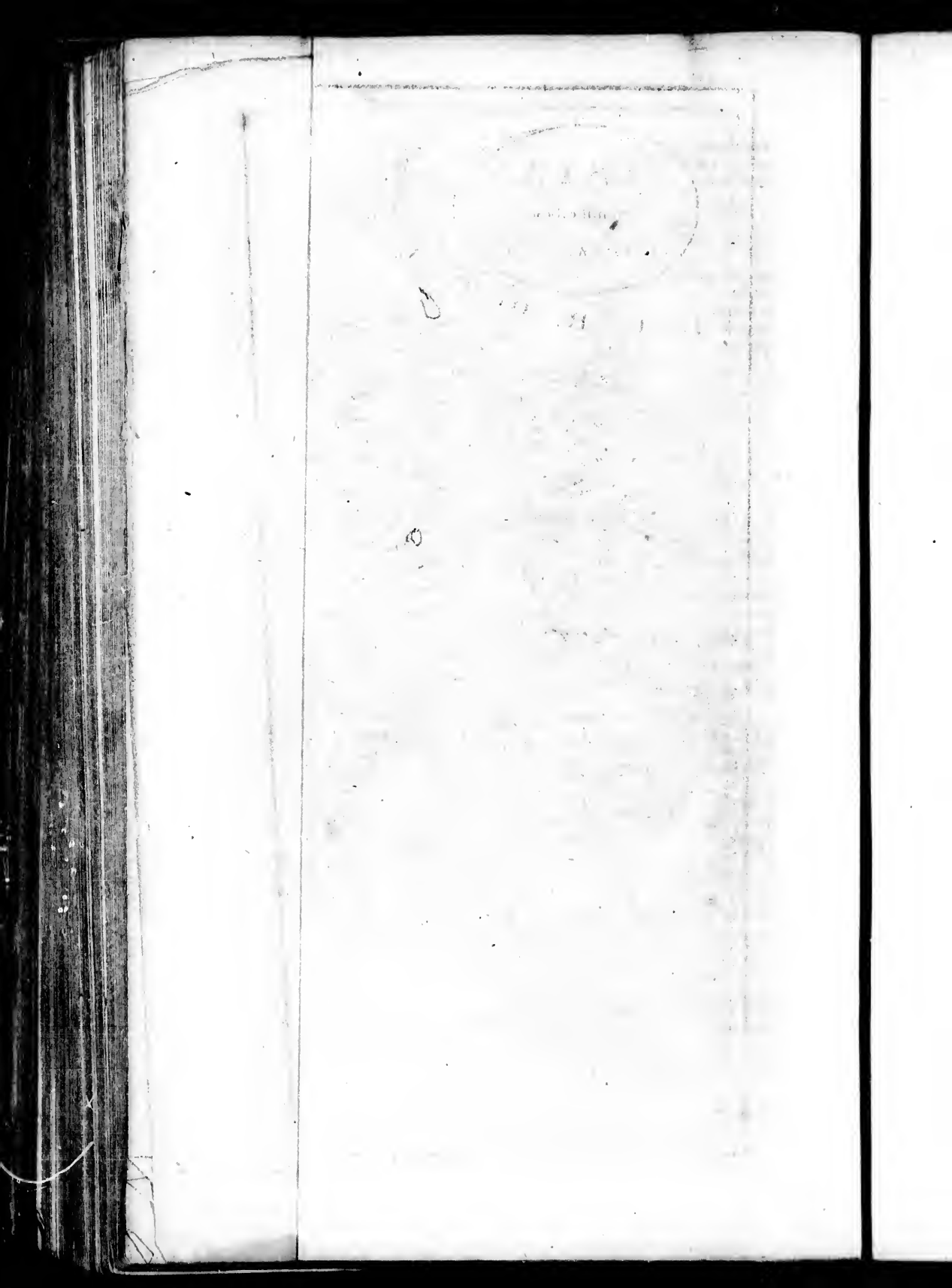
PACIFIC OCEAN

Tropic of Capricorn

Tropic of Equator

100 110 120 130 140 150

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southern regions, is in a great measure made up to them by the vivacity of their minds, and ingenuity in various kinds of workmanship, which our most skilful mechanics have in vain endeavoured to imitate.

This vast extent of territory was successively governed, in early times, by the Assyrians, the Medes, the Persians, and the Greeks; but the immense regions of India and China were little known to Alexander, or the conquerors of the ancient world. Upon the decline of those empires, great part of Asia submitted to the Roman arms; and afterwards, in the middle ages, the successors of Mohammed, or, as they were usually called, Saracens, founded in Asia, in Africa, and in Europe, a more extensive empire than that of Cyrus, Alexander, or even the Roman when in its height of power. The Saracen greatness ended with the death of Tamerlane; and the Turks, conquerors on every side, took possession of the middle regions of Asia, which they still enjoy. The prevailing form of government, in this division of the globe, is absolute monarchy. If any of its inhabitants 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 Mohammedanism. The Persian and Indian Mohammedans are of the sect of Ali, and the others of that of Omar; but both own Mohammed for their lawgiver, 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 the catholic missionaries, to propagate their doctrines in the most distant regions, and among the grossest idolaters; but their labours have hitherto failed of success, owing in a great measure to the avarice, cruelty, and injustice, 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 190 degrees of east or 170 of west longitude, and between the equator and 78 degrees of north latitude. It is about 6050 miles in length from the Dardanelles on the west, to the eastern shore of Tartary; and about 5400 miles in breadth, from the most southern part of Malacca, to the most northern cape of Asiatic Russia. 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.	Lengt.	Breadt.	Square Miles.	Chief Cities.	Dist. and bearing fr. Lond.	Diff. of time from London.	Religion.
Tartary.	Asiatic Russia	5300	1900	3,050,000	Tobolsk	2160 N.E.	4 10 bef.	Ch. & Pag.
	Chinese	3000	1060	944,000	Chynian	4480 N.E.	8 4 bef.	Pagans
	Tibet	1500	500	385,000	Lassa	3780 E.	5 40 bef.	Pagans
	Independ.	1500	850	500,000	Samar-cand	2800 E.	4 36 bef.	Pagans
	China	1350	1060	1,298,000	Pekin	4320 S.E.	7 24 bef.	Pagans
	Hindoostan	1890	1550	870,910	Delhi	3720 S.E.	5 16 bef.	Mah. & P.
	Ind. beyond the Ganges	2000	1000	741,500	Siam Pegu	5010 S.E.	1 44 bef.	Pag. & M.
	Persia	1300	1050	800,000	Ispahan	2460 S.E.	3 20 bef.	Mahom.
	Arabia	1400	1260	700,000	Mecca	2640 S.E.	2 52 bef.	Mahom.
	Syria	270	160	29,000	Aleppo	1860 S.E.	2 30 bef.	Ch. & Ma.
	Holy Land	210	90	7,600	Jerusalem	1920 S.E.	2 24 bef.	Ch. & Ma.
	Natolia	750	390	195,000	Bursa, or Smyrna	1440 S.E.	1 48 bef.	Mahom.
Turkey in Asia.	Diarbeck, or Mesopotamia	240	210	27,000	Diarbeck	2060 S.E.	2 56 bef.	Mahometans with some few Christians.
	Irac, or Chaldea	420	240	50,400	Bagdad	2240 S.E.	3 04 bef.	
	Turcomania or Armenia	360	300	55,000	Erzerum	1860 S.E.	2 44 bef.	
	Georgia *	240	180	25,600	Teflis	1920 E.	3 10 bef.	
	Curdistan or Assyria	210	205	23,900	Mousul.	2220 E.	3 — bef.	

* Georgia has lately put itself under the protection of Russia.

The most remarkable are, Olympus, Taurus, and Anti-taurus; Caucasus, and Ararat; Lebanon and Hermon.

RIVERS, LAKES, MINERAL WATERS.] The same may be observed of the rivers, which are, the Euphrates, which rises in the mountains of Arracina and falls into the Persian Gulf, after a course of about 1400 English miles; the Tigris, which falls into the Euphrates about 60 miles to the north of Bassora, after a course of nearly 800 miles; the Maander, the Sarabat or ancient Hermus, the Orontes in Syria, and the Jordan.

The lake of Van, in Curdistan, is about 80 miles long and 40 broad. The lake of Rackama, to the south of Hilla and the ancient Babylon, is about 30 miles in length, and has a communication with the Euphrates. The lake of Asphaltites, usually called the Dead Sea, in Palestine, into which the Jordan flows, is about 50 miles in length and 12 in breadth.

The mineral waters of Prusa or Byrsa, at the foot of Mount Olympus, are in great estimation. The water smokes, and is so hot as to scald the hand. There are several other hot and mineral springs in different parts of Asiatic Turkey.

METALS, MINERALS.] The mountainous provinces of Turkey in Asia no doubt abound in a variety of valuable minerals and metals; but the ignorance and indolence of those who possess the country are so great that nature has lavished her gifts in vain.

CLIMATE.] Though the climate of this country is 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 fearful scourge to mankind wherever it takes place, but here doubly destructive, from the native indolence of the Turks, and their superstitious belief in a predestination, which prevents them from using the proper precautions to defend themselves against this calamity.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] As this country contains the most fertile provinces of Asia, it is scarcely necessary to 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 these 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.

ANIMALS.] 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 these 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 manufacture, known by the name of camlets, was originally made by a mixture of camel's hair and silk, though it is now often made with wool and silk. Their kids and sheep are exquisite eating, and are said to surpass, in flavour and taste, those of Europe; but their butchers' meat in general, beef particularly, is not so fine.

As to birds, here are wild fowl in great perfection: the ostriches are

well known by their tallness, swiftness in running, and stupidity. The Roman epicures prized no fish, except lampreys, mullets, and oysters, but those that were found in Asia.

NATURAL CURIOSITIES.] The natural curiosities of Asiatic Turkey, though no doubt they must be numerous, seem to have been little explored or described by travellers, who have in general been more attentive to the remains of antiquity with which almost all the provinces of this empire abound.

PROVINCES, CITIES, CHIEF TOWNS, EDIFICES. } The cities and towns of Turkey in Asia are very numerous, and at the same time very insignificant, because they have little or no trade, and are greatly decayed from their ancient grandeur. Aleppo, however, preserves a respectable rank among the cities of the Asiatic Turkey. It is still the capital of Syria, and is superior in its buildings and conveniences to most of the Turkish cities. The houses, as usual in the East, consist of a large court, with a dead wall to the street; an arcade or piazza running round it, paved with marble; and an elegant fountain of the same in the middle. Aleppo, and its suburbs, are seven miles in compass, standing on eight small hills, on the highest of which the citadel, or castle, is erected, but of no great strength. An old wall, and a broad ditch, now in many places turned into gardens, surround the city, which was estimated by the late Dr. Russel to contain 230,000 inhabitants, of whom 30,000 were Christians and 5,000 Jews; but at present, according to Mr. Eton, it does not contain more than 50,000, which depopulation has chiefly taken place since 1770. Whole streets are uninhabited, and bazars abandoned. It is furnished with most of the conveniences of life, excepting good water, within the walls, and even that is supplied by an aqueduct, distant about four miles, said to have been erected by the empress Helena. The streets are narrow, but well paved with large square stones, and are kept very clean. The 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 warehouses, 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, arched, or covered streets, with little shops, as in other parts of the East. Their coffee is excellent, and considered by the Turks as a high luxury; and their sweetmeats and fruits are delicious. European merchants live here in greater splendor and safety than in any other city of the Turkish empire, in consequence of particular capitulations with the Porte. Coaches or carriages are not used here, but persons of quality ride on horseback, with a number of servants before them, according to their rank. The English, French, and Dutch, have consuls, who are much respected, and appear abroad, the English especially, with marks of distinction. Scanderoon, or Alexandretta, about 70 miles to the west of Aleppo, and the port of that city, is now almost depopulated. Superb remains of antiquity are found in its neighbourhood.

As the mosques and bagnios, or baths, mentioned above, are built in nearly the same manner in all the Mohammedan countries, we shall here give a general description of them.

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, the roof of which is supported by marble pillars.

Those galleries serve for places of ablution before the Mohammedans 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 conveniences for reading the Koran and praying.

The bagnios in the Mohammedan countries are admirably 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 were dislocating every bone in the body; all which exercises are, in those inert warm countries, very conducive to health. In public bagnios, the men bathe from morning to four in the afternoon; when all male attendants being removed, the ladies succeed, and when coming out of the bath display their finest clothes.

Bagdad, built upon the Tigris, not far, it is supposed, from the site of ancient Babylon, is the capital of the ancient Chaldea, and was the metropolis of the caliphate, under the Saracens, in the twelfth century. This city retains but few marks of its ancient grandeur. It is in the form of an irregular square, and rudely fortified; but the convenience of its situation renders it one of the seats of the Turkish government, and it has still a considerable trade, being annually visited by the Smyrna, Aleppo, and western caravans. The houses of Bagdad are generally large, built of brick and cement, and arched over to admit the free circulation of the air; many of the windows are made of elegant Venetian glass, and the ceilings ornamented with chequered work. Most of the houses have also a court-yard before them, in the middle of which is a small plantation of orange-trees. The number of houses is computed at 80,000, each of which pays an annual tribute to the pasha, which is calculated to produce 300,000*l.* sterling. The bazars, in which the tradesmen have their shops, are tolerably handsome, large, and extensive, filled with shops of all kinds of merchandise, to the number of 12,000. These were erected by the Persians, when they were in possession of the place, as were also their bagnios, and almost every thing here worthy the notice of a traveller. The population of Bagdad has, however, greatly declined within these few years. The plague of 1773 carried off two-thirds of the inhabitants, who now scarcely amount to 20,000; for here, as at Aleppo, whole streets and bazars are desolate. In this city are five mosques, two of which are well built, and have handsome domes, covered with varnished tiles of several colours. Two chapels are permitted for those of the Romish and Greek persuasions. On the north-west corner of the city stands the castle, which is of white stone, and commands the river, consisting of curtains and bastions, on which some large cannon are mounted, with two mortars in each bastion; but in the year 1779 they were so honey-combed and bad, as to be supposed not to be able to support one firing.

Below the castle, by the water-side, is the palace of the Turkish governor; and there are several summer-houses in the river, which make a fine appearance. The Arabians who inhabited this city under the caliphs were remarkable for the purity and elegance of their dialect.

Bassorah, or Basrah, situate on the Euphrates, about 40 miles from the Persian Gulf, is a place of considerable trade, containing about 50,000 inhabitants; but it is scarcely to be included in the Turkish dominions, since it belongs to an independent Arab prince, who pays very little respect to the Ottoman court.

Ancient Assyria is now called the Turkish Kurdistan, though part of it is subject to the Persians. The capital is Kurdistan, the ancient Nineveh being now a heap of ruins. Kurdistan is said to be for the most part cut out of a mountain, and is the residence of a viceroy, or beglerbeg. Orfar, 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. Mousul is also in the same province, a large place, situated on the west shore of the Tigris, opposite where Nineveh formerly stood.

Georgia, or Gurgistan, now no longer subject to the Turks, is chiefly inhabited by Christians. The natives of this country are a brave warlike race of men. Their capital, Teflis, is a handsome city, and makes a fine appearance; all the houses are of stone, neat and clean, with flat roofs, which serve as walks for the women; but the streets are dirty and narrow. The number of inhabitants is about 30,000. It is situated at the foot of a mountain, by the side of the river Kur, and is surrounded by strong walls, except on the side of the river. It has a large fortress on the declivity of a mountain, which is a place of refuge for criminals and debtors, and the garrison consists of native Persians. There are thirteen Greek churches in Teflis, seven Armenian, and one Roman-catholic church; the Mohanmedans who are here have no mosques. In the neighbourhood of the city are many pleasant houses, and fine gardens. The Georgians, in general, are, by some travellers, said to be the handsomest people in the world, which is attributed to their having early received the practice of inoculation for the small-pox. They make no scruple of selling and drinking wines in their capital, and other towns; and their valour has procured them many distinguishing liberties and privileges. Lately they have formed an alliance with Russia, under the brave prince Heraclius; as has the czar or prince Solomon, sovereign of Immeretta, a district between the Caspian and Black Seas, who is distinguished from his subjects (all of the Greek religion) by riding on an ass, and wearing boots.

The ancient cities of Damascus, Tyre, and Sidon, still retain part of their former trade. Damascus is called Sham, and the approach to it by the river is inexpressibly beautiful. It contains a fine mosque, which was formerly a Christian church. It still is famous for its steel works, such as sword-blades, knives, and the like, the excellent temper of which is said to be owing to a quality in the water. The inhabitants manufacture also those beautiful silks, called damasks, from their city, and carry on a considerable traffic in raw and worked silk, rose-water extracted from the famous damask roses, fruits, and wine. The neighbourhood of this city is still beautiful, especially to the Turks, who delight in verdure and gardens. Sidon, now Said, which likewise lies within the ancient Phœnicia, has still some trade, and a tolerable harbour.

Tyre, now called Sur, about twenty miles distant from Sidon, so famous formerly for its rich dye, is now inhabited by scarcely any but a few miserable fishermen, who live among the ruins of its ancient grandeur. There are strong walls on the land side, of stone, eighteen feet high, and seven broad. The circumference of the place is not more than a mile and a half, and Christians and Mohammedans make up the number of about five hundred. Some of the ruins of ancient Tyre are still visible. The pavements of the old city, Mr. Bruce tells us, he saw, and observes that they were seven feet and a half lower than the ground upon which the present city stands. Passing by Tyre (says our author, who deserves much praise for some happy elucidations of Scripture), I came to be a mournful witness of the truth of that prophecy—‘That Tyre, Queen of Nations, would be a rock for fishers to dry their nets on*.’ Two wretched fishermen, with miserable nets, having just given over their occupation, with very little success, I engaged them, at the expense of their nets, to drag in those places where the said shell-fish might be caught, in hopes to have brought out one of the famous purple fish. I did not succeed; but in this I was, I believe, as lucky as the old fishers had ever been. The purple fish at Tyre seems to have been only a concealment of their knowledge of cochineal, as, had they depended upon the fish for their dye, if the whole city of Tyre applied to nothing else but fishing they would not have coloured twenty yards of cloth in a year †.

In Natolia, or Asia Minor, is Smyrna, which may be considered as the third city in Asiatic Turkey. It contains about 120,000 inhabitants. The excellence of its harbour renders it the centre of all the traffic carried on between Europe and the Levant, and preserves it in a flourishing state; but the rest of this country, comprehending the ancient provinces of Lydia, Pamphylia, Pisidia, Lycæonia, 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 sites of ancient 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 maintains themselves, and their gardens and summer-houses fill up the circuit of their most flourishing cities. The most judicious travellers, upon an attentive survey of 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, lie buried within the luxuries of their own soil. The Turks seem particularly fond of representing the latter in the most gloomy colours, and have formed a thousand falsehoods concerning it, which, being artfully propagated by some among ourselves; have imposed upon weak Christians ‡.

* Ezek. chap. xxvi. 5.

† Bruce's Travels, vol. 1. Introduction, p. lix.

‡ The late reverend Dr. Shaw, professor of Greek at Oxford, who seems to have examined that country with an uncommon degree of accuracy, and was qualified by the soundest philosophy to make the most just observations, says, that were the Holy Land as well cultivated as in former times, it would be more fertile than the very best parts of Syria and Phœnicia, because the soil is generally much richer, and, every thing considered, yields larger crops. Therefore the barrenness (says he) of which some authors complain, does not proceed from the natural unfruitfulness of the country, but from the want of the inhabitants, the indolence which prevails among

ANTIQUITIES.] The remains of ancient edifices and monuments in Turkey in Asia are so numerous that they have furnished matter for many voluminous publications. The provinces which compose this country contained all that was rich and magnificent, in architecture and sculpture; and neither the barbarity of the Turks, nor the depredations they have suffered from the Europeans, seem to have diminished the number of these valuable antiquities. 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 vast variety of curiosities, we shall select some of the most striking.

The neighbourhood of Smyrna (now called Ismir) contains many noble and beautiful antiquities. The same may be said of Aleppo, and a number of other places celebrated in ancient times. The site of old Troy cannot be distinguished by the smallest vestige, and is known only by its being opposite to the isle of Tenedos, and the name of a brook which the poets magnified into a wonderful river. A temple of marble, built in honour of Augustus Cæsar, at Milasso, in Caria, and a few structures of the same kind in the neighbourhood, are among the antiquities that are still entire. Three theatres of white marble, and a noble circus near Laodicea, near Latakia, have suffered very little from time or barbarism; and some travellers think they discern the ruins of the celebrated temple of Diana, near Ephesus.

Balbec is situated on a rising plain, between Tripoli, in Syria, and Damascus, at the foot of Mount Libanus, 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 is now known only by the magnificence of its ruins. The walls were adorned with Corinthian pilasters and statues, and it opens into a quadrangular court of the same taste and grandeur. The great temple to which this leads is now so ruined, that it is known only by an entablature, supported by nine lofty columns, each consisting of three pieces, joined together by iron pins, without cement. Some of those pins are a foot long, and a foot in diameter; and the sordid Turks are daily at work to destroy the columns for the sake of the iron. A small temple is still standing, with a pedestal of eight columns in front, and fifteen in flank, and every-where richly ornamented with figures in alto-relievo, and the heads of gods, heroes, and emperors. 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 these immense buildings. The inhabitants of Asia ascribe them to Solomon, but some make them so modern as the time of Antoninus Pius. Perhaps they are of different æras; and though that prince and his

the few who possess it, and the perpetual discords and depredations of the petty princes who share this fine country. Indeed, the inhabitants can have but little inclination to cultivate the earth. "In Palestine," says Mr. Wood, "we have often seen the husbandman sowing, accompanied by an armed friend, to prevent his being fobbed of the seed." And, after all, whoever sows is uncertain whether he shall ever reap the harvest.

successors may have rebuilt some part of them, yet the boldness of their architecture, the beauty of their ornaments, and the stupendous execution of the whole, seem to fix their foundation to a period before the Christian æra, though we cannot refer them to the ancient times of the Jews, or Phœnicians, who probably knew little of the Greek style in building and ornamenting. Balbec is at present a little city encompassed with a wall. The inhabitants, who are about 5000 in number, chiefly Greeks, live in or near the circular temple, in houses built out of the ancient ruins. A free-stone quarry in the neighbourhood furnished the stones for the body of the temple; and one of the stones, not quite detached from the bottom of the quarry, is 70 feet long, 14 broad, and 14 feet five inches deep: its weight must be 1135 tons. A coarse white marble quarry, at a greater distance, furnished the ornamental parts.

Palmyra, or, as it was called by the ancients, Tadmor in the desert, is situated in the wilds of Arabia Petræa, in about 33 deg. of N. lat. and 200 miles to the south-east of Aleppo. It is approached through a narrow plain, lined as it were with the remains of antiquity; and opening all at once, the eye is presented with the most striking objects that are to be found in the world. The temple of the Sun lies in ruins; but the access to it is through a vast number of beautiful Corinthian columns of white marble, the grandeur and beauty of which can only be known by the plates of it, which have been drawn and published by Mr. Wood, who, with his friends, visited it about fifty years ago, purposely to preserve some remembrance of such a curiosity. As those drawings, or copies from them, are now common, we must refer the reader to them, especially as he can form no very adequate ideas of the ruins from a printed relation. Superb arches, amazing columns, a colonnade extending 4000 feet in length, terminated by a noble mausoleum, temples, fine porticoes, peristyles, intercolumniations, and entablatures, all of them in the highest style, and finished with the most beautiful materials, appear on all hands, but so dispersed and disjointed, that it is impossible from them to form an idea of the whole when perfect. These striking ruins are contrasted by the miserable huts of the wild Arabs, who reside in or near them.

Nothing but ocular proof could convince any man that so superb a city, formerly ten miles in circumference, could exist in the midst of what now are tracts of barren uninhabitable sands. Nothing however is more certain than that Palmyra was formerly the capital of a great kingdom, that it was the pride as well as the emporium of the eastern world, and that its merchants dealt with the Romans and the western nations, for the merchandises and luxuries of India and Arabia. Its present altered situation, therefore, can be accounted for only by natural causes, which have turned the most fertile tracts into barren deserts. The Asiatics think that Palmyra, as well as Balbec, owes its original to Solomon; and in this they receive some countenance from sacred history. In profane history it is not mentioned before the time of Marc Antony; and its most superb buildings are thought to be of the lower empire, about the time of Gallienus. Odenathus, the last king of Palmyra, was highly caressed by that emperor, and even declared Augustus. His widow, Zenobia, reigned in great glory for some time; and Longinus, the celebrated critic, was her secretary. Unwilling to submit to the Roman tyranny, she declared war against the emperor Aurelian, who took her prisoner, led her in triumph to Rome, and butchered her principal nobility, and, among others, the

excellent Longinus. He afterwards destroyed her city, and massacred its inhabitants, but expended large sums out of Zenobia's treasures in repairing the temple of the Sun, the majestic ruins of which have been mentioned. None of the Palmyrene inscriptions reach above the Christian æra, though there can be no doubt that the city itself is of much higher antiquity. The emperor Justinian made some efforts to restore it to its ancient splendor, but without effect, for it dwindled, by degrees, to its present wretched state. It has been observed, very justly, that its architecture, and the proportions of its columns, are by no means equal in purity to those of Balbec.

Between the rivers Euphrates and Tigris, where some superstitious and visionary people have sought the situation of Paradise, there are some tracts which undoubtedly deserve that name. The different ruins, some of them inexpressibly magnificent, that are to be found in these immense regions, cannot be appropriated with any certainty to their original founders; so great is the ignorance in which they have been buried for these thousand years past. It is, indeed, easy to pronounce whether the style of their buildings be Greek, Roman, or Saracén: but all other information must come from their inscriptions.

Nothing can be more futile than the boasted antiquities shown by the Greek and Armenian priests in and near Jerusalem, which is well known to have been so often rased 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 tolerably good architecture; but its different divisions, and the dispositions made round it, are chiefly calculated to support the forgeries of its keepers. Other churches built by the same lady are found in Palestine; but the country is so altered in its appearance and qualities, that it is one of the most despicable of any in Asia, and it is in vain for a modern traveller to attempt to trace in it any vestiges of the kingdom of David and Solomon. But the most fertile country, abandoned to tyranny and wild Arabs, must in time become a desert. Thus oppression soon thinned the delicious plains of Italy; and the noted countries of Greece and Asia the Less, once the glory of the world, are now nearly destitute of learning, arts, and people.

ORIGIN AND HISTORY 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 ancients by the name of Scythia, and among the moderns by that of Tartary. One tribe of these people, called Turks or Turcomans, extended its conquests under various leaders, and during several centuries, from the shore of the Caspian to the Straits of the Dardanelles. 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 about the year 1037, and spread their ravages all over 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 caliphate or empire of the Saracens, they made themselves masters of Palestine; and the visiting of 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 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 Boulogne, neither he nor his successors were possessed of any real power of maintaining it. The Turks, about the year 1229, 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, signifying *wanderers* or *banished men*, being considered by them as a term of reproach. Othman is to be styled the founder of the Turkish or Ottoman empire, and was succeeded by a race of the most warlike princes recorded 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, which he took in the year 1360: under him the order of janisaries was established. Such were their conquests, that Bajazet I. after conquering Bulgaria, and defeating the Greek emperor Sigismund, laid siege to Constantinople, in hopes of subjecting all the Greek empire. His greatness and insolence provoked Timur, or Tamerlane, a Tartarian prince, who was just then returned from his eastern conquests, to declare war against him. A decisive battle was fought between those rival conquerors, in Natolia, in the plain where Pompey defeated Mithridates; when Bajazet's army was cut to pieces, and he himself taken prisoner, and shut up in an iron cage, where he ended his life.

The successors of Tamerlane, by declaring war against each other, left the Turks more powerful than ever; and though their career was checked by the valour of the Venetians, Hungarians, and the famous Scanderbeg, a prince of Epirus, they gradually reduced the dominions of the Greek emperors; 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, and the dislike their subjects had to the popes and the western church,—one of the patriarchs declaring publicly 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, where, though under grievous oppressions, they profess Christianity under their own patriarchs of Constantinople, Alexandria, Antioch, and Jerusalem; and the Armenians have three

patriarchs, who are richer than those of the Greek church, on account of their people being more wealthy and more conversant in trade. It is said that the modern Greeks, though pining under the tyrannical yoke of the Turkish government, still retain 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 considered 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 Persia and Egypt. Bajazet, falling ill of the gout, became indolent, was harassed by family differences, and at last, by order of his second son, Selim, was poisoned by a Jew physician. Selim afterwards ordered his eldest brother, Achmet, to be strangled, with many other princes of the Ottoman 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, in the year 1517, 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. He took Buda, the metropolis of Hungary at that time, and Belgrade, and carried off near 200,000 captives, A. D. 1526, and two years afterwards advanced into Austria, and besieged Vienna, but retired on the approach of Charles V. He miscarried also 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 possessed of in Hungary. Osman, a prince of great spirit, but no more than sixteen years of age, being unsuccessful against the Poles, was put to death by the janisaries, whose power he intended to have reduced. Morad 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 janisaries in 1648. His successor, Mahomet IV., was excellently well served by his grand visier, Cuperli. He took Candia 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, in 1687, shut up in prison by his subjects, and succeeded by his brother, Soliman II.

The Turks continued unsuccessful in their wars during his reign, and that of his brother and successor, Achmet I.—but Mustapha II., who ascended the throne in 1694, headed his armies in person. After some active 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 mufti 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 peace concluded at Pruth. When the Russian army was surrounded without hopes of escape, the czarina inclined the grand visier to the peace, by a present of all the money, plate, and jewels, that were in the army: but the Russians delivered up to the Turks Asoph, Kaminnieck, and Taiganrog, and agreed to evacuate Poland. He had afterwards a war with the Venetians, which alarmed all the Christian powers. The scene of action was transferred 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 unsuccessful war with the Persians, under Kouli Khan, succeeding, the populace demanded the heads of the visier, the chief admiral, and secretary, which were accordingly struck off: but the sultan also was deposed, and Mahomet V. advanced to the throne. He likewise was unsuccessful in his wars with Kouli Khan, and at last obliged to recognise that usurper as king of Persia. He was afterwards engaged in a war with the Imperialists and 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, another with the Russians, which was greatly to his advantage. Mahomet died in 1754.

He was succeeded by his brother, Osman III., who died in 1757, and was succeeded by his brother Mustapha III., who died on the 21st of January, 1774, whilst engaged in an unsuccessful war with the Russians, of which some account has been already given in the history of that country. In the course of this war, a considerable Russian fleet was fitted out, which set sail from the Baltic, with a view of attacking the remote parts of the Archipelago. This fleet having arrived at Minorca, departed from thence in the beginning of February, 1770, and shaped its course for the Morea. Count Orlov having debarked such land forces as he had with him at Maina, a little to the westward of Cape Metapan, and about fifty miles to the south-west of Misitra, the ancient Sparta, the Mainotes, the descendants of the Lacedæmonians, and who still possessed the country of their ancestors, under subjection to the grand-signor, immediately flew to arms in every quarter, and joined the Russians by thousands, from their aversion to the tyranny of the Turks. The other Greeks immediately followed their example, or rather only waited to hear of the arrival of the Russians, to do what they had long intended; and the whole Morea seemed every where in motion. The open country was quickly over-run, and the ancient La-

onia, Arcadia, and several other countries, as speedily taken; while the Russian ships, that had been separated, or that put into Italy, arrived successively, and landed their men in different places, where every small detachment soon swelled into a little army, and the Turks were every where attacked or intercepted. In the mean time, the Greeks gave the utmost loose to their revenge, and every where slaughtered the Turks without mercy; and the rage and fury with which the inhabitants of the continent were seized extended itself to the islands, where also the Turks were massacred in great numbers. They were, indeed, unable to make head against the Russians and Greeks in the field; their only protection was found within the fortresses. The malcontents had so much increased since the first debarkation of the Russians, that they invested Napoli di Romania, Corinth, and the castle of Patras, with several other places of less note. But whilst they were employed in these enterprises, an army of thirty thousand men, composed chiefly of Albanians and Epirotes, entered the Morea, commanded by the seraskier, pacha of Bosnia. This Turkish general recovered all the northern part of the peninsula as soon as he appeared in it; and all the Greeks that were found in arms, or out of their villages, were instantly put to death. The Russians were now driven back to their ships; but about the same time, another Russian squadron, commanded by admiral Elphinstone, arrived from England to re-inforce count Orlov's armament. The Turkish fleet also appeared, and an obstinate engagement was fought in the channel of Scio, which divides that island from Natolia, or the Lesser Asia. The Turkish fleet was considerably superior in force, consisting of fifteen ships of the line, from sixty to ninety guns, besides a number of chebeques and galleys, amounting in the whole to near thirty sail; the Russians had only ten ships of the line, and five frigates. Some of the ships engaged with great resolution, while others on both sides found various causes for not approaching sufficiently near. But Spiritof, a Russian admiral, encountered the captain pacha, in the Sultana, of ninety guns, yard-arm and yard-arm; they fought with the greatest fury, and at length ran so close, that they locked themselves together, with grappling-irons, and other tackling. In this situation, the Russians, by throwing hand-grenades from the tops, set the Turkish ship on fire; and as they could not now be disentangled, both ships were in a little time equally in flames. Thus dreadfully circumstanced, without a possibility of succour, they both at length blew up with a most terrible explosion. The commanders and principal officers on both sides were mostly saved; but the crews were almost totally lost. The dreadful fate of those ships, as well as the danger to those that were near them, produced a kind of pause on both sides; after which the action was renewed, and continued till night without any material advantage on either side. When it became dark, the Turkish fleet cut their cables, and ran into a bay on the coast of Natolia; the Russians surrounded them thus closely pent up, and in the night some fire-ships were successfully conveyed among the Turkish fleet, by the intrepid behaviour of lieutenant Dugdale, an Englishman in the Russian service, who, though abandoned by his crew, himself directed the operations of the fire-ships. The fire took place so effectually, that in five hours the whole fleet, except one man of war and a few galleys, that were towed off by the Russians, was totally destroyed; after which they entered the harbour, and bombarded and cannonaded the town, and a castle that protected it, with such success, that a shot having blown up the powder-magazine in the latter, both

were reduced to a heap of rubbish. Thus was there scarcely a vestige left, at nine o'clock, of a town, a castle, and a fine fleet, which had been all in existence at one the same morning.

Some of the principal military transactions by land, in the war between Russia and Turkey, having been already noticed in our account of the former empire, we shall here only add, that, after a most unfortunate war on the side of the Turks, peace was at length concluded between them and the Russians, on the 21st of July 1774, a few months after the accession of Achmet IV. The emperor Mustapha III. left a son, then only in his 15th year; but as he was too young to manage the reins of government in the then critical situation of the Turkish affairs, Mustapha appointed his brother, the late emperor, to succeed him in the throne; and to this prince, under the strongest terms of recommendation, he confided the care of his infant son.

The perseverance of the Turks, supplied by their numerous Asiatic armies, and their implicit submission to their officers, rather than an excellency in military discipline or courage in war, have been the great springs of those successes which have rendered their empire so formidable. The extension, as well as duration of their empire, may indeed be in some measure owing to the military institution of the janisaries, a corps originally composed of 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 40,000; and so excellent was their discipline, that they were deemed to be invincible; and they still continue the flower of the Turkish armies: but the Ottoman power is in a declining state. The political state of Europe, and the jealousies that subsist among its princes, is now the surest basis of this empire, and the principal reason why the finest provinces in the world are suffered to remain any longer in the possession of those haughty infidels.

Notwithstanding the peace which was established in 1774, between Russia and the Porte, various sources of discord having been left open, very little tranquillity could subsist between them. For an account of these we refer our readers to our historical narrative of the former empire. Towards the latter end of the year 1786, the Turks seem to have adopted a regular system of indirect hostility against Russia, which was continually making such encroachments, as made the Turks resolve to try again the fortune of war. Scarcely had the empress returned from the splendid journey which she made to Cherson, before a declaration of Turkish hostilities was announced at St. Petersburg. What part the emperor of Germany would take in this war was not at first known. The capriciousness of his character kept the spirit of curiosity in suspense for some little time; but he soon declared himself determined to support all the claims which Russia had upon the Porte.

Instead of being disheartened at the formidable appearance of the confederacy formed against them, the Turks applied themselves with redoubled ardour to prepare for resistance. But an event that seems greatly to have contributed to the ill success experienced by the crescent in the year 1789, was the death of Achmet the Fourth, on the 7th of April.

This prince, if we make suitable allowances for the disadvantages under which he laboured as a despotic monarch, and the prejudices of his country, may be allowed to have possessed some claim to our esteem. He filled the throne of Constantinople without reflecting disgrace upon human nature. His temper appears to have been mild and humane:

He not only permitted Selim, his nephew, son of the late emperor, to live, but even publicly acknowledged him for his successor. His reign was not stained with so many arbitrary murders as those of his predecessors; nor did he think it necessary that a disgraced minister should part at once with his office and his life. He suffered his countrymen to improve by the arts and military discipline of Europe. Yssouf, his prime minister, during the last three years of his life, though by no means consistently great, must be allowed to deserve our applause, and will be better known to posterity as the patron of the Turkish translation of the *Encyclopédie*, than as the victorious and skilful rival of the Austrian arms in the Banat of Transylvania.

Achmet died at the unenterprising age of sixty-four, and Selim the Third succeeded, at twenty-eight. In the vigour of youth, he thought it necessary to distinguish himself by something extraordinary, and at first purposed to put himself at the head of his forces. He was easily, as might be expected from his effeminate education, dissuaded from this rash and ridiculous project. But he conceived that at least it became him to discountenance the ministers of his predecessor, and reverse all their proceedings. These ministers had acquired in some degree the confidence of those who acted under their command; and it appeared in the sequel, that the fantastic splendor of a new and juvenile sovereign could not compensate for the capricious and arbitrary changes with which his accession was accompanied.

In the year 1788 Choczim and Oczakow surrendered to the arms of Russia, as will be found in the history of that country; and on the 12th of September, 1789, the Austrian forces sat down before Belgrade, and with that good fortune which seemed almost constantly to attend their commander, marshal Laudohn. The place, together with its numerous garrison, surrendered, after a vigorous resistance, on the 8th of October. The rest of the campaign was little else than a succession of the most important successes; and a circumstance that did not a little contribute to this, was the system adopted by the Austrians and Russians, of suffering the Turkish troops to march out of the several places they garrisoned without molestation. Bucharest, the capital of Walachia, fell without opposition into the hands of prince Cobourg; while Akerman, on the Black Sea, was reduced by the Russians; and Bender surrendered to prince Potemkin, not without suspicion of sinister practices, on the 15th of November. One only check presented itself to the allied arms. The garrison of Orsova displayed the most inflexible constancy, and marshal Laudohn was obliged to raise the siege of this place in the middle of December, after having sat down before it for a period of six weeks. In a short time after the siege was renewed, and Orsova was reduced the 16th of April, 1790.

After the reduction of Orsova, the war was carried on with languor, on the part of Austria; and in the month of June a conference was agreed upon at Reichenbach, at which the ministers of Prussia, Austria, England, and the United Provinces assisted, and at which also an envoy from Poland was occasionally present. After a negotiation, which continued till the 17th of August, it was agreed that a peace should be concluded between the king of Hungary and the Ottoman Porte; that the basis of this treaty should be a general surrender of all the conquests made by the former, retaining only Choczim as a security till the Porte should accede to the terms of the agreement; when it was also to be restored. On the other hand, the king of Prussia gave up the Belgic provinces, and even promised his assistance in reducing them again to submit to the dominion of Austria.

The king of Prussia was less successful in his mediation with Russia. Catharine had not, like Leopold, an imperial crown at stake, which, unsubstantial as it is, has always its charms with those who are educated in the habitual adoration of rank and dignities. Her conquests also, on the side of Turkey, were too important to be easily relinquished; and she considered her dignity attacked by the insolent style of Prussian mediation. The substance of her answer to the Prussian memorial was, therefore, "That the empress of Russia would make peace and war with whom she pleased, without the interference of any foreign power."

The campaign of 1791 opened, on the part of Russia, with the taking of Maczin, on the 4th of April, by prince Gallitzin; and in a subsequent victory, on the 12th, by the same general, in the neighbourhood of Brailow, the Turks lost not less than 4000 men, and upwards of 100 officers, besides many pieces of cannon. On the 14th the Russian arms experienced a check, by which they lost about 700 men, and were obliged to relinquish their intention of besieging Brailow. After re-inforcing this place, the visier proceeded to the banks of the Danube, near Silistria; and by means of a bridge which he threw across the river, his advanced posts were enabled to make incursions on the opposite side. The ability of the visier, and the valour of the Turks, were however exerted in vain against the discipline and experience of European armies. In the month of June, 15,000 Turks were defeated by a party of cavalry under general Kutusow. On the 3d of July the fortress of Anape was taken by general Gudowitsch; and the garrison, to the amount of 6000 men, made prisoners. This event was followed, on the 9th of the same month, by a signal victory which prince Repnin obtained near Maczin over a body of 70,000 men, the flower of the Turkish army. The Ottomans left upwards of 4000 dead upon the field of battle, and lost their entire camp-equipage, colours, and 30 pieces of cannon. The Russians are said to have lost only 150 men killed, and between 200 and 300 wounded.

While the war was thus vigorously carried on, the mediating powers were not inactive. Great Britain and Prussia, in particular, declared themselves determined to support the balance of Europe, and to force the empress to peace upon the basis of a *status quo*. Of the interference of Britain in this dispute, we have treated more largely in another place. To the first applications of the English minister, the empress answered in nearly the same terms in which she had before replied to the memorial of Prussia—"That the British court would not be permitted to dictate the terms of peace." In the course of the negotiation, however, her demands became more moderate: and as the northern powers, and particularly Denmark, began to exert themselves for the prevention of hostilities, she confined her views to the possession of Oczakow, with the district extending from the Bog to the Dneister, and even then providing for the free navigation of the latter river. The negotiation was protracted to the 11th of August, when at length peace was concluded between the czarina and the Porte, nearly upon these terms—terms which, considering the ill success of the war, cannot be accounted very disadvantageous to the Turks, who lost a fortress more useful for the purpose of annoying Russia than for defending their own territories; but certainly of considerable importance to Russia, which, by this cession, secured the peaceable possession of the Crimea.

It is computed that in this war Turkey lost 200,000 soldiers; Russia 100,000; the Austrians, who fell in the battle, or in the unhealthy marshes, are supposed to exceed 130,000.

The treacherous and wanton invasion of Egypt by the French, in 1798,

without even the pretence that the Porte had given them any cause of offence, justly provoked the Turks to declare war against France; but of the hostilities which took place between these powers, and which have been almost entirely confined to the attack on Egypt, and some towns in Syria, an account is given elsewhere: it is therefore unnecessary to repeat it here.

Selimi III., born in 1761, succeeded to the throne of Turkey on the death of his uncle, the late sultan, April 7, 1789.

ISLANDS belonging to TURKEY in ASIA.

THE greater part of the Grecian islands in the Archipelago are considered by geographers as situate in Europe; but those which are very near to the Asiatic coast, with the island of Cyprus in that part of the Mediterranean called the Levant, or Eastern sea, must be referred to Asia.

TENEDOS is remarkable only for its lying opposite to old Troy, and being mentioned by Virgil as the place to which the Greeks retired, and left the Trojans in a fatal security. It has a town of the same name.

METELIN, the ancient LESBOS, the principal city of which was Mytilene, whence the modern name, is situate to the north of the gulf of Smyrna, about ten miles from the coast of Africa. It is about forty miles long and twenty-four broad. It produces excellent oil and wine, the latter of which was anciently in high esteem, and still sells at a great price. It is famous for having been the native place of Sappho. The ancient Lesbians were accused of dissolute manners, and the modern inhabitants, it is said, too much resemble them in this respect.

SCIO, anciently CHIOS, lies about eighty miles west of Smyrna, and is about one 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 3,000 Latins. It has 300 churches, besides chapels and monasteries; and a Turkish garrison of 1400 men. The inhabitants have manufactures of silk, velvet, gold and silver stuffs. The island likewise produces oil and 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. A late learned traveller, Dr. Richard Chandler, says, "The beautiful Greek girls are the most striking ornaments of Scio. Many of these were sitting at the doors and windows, twisting cotton or silk, or employed in spinning and needle-work, and accosted us with familiarity, bidding us welcome as we passed. The streets on Sundays and holidays are filled with them in groups. They wear short petticoats, reaching only to their knees, with white silk or cotton hose. Their head-dress, which is peculiar to the island, is a kind of turban; the linen so white and thin, it seemed snow. Their slippers are chiefly yellow, with a knot of red fringe at the heel. Some wore them fastened with a thong. Their garments were silk of various colours; and their whole appearance so fantastic and lively as to afford us much entertainment. The Turks inhabit a separate quarter, and their women are concealed." Among the poets and historians said to be born here, the inhabitants reckon Homer, and show a little square house, which they call Homer's school.

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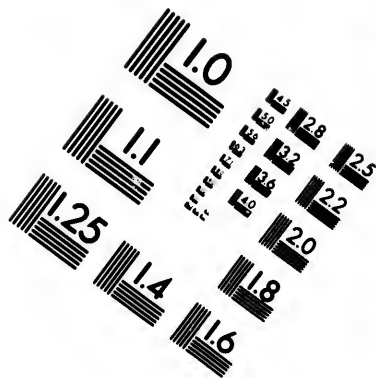
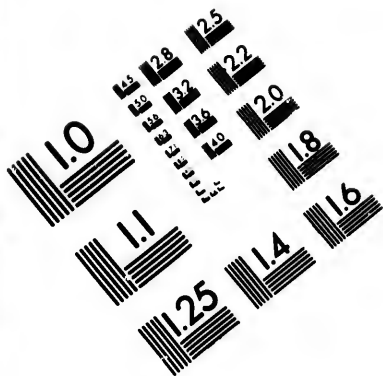
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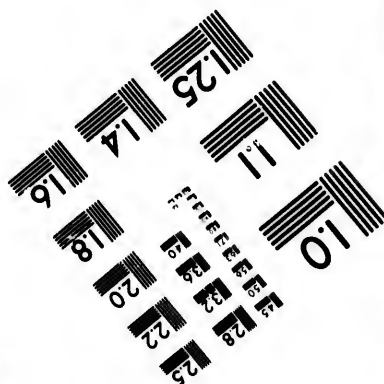
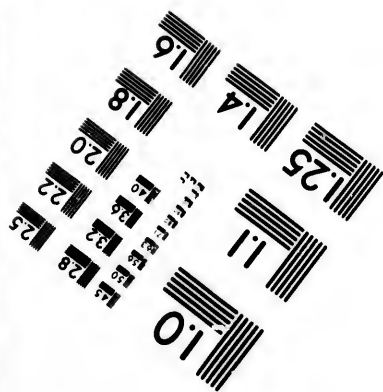
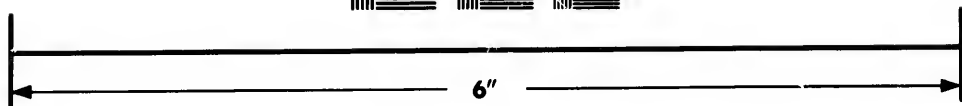
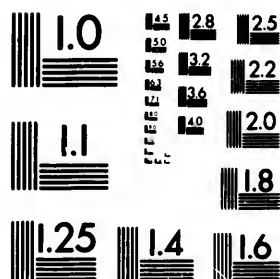
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SAMOS lies opposite to Ephesus, on the coast of Lesser Asia, about seven miles from the continent. It is thirty miles long, and fifteen broad. This island gave birth to Pythagoras, and is inhabited by Greek Christians, who are well treated by the Turks, their masters. The muscadine Samian wine is in high request; and the island also 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 show a cave where St. John is supposed to have written the Apocalypse.

STANCIO, the ancient Cos, on the coast of Lesser Asia, nearly twelve miles from the continent, is about twenty-five miles long and ten broad. It abounds with cypress and turpentine trees, and a variety of medicinal plants. This island has a town of the same name, situated in a bay, with a harbour defended by a castle. Cos is famous for having been the birth-place of the great father of medicine, Hippocrates, and the celebrated painter Apelles.

The island of RHODES is situated in $28^{\circ} 45'$ of east longitude, and $35^{\circ} 30'$ north latitude, about twenty miles south-west of the continent of Lesser Asia, being about thirty-six miles long, and fifteen broad. This island is healthful and pleasant, and abounds in wine, and many of the necessaries of life; but the inhabitants import their corn from the neighbouring country. The chief town, which also bears the name of Rhodes, is situated on the side of a hill fronting the sea, and is three miles in circumference, interspersed with gardens, minarets, churches, and towers. The harbour of Rhodes is the grand signor's principal arsenal for shipping, and the place is esteemed among the strongest fortresses belonging to the Turks. The colossus of brass, which anciently stood at the mouth of the harbour, and was fifty fathoms 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 135 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 1808, but lost it to them in 1522, after a brave defence, and afterwards retired to Malta.

CYPRUS lies in the Levant Sea, about thirty miles distant from the coasts of Syria and Palestine. It is 100 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 the richest of all produced in the Greek islands. Nicosia is the capital, in the midst of the country, and the see of a Greek archbishop; indeed, most part of the inhabitants of the island are Greeks. Famagusta, its ancient capital, has a good harbour; and the natural produce of the island is so rich, that many European nations find their account in keep-

ing consuls residing upon it; but the oppressions of the Turks have depopulated and impoverished it to an extreme degree, so that the revenue they get from it does not exceed 1250*l.* a year. The island produces great quantities of grapes, from which excellent wine is made; and also cotton of a very fine quality is here cultivated, and oil, silk, and turpentine. Its female inhabitants do not degenerate from their ancestors as devotees to Venus; and Paphos, that ancient seat of pleasure and corruption, is one of the divisions of the island. Richard I., king of England, subdued Cyprus, on account of its king's treachery; and its royal title was transferred to Guy Lusignan, king of Jerusalem, from whence it passed to the Venetians, who long held that empty honour.

ARABIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 1400 } Breadth 1260 }	between { 36 and 60 East longitude. } { 12 and 32 North latitude. }	700,000

NAME.] It is remarkable that this country has always preserved its ancient name. The word *Arab*, it is generally said, signifies a robber, or freebooter. The word *Saracen*, by which one tribe is called, is said to signify both a thief and an inhabitant of the desert. These names justly belong to the Arabians; for they seldom let any merchandise pass through the country without extorting something from the owners, if they do not rob them.

BOUNDARIES.] Bounded by Turkey, on the north; by the gulfs of Persia or Bassorah, and Ormus, which separate it from Persia, on the east; by the Indian Ocean, south; and the Red Sea, which divides it from Africa, on the west.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.
1. Arabia Petraea, N. W. }	Neged } Neged Proper }	Imama Salemia
2. Arabia Deserta in the middle }		Hedjaz } Hadramaut }
3. Arabia Felix, S. W. S. and S. E. }	Yemen } Oman }	SAANNA, E. lon. 46° 35' N. lat. 17° 28' Mocha, E. lon. 44° 25' N. lat. 14° 0' Rostak Muscat
	Lachsa, Hadjar or Bahrein }	Lachsa

MOUNTAINS.] The mountains of Sinai and Horeb, lying in Arabia Petraea, east of the Red Sea, and those called Gibel el Ared, in Arabia Felix, are the most noted.

RIVERS, SEAS, GULFS, AND CAPES.] There are few springs, or rivers in this country, except the Euphrates, which washes the north-east limits of it. It is almost surrounded with seas; as the Indian Ocean, the Red Sea, the gulfs of Persia and Ormus. The chief capes or promontories are those of Rosalgate and Musledon.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] As a considerable part of this country lies under the torrid zone, and the tropic of Cancer passes over Arabia Felix, the air is excessively dry and hot, and the country is subject to hot poisonous winds, like those on the opposite shores of Persia, which often prove fatal, especially to strangers. The soil, in some parts, is nothing more than immense sands, which, when agitated by 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 valleys standing thick with corn; here are no vine-yards 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 intensity of the cold in the night is almost equal to that of the heat in the day-time. But the southern part of Arabia, deservedly called the Happy, is blessed with an excellent soil, and, in general, is very fertile. There the cultivated lands, which are chiefly about the towns near the sea-coast, produce balm of Gilead, manna, myrrh, cassia, aloes, frankincense, spikenard, and other valuable gums; cinnamon, pepper, cardamom, oranges, lemons, pomegranates, figs, and other fruits; honey and wax in plenty, with a small quantity of corn and wine. This country is famous for its coffee and its dates, which last are found scarcely any where in such perfection as here and in Persia. There are few trees fit for timber in Arabia, and little wood of any kind.

ANIMALS.] The most useful animals in Arabia are camels and dromedaries; they are amazingly fitted by Providence for 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 throats, by which means they can travel six or eight days without water. The camels usually carry 800lbs. 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, with two bunches on its back, and remarkably swift. 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 at a distance, and set up their great trot till they come to it. The Arabian horses are well known in Europe, and have contributed to improve the breed of those in England. They are only fit for the saddle, and are admired for their make as much as for their swiftness and high mettle. The finest breed is in the kingdom of Yemen, in which Mocha is situated.

NATURAL CURIOSITIES.] The deserts, mountains, and places mentioned in Scripture may be considered as the principal of these. What is called the Desert of Sinai is a beautiful plain near nine miles long, and above three in breadth; it lies open to the north-east, but to the southward is closed by some of the lower eminences of Mount Sinai; and other parts of that mountain make such encroachments upon the plain as to divide it into two parts, 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 show the very spot where every miracle or transaction recorded in Scripture happened.

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, in general, a martial, 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.

The Arabians, in general, are such thieves, that travellers and pilgrims are struck with terror on approaching the deserts. These robbers, headed by a captain, traverse the country in considerable troops on horseback, and assault and plunder the caravans; and we are told that, so late as the year 1750, a body of 50,000 Arabians attacked a caravan of merchants and pilgrims returning from Mecca, killed about 60,000 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 Mahomedans, 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.

CITIES, CHIEF TOWNS, EDIFICES.] Among the cities of Arabia Felix, Mecca and Medina deserve particular notice. At Mecca, the birth-place of Mahomed, is a mosque, the most magnificent of any in the Turkish dominions; its lofty roof being raised in fashion of a dome, and covered with gold, with two beautiful towers at the end, of extraordinary height and architecture, which make a delightful appearance, and are conspicuous at a great distance. The mosque has 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 required, 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 Mahomed fled when he was driven out of Mecca, and where he was buried, is a stately mosque supported by 400 pillars, and furnished with 300 silver lamps, which are continually burning. It is called the "*Most Holy*," by the Turks, because in it is placed the coffin of their prophet Mahomed, covered with cloth of gold, under a canopy of silver tissue, which the pasha of Egypt, by order of the grand-signor, 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, curiously wrought, and adorned with precious stones. Thither the pilgrims resort, as to Mecca, but not in such numbers.

The other principal cities of Arabia are Saana, Mocha, Jeddah, or Jud-dah, Muscat, and Lachsa. Saana is considered as the capital of Arabia Felix. It has a castle, and contains a number of mosques and other elegant buildings. It is about four miles in circumference, and surrounded by a brick wall with seven gates. The environs produce abundance of fine grapes, of above twenty different species, and great quantities of dried raisins are exported from this city.

Mocha is well built: the houses are very lofty, and are, with the walls and forts, covered with a chinam or stucco, that gives a dazzling whiteness to them. The harbour is semicircular, the circuit of the wall is two miles, and there are several handsome mosques in the city. Jud-dah is the place of the greatest trade in the Red Sea; for there the commerce between Arabia and Europe meets, and is interchanged, the former sending her gums, drugs, coffee, &c., and from Europe come cloths, iron, furs, and other articles, by the way of Cairo. The revenues of these, with the profits of the port, are shared by the grand-signor and the sheriff of Mecca, to whom jointly this place belongs.

Muscat is a considerable town, with an excellent harbour, and has been, from early times, a staple of trade between Arabia, Persia, and the Indies. It was taken by the Portuguese in 1508, and held by them during a century and a half. English ships from Hindoostan carry on a trade with this town.

Lachsa is a large and well-built town, situate on a rapid stream, which falls into a large bay opposite to the isle of Bahrein, celebrated for the pearl-fishery.

GOVERNMENT, LAWS.] Arabia is under the government of many petty princes, who are styled xeriffs and imans, both of them including the offices of king and priest, in the same manner as the caliphs of the Saracens, the successors of Mahomed. 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 pashas residing among them; but receive large gratuities from the grand-signor, for protecting the pilgrims that pass through their country, from the robberies of their countrymen. The Arabians have no standing regular militia, but their emirs command both the persons and the purses of their subjects, as the necessity of affairs requires.

RELIGION.] Of this the reader will find an account in the following history of Mahomed their countryman. Many of the wandering Arabs are still little different from Pagans; but in general they profess Mahomedanism.

LEARNING AND LANGUAGE.] Though the Arabians in former ages

were famous for their learning and skill in all the liberal arts, there is scarcely a country at present where the people are so universally ignorant. The vulgar language used in the three Arabias is the Arabesk, or corrupt Arabian, which is likewise spoken, with some variation of dialect, over great part of the East, from Egypt to the court of the Great Mogul. The pure old grammatical Arabic, which is said to be a dialect of the Hebrew, and by the people of the East accounted the richest, most energetic, and copious language in the world, is taught in their schools, as Greek and Latin are amongst Europeans, and used by Mahomedans 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 a 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*. But among these are reckoned the metaphorical expressions and images of their poets. The Lord's prayer in Arabic is as follows:

Abuna elladhi fi-ssamwat; jetkaddas esmâc; tati malacutac: taouri musebiatic, cana fi-ssama; kedhalec ula lardh auting chobzena kef:ina itaum beiaum; wagsor lena donabena wachutaina, cana nogfor nachnt lemen aca doina; wala tadulchalna jhajarib; laken mejjina me mescherir. Amen.

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 entirely composed of their conquests or independence. The Arabs are descended from Ishmael, 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. Towards the north, and the sea-coasts of Arabia, the inhabitants are, indeed, kept in awe by the Turks; but the wandering tribes in the southern and inland parts acknowledge themselves the subjects of no foreign power, and do not fail to harass 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 Mohaned, a native of Mecca, a city of that division of Arabia, which, from the luxuriance of its soil and happy temperature of its climate, has ever been esteemed the loveliest and most delightful region of the world, and distinguished by the epithet of the Happy.

Mohamed was born in the year 569, in the reign of Justinian II. emperor of Constantinople. Though descended of mean parentage, illiterate and poor, he was endued with a subtile genius, like those of the same country, and possessed a degree of enterprise and ambition peculiar to himself, and much beyond his condition. He had been employed in the early part of his life, by his uncle, Abuteleb, as a factor, and had occasion, in this capacity, to travel into Syria, Palestine, and Egypt. He was afterwards taken into the service of a rich merchant, upon whose death he married his widow, Khadija, 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 took advantage of these; 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 Sergius, a monk, whose libertine disposition had made him forsake his cloister and profession, and engage in the service of Khadija, with whom he remained as a domestic when Mahomed 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 Mahomed 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. Mahomed gave out, therefore, that these fits were trances into which he was miraculously thrown by God Almighty, during which he was instructed in his will, which he was commanded to publish to the world. By this strange story, and by leading a retired, abstemious, and austere life, he easily acquired a character for superior sanctity among his acquaintance and neighbours. When he thought himself sufficiently fortified by the numbers and the enthusiasm of his followers, he boldly declared himself a prophet sent by God into the world, not only to teach his will, but to compel mankind to obey it.

As we have already mentioned, he did not lay the foundation of his system so narrow as only to comprehend the natives of his own country. His mind, though rude and enthusiastic, was enlarged by travelling into distant lands, whose manners and religion he had made a peculiar study. He proposed that the system he established should extend over all the neighbouring nations, to whose doctrines and prejudices he had taken care to adapt it. Many of the inhabitants of the eastern countries were at this time much addicted to the opinions of Arius, who denied that Jesus Christ was co-equal with God the Father, as is declared in the Athanasian creed. Egypt and Arabia were filled with Jews, who had fled into these corners of the world from the persecution of the emperor Adrian, who threatened the total extinction of that people. The other inhabitants of these countries were pagans. These, however, had little 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, to be the better able to indulge in the gratifications of sense, which, together with the doctrine of predestination, composed the sole principles of their religion and philosophy. The system of Mahomed 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 intrusted with. He had commanded him not only to publish his laws, but to subdue those who were unwilling to believe or obey them; and for this end, to establish a kingdom upon earth, which

should propagate the divine law throughout the world; that God had designed utter ruin and destruction to those who should refuse to submit to him; but to his faithful followers he had given the spoils and possessions of all the earth, as a reward in this life, and had provided for them hereafter a paradise of all sensual enjoyments, especially those of love; that the pleasures of such as died in propagating the faith would be peculiarly intense, and vastly transcend those of the rest. These, together with the prohibition of drinking strong liquors (a restraint not very severe in warm climates), and the doctrine of predestination, were the capital articles of Mahomed's creed. They were no sooner published, than a great number of his countrymen embraced them with implicit faith. They were written by the priest before 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 Mahomed, 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 Mahomed, getting notice of their intention, fled from his native city to Medina Tahmachi, 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 622d year of Christ, the fifty-fourth year of Mahomed's age, and the tenth of his ministry, his followers, the Mahomedans, compute their time; and the æra is called in Arabic, Hegira, or Hejra, i. e. the Flight.

Mahomed, 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 Mahomedans. In a word, the contagion spread over Arabia, Syria, Egypt, and Persia; and Mahomed, from a deceitful hypocrite, became a powerful monarch. He was proclaimed king at Medina, in the year 627; and, after subduing part of Arabia and Syria, died in 632, leaving two branches of his race, both esteemed divine among their subjects. These were the caliphs of Persia and of Egypt, under the last of which Arabia was included. The former of these turned their arms to the East, and made conquests of many countries. The caliphs of Egypt and Arabia directed their ravages towards Europe, and, under the name of Saracens or Moors, (which they obtained because they entered Europe from Mauritania, in Africa, the country of the Moors,) reduced the greater part 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 portion of mankind.

PERSIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		Degrees.		Sq. Miles.
Length	1300	} between	{	45 and 70 East longitude.	} 800,000
Breadth	1050			25 and 40 North latitude.	

NAME.] PERSIA, according to the poets, derived its name from Perseus, the son of Jupiter and Danaë. Less fabulous authors suppose it derived from Paras, Pars, or Fars, which signify a horseman,—the Persians, and Parthians, being always celebrated for their skill in horsemanship.

BOUNDARIES.] Modern Persia is bounded by the mountains of Ararat, or Daghistan, which divide it from Circassia and Georgia, on the north-west; by the Caspian Sea, which divides it from Russia, on the north; by the river Oxus, which divides it from Usbec Tartary, on the north-east; by India, on the east; by the Indian Ocean, and the gulfs of Persia and Ormus, on the south; and by Arabia and Turkey, on the west.

DIVISIONS.] This kingdom contains the following provinces:—

<i>Provinces.</i>	<i>Ancient Names.</i>	<i>Chief Towns.</i>
Farsistan	Persis, or Persia propria	Shirauz
Irac Agemi	Media	Ispahan
Aderbeitzan	Media Atropatena	Tauris
Khusistan	Susiana	Suster
Mazanderan	Margiana	Ferabad
Khorasan	Margiana and Aria	Herat
Ghilan	Gela	Reshd
Sablestan	Bactriana	Bost
Schirvan	Albania	Schamackie
Segestan	Arachosia	Zareng
Mekran	Gedrosia	Kidge
Laristan	Lar
Kerman	Caramania	Kerman

MOUNTAINS.] These are Caucasus and Ararat, which are called the mountains of Daghistan; and the vast chain of mountains called Taurus, and their divisions, which 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 the Kur, anciently Cyrus; and Aras, anciently 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.

The want of rivers in Persia occasions a scarcity of water: but the defect, where it prevails, is admirably well supplied by means of reservoirs, aqueducts, and canals.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Persia contains mines of iron, copper,

lead, and, above all, turquoise-stones, which are found in Khorasan. Sulphur, salt-petre, and antimony, are found in the mountains. Quarries of red, white, and black marble have also been discovered near Tauris.

CLIMATE.] Those parts of Persia which border upon Caucasus and Daghistan, and the mountains near the Caspian Sea, are cold, as lying in the neighbourhood of these 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, VEGETABLE PRODUCTIONS.] 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 country abounds in corn, fruits, wine, and the other luxuries of life. It produces oil in plenty, senna, rhubarb, and the finest drugs. The fruits are delicious, especially the dates, oranges, pistachio nuts, melons, cucumbers, and garden-stuff. Great quantities of excellent silk are likewise produced in this country, and the Gulf of Bassorah formerly furnished great part of Europe and Asia with very fine pearls. Some parts, near Ispahan especially, produce almost all the flowers that are valued in Europe; and from some of them, particularly roses, they extract waters of a salubrious and odorific 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 much perfection as some nations in Europe, by transplanting, engrafting, and other meliorations, they would add greatly to the natural riches of the country. The Persian assafoetida flows from a plant called hiltot, and turns into a gum. Some of it is white, and some black; but the former is so much valued, that the natives make very rich sauces of it, and sometimes eat it as a rarity.

No place in the world produces the necessaries of life in greater abundance and perfection than Shirauz; nor is there a more delightful spot in nature to be conceived, than the vale in which it is situate, either for the salubrity of the air, or for the profusion of every thing necessary to render life comfortable and agreeable. The fields yield plenty of rice, wheat, and barley, which they generally begin to reap in the month of May, and by the middle of July the harvest is completed. Most of the European fruits are produced here, and many of them are superior in size and flavour to what can be raised in Europe, particularly the apricot and grape. Of the grape of Shirauz there are several sorts, all of them very good, but two or three more particularly so than the rest: one is the large white grape, which is extremely luscious and agreeable to the taste; the small white grape, as sweet as sugar; and the black grape, of which the celebrated wine of Shirauz is made, which is really delicious, and well deserving of praise. It is pressed by the Armenians and Jews, in the months of October and November, and a great quantity is exported annually to Abu Shehr, and other parts in the Persian Gulf, for supplying the Indian market. The pomegranate is good to a proverb; the Persians call it the fruit of Paradise.

ANIMALS.] The breed of horses in the province of Fars is at present very indifferent, owing to the ruinous state of the country; but in the district of Dushtistaan, lying to the south-west, it is remarkably good. The sheep are of a superior flavour, owing to the excellence of the

pasturage in the neighbourhood of Shirauz, and are also celebrated for the fineness of their fleecce: "they have tails of an extraordinary size, some of which I have seen weigh," says Mr. Francklin, "upwards of thirty pounds; but those which are sold in the markets do not weigh above six or seven. Their oxen are large and strong, but their flesh is seldom eaten by the natives, who confine themselves chiefly to that of sheep and fowls."

NATURAL CURIOSITIES.] The baths near Gombroon are medicinal, and esteemed among the natural curiosities of Persia. The springs of the famous Naptha, near Baku, are mentioned often in natural history for their surprising qualities; but the chief of the natural curiosities in this country is the burning phenomenon, and its inflammatory neighbourhood, already mentioned under the article of Religion.

**POPULATION, INHABITANTS, } It is impossible to speak with any
MANNERS, CUSTOMS. }** certainty concerning the population of a country so little known as that of Persia. If we are to judge by the vast armies, in modern as well as in ancient times, raised there, the numbers it contains must be very great. The Persians of both sexes are generally handsome; the men being fond of marrying 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; and religious people wear long beards. Men of rank and quality wear very magnificent turbans; many of them cost twenty-five pounds, and few under nine or ten. They have a maxim to keep their heads very warm, so that they never pull off their caps or their turbans out of respect even to the king. Their dress is very simple. Next to their skin they wear calico shirts, over them a vest, which reaches below the knee, girt with a sash, and over that a loose garment somewhat shorter. The materials of their clothes, however, are commonly very expensive, consisting of the richest furs, silks, muslins, 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 clothes are open; so that their dress upon the whole is far better adapted for the purpose both of health and activity than the long flowing robes of the Turks. The dress of the women, as well as that of the men, is very costly; and they are at great pains to heighten their beauty by art, colours, and washes.

The Persians accustom themselves to frequent 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. They eat at their repasts cakes of rice, and others of wheat flower; and as they esteem it an abomination to cut either bread, or any kind of meat after it is dressed, these cakes are made thin, that they may be easily broken with the hand; and their meat, which is generally mutton or fowls, is so prepared that they divide it with their fingers. When every thing is set in order before them, they eat fast, and without any ceremony. But it is observed by a late traveller, that when the oldest man in the company speaks, though he be poor, and sit at the lower end of the room, they all give a strict attention to his words. They are temperate, but use opium, though not in such abundance as the Turks; nor are they very delicate in their entertainments of eating and drinking. They

use great ceremony towards their superiors, and politely 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 the national revolutions, have mingled the native Persians with barbarous nations, and are said to have taught them dissimulation; but they are still pleasing and plausible in their behaviour, and in all ages have been remarkable for hospitality. The great foible of the Persians seems to be ostentation in their equipages and dresses; nor are they less jealous of their women than the Turks and other eastern nations. They are fond of music, and take a pleasure in conversing in large companies: but their chief diversions are those of the field, hunting, hawking, horsemanship, and the exercise of arms; in all which they are very dexterous. They excel, as their ancestors the Parthians did, in archery. They are fond of rope-dancers, jugglers, and fighting of wild beasts; and privately play at games of chance.

There are places in Shirauz (Mr. Francklin observes) distinguished by the name of Zoor Khana, the house of strength, or exercise, to which the Persians resort for the purpose of exercising themselves. These houses consist of one room, with the floor sunk about two feet below the surface of the earth, and the light and air are admitted to the apartment by means of several small perforated apertures made in the dome. In the centre is a large square terrace of earth, well beaten down, smooth and even; and on each side are small alcoves, raised about two feet above the terrace, where the musicians and spectators are seated. When all the competitors are assembled, which is on every Friday morning by day-break, they immediately strip themselves to the waist; on which each man puts on a pair of thick woollen drawers, and takes in his hands two wooden clubs, of about a foot and a half in length, and cut in the shape of a pear; these they rest upon their shoulders; and the music striking up, they move them backwards and forwards with great agility, stamping with their feet at the same time, and straining every nerve, till they produce a very profuse perspiration. After continuing this exercise about half an hour, upon a signal given they all leave off, quit their clubs, and, joining hands in a circle, begin to move their feet very briskly in unison with the music, which is all the while playing a lively tune. Having continued this exercise for some time, they commence wrestling; in which the master of the house is always the challenger, and, being accustomed to the exercise, generally proves conqueror. The spectators pay each a shahee in money, equal to threepence English, for which they are refreshed with a calean to smoke, and coffee. This mode of exercise must contribute to health, as well as add strength, vigour, and a manly appearance to the frame. It seems to bear some resemblance to the gymnastic exercises of the ancients.

The Persians, with respect to outward behaviour, are certainly the most polished people of the East. While a rude and insolent demeanour peculiarly marks the character of the Turkish nation toward foreigners and Christians, the behaviour of the Persians would, on the contrary, do honour to the most civilised nations. They are kind, courteous, civil, and obliging to all strangers, without being guided by those religious prejudices so very prevalent in every other Mahomedan nation; they are fond of inquiring after the manners and customs of Europe; and, in

return, very readily afford any information in respect to their own country. The practice of hospitality is with them so grand a point, that a man thinks himself highly honoured if you will enter his house and partake of what the family affords; whereas going out of a house without smoking a calcan, or taking any other refreshment, is deemed, in Persia, a high affront; they say that every meal a stranger partakes with them brings a blessing upon the house.

The Persians, in their conversation, use extravagant and hyperbolic compliments on the most trifling occasions. This mode of address (which in fact means nothing) is observed not only by those of a higher rank, but even amongst the meanest artificers, the lowest of whom will make no scruple, on your arrival, to offer you the city of Shirauz and all its appurtenances, as a peishkush, or present. This behaviour appears at first very remarkable to Europeans, but after a short time becomes equally familiar. Freedom of conversation is a thing totally unknown in Persia, as, that *walls have ears*, is proverbially in the mouth of every one. The fear of chains which bind their bodies has also enervated their minds; and their conversation to men of superior rank to themselves is marked with signs of the most abject and slavish submission; while, on the contrary, they are as haughty and overbearing to their inferiors.

In their conversation the Persians aim much at elegance, and are perpetually repeating verses and passages from the works of their most favourite poets, Hafez, Sadi, and Jami; a practice universally prevalent from the highest to the lowest; because those who have not the advantage of reading and writing, or the other benefits arising from education, by the help of their memories, which are very retentive of whatever they have heard, are always ready to bear their part in conversation. They also delight much in jokes and quaint expressions, and are fond of playing upon each other; which they sometimes do with great elegance and irony. There is one thing much to be admired in their conversations, which is the strict attention they always pay to the person speaking, whom they never interrupt on any account. They are in general a personable, and in many respects a handsome people; their complexions, except those who are exposed to the inclemencies of the weather, are as fair as Europeans.

The brightness and sparkling in the eyes of the women, a very striking beauty, are in a great measure owing to art, as they rub their eyebrows and eye-lids with the black powder of antimony (called surma), which adds an incomparable brilliancy to their natural lustre.

MARRIAGES.] When the parents of a young man have determined upon marrying him, they look out among their kindred and acquaintance for a suitable match; they then go to the house where the female they intend to demand lives. If the father of the woman approves, he immediately orders sweetmeats to be brought in; which is taken as a direct sign of compliance. After this the usual presents on the part of the bridegroom are made, which, if the person be in middling circumstances, generally consist of two complete suits of apparel, of the best sort, a ring, a looking-glass, and a small sum in ready money, of about ten or twelve tomans, which is to provide for the wife in case of a divorce. There is also provided a quantity of household stuff of all sorts, such as carpets, mats, bedding, utensils for dressing victuals, &c. The contract is witnessed by the *cadi*, or magistrate. The wedding-night being come, the bride is brought forth, covered from head to foot in a veil of red silk, or painted muslin; a horse is then presented for

her to mount, which is sent expressly by the bridegroom; and when she is mounted, a large looking-glass is held before her by one of the bride-maids, all the way to the house of her husband, as an admonition to her, that it is the last time she will look into the glass as a virgin, being now about to enter into the cares of the married state. The procession then sets forward in the following order:—first, the music and dancing-girls, after which the presents in trays borne upon men's shoulders; next come the relations and friends of the bridegroom, all shouting, and making a great noise; who are followed by the bride herself, surrounded by all her female friends and relations, one of whom leads the horse by the bridle, and several others on horseback close the procession. Rejoicings upon this occasion generally continue eight or ten days. Men may marry for life, or for any determined time, in Persia, as well as through all Tartary; and all travellers or merchants, who intend to stay some time in any city, commonly apply to the *cadi*, or judge, for a wife during the time he proposes to stay. The *cadi*, for a stated gratuity, produces a number of girls, whom he declares to be honest, and free from diseases; and he becomes surety for them. A gentleman, who lately attended the Russian embassy to Persia, declares, that amongst thousands, there has not been one instance of their dishonesty during the time agreed upon.

FUNERALS.] The funerals of the Persians are conducted in a manner similar to those in other Mahomedan countries. On the death of a Mussulman, the relations and friends of the deceased, being assembled, make loud lamentations over the corpse; after which it is washed, laid out on a bier, and carried to the place of interment without the city-walls, attended by a Mullah, or priest, who chants passages from the Koran all the way to the grave. If any Mussulman should chance to meet the corpse during the procession, he is obliged, by the precepts of his religion, to run up to the bier, and offer his assistance in carrying it to the grave, crying out at the same time, *Lah Allah, Ill Lillah!* There is no God, but God. After interment, the relations of the deceased return home, and the women of the family make a mixture of wheat, honey, and spices, which they eat in memory of the deceased; sending a part of it to their friends and acquaintance, that they may also pay him a like honour. This custom seems to be derived from very great antiquity, as we read in Homer of sacrifices and libations being frequently made to the memory of departed souls.

CITIES, CHIEF TOWNS, EDIFICES.] Ispahan or Spahawn, the capital of Persia, is seated on a fine plain, within a mile of the river Zenderhend, which supplies it with water. It is said to be twelve miles in circumference. The streets are narrow and crooked, and the chief amusement of the inhabitants is on the flat roofs of their houses, where they spend their summer evenings; and different families associate together. The royal square is a third of a mile in length, and about half as much in breadth: and we are told, that the royal palace, with the buildings and gardens belonging to it, is three miles in circumference. There are in Ispahan 160 mosques, 1800 caravanserais, 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.

Shirauz lies about 225 miles to the south-east of Ispahan. It is an open town, but its neighbourhood is inexpressibly rich and beautiful, being laid out for many miles in gardens, the flowers and fruits of which are incomparable. The wines of Shirauz are reckoned the best of any in Persia. The town is the capital of Farsistan, or Persia Proper, and has a college for the study of eastern learning. It contains an uncommon number of mosques, and is adorned by many noble buildings; but its streets are narrow and inconvenient, and not above 4000 of its houses are inhabited. Shirauz has many good bazars and caravanserais; that distinguished by the appellation of the Vakeel's bazar (so called from its being built by Kherim Khan) is by far the handsomest. It is a long street, extending about a quarter of a mile, built entirely of brick, and roofed something in the style of the piazzas in Covent-garden; it is lofty and well made; on each side are the shops of the tradesmen, merchants, and others, in which are exposed for sale a variety of goods of all kinds; these shops are the property of the Khan, and are rented to the merchants at a very easy monthly rate. Leading out of this bazar is a spacious caravanserai, of an octagon form, built of brick, the entrance through a handsome arched gateway; in the centre is a place for the baggage and merchandise, and on the sides, above and below, commodious apartments for the merchants and travellers; these are also rented at a moderate monthly sum. About the centre of the above-mentioned bazar, is another spacious caravanserai of a square form, the front of which is ornamented with a blue and white enamelled work, in order to represent China-ware, and has a pleasing effect to the eye.

The city of Shirauz is adorned (according to Mr. Francklin) with many fine mosques, particularly that built by the late Kherim Khan, which is a noble one. Being very well disguised, says our traveller, in my Persian dress, I had an opportunity of entering the building unobserved. It is of a square form; in the centre is a stone reservoir of water, made for performing the necessary ablutions, previous to prayer; on the four sides of the building are arched apartments allotted for devotion, some of the fronts of which are covered with China tiles; but Kherim Khan dying before the work was completed, the remainder has been made up with a blue and white enamelled work. Within the apartments, on the walls on each side, are engraven various sentences from the Koran, in the Nushki character; and at the upper end of the square is a large dome, with a cupola at top, which is the particular place appropriated for the devotion of the vakeel; or for the sovereign: this is lined throughout with white marble, ornamented with the curious blue and gold artificial lapis lazuli, and has three large silver lamps suspended from the roof of the dome. In the centre of the city is another mosque, which the Persians call the Musjidi Noó, or the New Mosque, but its date is nearly coeval with the city itself; at least, since it has been inhabited by Mahomedans; it is a square building, of a noble size, and has apartments for prayer on each side; in them are many inscriptions in the old Cufic character, which of themselves denote the antiquity of the place.

Provisions of all kinds are very cheap in this city; and the neighbouring mountains affording an ample supply of snow throughout the year, the meanest artificer of Shirauz may have his water and fruits cooled without any expense worthy consideration. This snow being gathered on the tops of the mountains, and brought in carts to the city, is sold in the markets. The price of provisions is regulated in Shirauz, with

the greatest exactness, by the daroga, or judge of the police, who sets a fixed price upon every article; and no shop-keeper dares to demand more, under the severe penalty of losing his nose and ears.

The police in Shirauz, as well as all over Persia, is very strict. At sun-set, the gates of the city are shut; no person whatever is permitted either to come in or go out during the night; the keys of the different gates being always sent to the hakim or governor, and remaining with him until morning. During the night, three tablas, or drums, are beaten at three different times; the first at eight o'clock, the second at nine, and the third at half past ten. After the third tabla has sounded, all persons whatsoever found in the streets by the daroga, or judge of the police, or by any of his people, are instantly taken up, and conveyed to a place of confinement, where they are detained until next morning, when they are carried before the hakim; and if they cannot give a very good account of themselves, are punished, either by the bastinado or a fine.

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 chimneys, 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.

Tauris, or Tebriz, the chief city of Aderbeitzan, was formerly the capital of Persia, and is said to contain 300 caravanserais, or inns, and 250 mosques. The number of inhabitants was estimated by Chardin at 550,000, besides a multitude of strangers who resorted thither from all parts of Asia. The bazars, or market-places, are particularly grand and spacious; and it is said that the great square has held 30,000 men drawn up in order of battle. The finest Persian turbans are made in this city; and its trade, which is very great in cloth, cotton, silks, gold and silver brocades, and shagreen leather, extends not only all over Persia, but into Turkey, Russia, Tartary, and the East Indies.

The cities of Ormus and Gombroon, on the narrow part of the Persian Gulf, were formerly places of great commerce and importance. The English, and other Europeans, have factories at Gombroon, where they trade with the Persians, Arabians, Banyans, Armenians, Turks, and Tartars, who come hither with the caravans, which set out from various inland cities of Asia, under the convoy of guards.

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 show; and yet they are ignorant of painting, and their drawings are very rude. Their dyeing 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 with the English and other nations, by the Gulf of Ormus at Gombroon, was the most gainful they had; but the perpetual wars they have been engaged in have ruined their commerce. The great scheme of the English in trading with the Persians through Russia promised great advantages to both nations, but it answered the expectations of neither. The court of Petersburg probably is not fond of suffering the English to establish themselves upon the Caspian Sea, the navigation of which is now possessed by the Russians. The Caspian Sea is about 680 miles long, and 260 broad in the widest part; it has no tide, but is navigable by vessels drawing from nine to ten feet water, with several good ports. The Russian ports are Kislar and Gurief. Derbent and Niezabad belong to Persia, as also Einzellee and Astrabad, with Baku, the most commodious haven in this sea, and which has a fortress surrounded with high walls. As the manufactures and silk of Ghilan are esteemed the best in Persia, Reschd on the Caspian is one of the first commercial towns in this part of Asia, and supplies the bordering provinces with European merchandise.

CONSTITUTION, GOVERNMENT, AND LAWS.] 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 Mahomedan kings of Persia are almost incredible, especially during the last two centuries. The reason given to the Christian ambassadors, by Shah Abbas, one of their most celebrated princes, was, that the Persians were such brutes, and so insensible by nature, that they could not be governed without the exercise of exemplary cruelties. But this was only a wretched and ill-grounded apology for his own barbarity. The favourites of the prince, female as well as male, are his only counsellors, and the smallest disobedience to their will is attended with immediate death. The Persians have no degrees of nobility, so that the respect due to every man on account of his high station expires with himself. The king has been known to prefer a younger son to his throne, by putting out the eyes of the elder brother.

The laws of Persia, where the will of the sovereign does not interfere, are, like those of other Mahomedan countries, founded on the Koran. Civil matters are all determined by the *câzi*, and ecclesiastical ones (particularly divorces) by the *sheik al scellaum*, or head of the faith, an office answering to that of Mufti in Turkey. Justice is administered in Persia in a very summary manner; the sentence, whatever it may be, being always put into execution on the spot. Theft is generally punished with the loss of nose and ears; robbing on the road, by ripping up the belly of the criminal, in which situation he is exposed upon a gibbet in one of the most public parts of the city, and there left until he expires in torment: a dreadful punishment, but it renders robberies in Persia very uncommon. The punishments in this country are so varied and cruel, that humanity shudders at them.

REVENUES.] The king claims one third of the cattle, corn, and fruits, of his subjects, and likewise a third of silk and cotton. No rank or condition of Persians is exempted from severe taxations and services. The governors of provinces have particular lands assigned to them for maintaining their retinues and troops; and the crown lands defray the expenses of the court, king's household, and great officers of state. The water that is let into fields and gardens is subject to a tax; and foreigners, who are not Mahomedans, pay each a ducat a head.

MILITARY FORCE.] 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 into the field, even under Kouli Khan, did not exceed 60,000: but, according to the modern histories of Persia, they are easily recruited in case of a defeat. The Persians have few fortified towns; nor had they any ships of war, until Kouli Khan built some armed vessels; but since his death we hear no more of their fleet.

ARMS AND TITLES.] The arms of the Persian monarch are a lion couchant, looking at the rising sun. His title is Shah, or Sovereign; Khan, and Sultan, which he assumes likewise, are Tartar titles. To acts of state the Persian monarch does not subscribe his name; but the grant runs in this manner: "This act is given by him whom the universe obeys."

RELIGION.] The Persians are Mahomedans 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 Brahmin superstitions. A comparison may be made between the Brahmins and the Persian *Guebres* or *Gaurs*, who pretend to be the disciples and successors of the ancient Magi, the followers of Zoroaster. That both of them held originally pure and simple ideas of a Supreme Being, may be easily proved: but the Indian Brahmins and Perses accuse the Gaurs, who still worship the fire, of having sensualised 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 devotions of the Guebres. This ground is impregnated with inflammatory substances, 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 of a large hollow cane stuck into the ground, resembling a lamp burning with very pure spirits. The Mahomedans are the declared enemies of the Gaurs, who were banished out of Persia by Shah Abbas. Their sect, however, is said to be numerous, though tolerated in very few places.

The long wars between the Persians and the Romans seem early to have driven the ancient Christians into Persia and the neighbouring countries. Even to this day, many sects are found that evidently have Christianity for the ground-work of their religion. Some of them, called *Sonssees*, 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 Mahomedanism; and are numerous towards the Persian Gulf. The Armenian and Georgian Christians are very numerous in Persia.

The Persians observe the fast during the month of Ramazan (the 9th month of the Mahomedan year) with great strictness and severity.

About an hour before day-light, they eat a meal which is called *Sehre*, and from that time until the next evening at sun-set they neither eat nor drink of any thing whatever. If, in the course of the day, the smoke of a calean, or the smallest drop of water, should reach their lips, the fast is in consequence deemed broken, and of no avail. From sun-set until the next morning they are allowed to refresh themselves. This fast, when the month Ramazan falls in the middle of summer, as it sometimes must do (the Mohamedan year being lunar), is extremely severe, especially to those who are obliged by their occupations to go about during the day-time; and is still rendered more so, as there are also several nights during its continuance which they are enjoined to spend in prayer. The Persians particularly observe two; the one being that in which their prophet Ali died, from a wound which he received from the hands of an assassin, three days before; which night is the 21st of Ramazan, the day of which is called by the natives the Day of Murder. The other is the night of the 23d, in which they affirm that the Koran was brought down from heaven by the hands of the angel Gabriel, and delivered to their prophet Mahomed: wherefore it is denominated the Night of Power.

[LITERATURE.] The Persians, in ancient times, were famous for polite literature, and their poets renowned all over the East. There is a manuscript at Oxford, containing the lives of a hundred and thirty-five of the finest Persian poets. Ferdusi and Sadi were among the most celebrated. The former comprised the history of Persia in a series of epic poems, which employed him for near thirty years, and which are said by Mr. Jones to be "a glorious monument of eastern genius and learning." Sadi was a native of Shirauz, and flourished in the thirteenth century, and wrote many elegant pieces both in prose and in verse. Shemseddin was one of the most eminent lyric poets that Asia has produced; and Nakhsheb wrote in Persian a book called the *Tales of a Parrot*, not unlike the *Decameron* of Boccace. Jami was a most animated and elegant poet, who flourished in the middle of the fifteenth century, and whose beautiful compositions, on a great variety of subjects, are preserved at Oxford in twenty-two volumes. Hariri composed, in a rich, elegant, and flowery style, a moral work, in fifty dissertations, on the changes of fortune, and the various conditions of human life, interspersed with a number of agreeable adventures, and several fine pieces of poetry.

Of the sprightly and voluptuous bard of Shirauz, the name and character are sufficiently known to orientalisks. It may, however, excite the curiosity of the English reader, that the poet Hafez, here introduced to his notice, conciliated the favour of an offended emperor, by the delicacy of his wit, and elegance of his verses; that the most powerful monarchs of the East sought in vain to draw him from the enjoyment of literary retirement, and to purchase the praises of his Muse by all the honours and splendor of a court; and that his works were not only the admiration of the jovial and the gay, but the manual of mystic piety to the superstitious Mahomedan; the oracle which, like the *Sortes Virgiliانا*, determined the councils of the wise, and prognosticated the fate of armies and of states. Seventeen odes have already been translated into English by Mr. Not, with which he has published the originals, for the purpose of promoting the study of the Persian language. The 21st ode has also appeared in an English dress, by the elegant pen of sir William Jones.

The tomb of this celebrated and deservedly admired poet stands about

two miles distant from the walls of the city of Shirauz on the north-east side. It is placed in a large garden, and under the shade of some cypress trees of extraordinary size and beauty; it is composed of fine white marble from Tauris, eight feet in length and four in breadth. This was built by Kerim Khan, and covers the original one. On the top and sides of the tomb are select pieces from the poet's own works, most beautifully cut in the Persian Nustaleek character. During the spring and summer season, the inhabitants visit here, and amuse themselves with smoking, playing at chess and other games, reading also the works of Hafez, who is in greater esteem with them than any other of their poets; and they venerate him almost to adoration, never speaking of him but in the highest terms of rapture and enthusiasm. A most elegant copy of his works is kept upon the tomb, for the purpose, and the inspection of all who go there. The principal youth of the city assemble here; and show every possible mark of respect for their favourite poet, making plentiful libations of the delicious wine of Shirauz to his memory. Close by the garden runs the stream of Rocnabad, so celebrated in the works of Hafez, and within a small distance is the sweet bower of Mosellay.

At present learning is at a very low ebb among the Persians. Their boasted skill in astronomy is now reduced to a mere smattering in that science, and terminates in judicial astrology; so that no people in the world are more superstitious than the Persians. The learned profession in greatest esteem among them is that of medicine; which is at perpetual variance with astrology, because every dose must be in the lucky hour fixed by the astrologer; which often defeats the ends of the prescriptions. 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. The plague is but little known in this country; and almost equally rare are many other diseases that are fatal in other places; such as the gout, the stone, the small-pox, consumptions, and apoplexies. The Persian practice of physic is therefore pretty much circumscribed, and they are very ignorant in surgery, which is exercised by barbers, whose chief knowledge of it is in letting blood; for they trust the healing of green wounds to the excellency of the air, and the good habit of the patient's body.

LANGUAGE.] The common people, especially towards the southern coasts of the Caspian Sea, speak the Turkish; and the Arabic probably introduced into Persia under the caliphate, when learning flourished in those countries. Many of the learned Persians have written in the Arabic, and people of quality have adopted it as a modish language, as we do the French. The pure Persic is said to be spoken in the southern parts, on the coast of the Persian Gulf, and in Ispahan; but many of the provinces speak a barbarous mixture of the Turkish, Russian, and other languages.

The Persians write like the Hebrews, from the right to the left; are neat in their seals and materials for writing, and wonderfully expeditious in the art. The number of people employed on their manuscripts (for no printing is allowed there) is incredible.

The Lord's prayer in Persian is as follows; *Ei Padere ma kib der osmoni; pac basched mam tu; bay ayed padeschabi tu; schwad chwaaste tu benzjundaukib der osmon niz derzemîn; bêh mara jmrouz nân kef af rouz mara; wadargusar mara kondhon ma zjunaukihma uiz mig sarim orman mara; wador ozmagisch mineddazmara; likin chalus kun mara ez efcherrir. Amen.*

ANTIQUITIES.] The monuments of antiquity in Persia are more celebrated for their magnificence and expense, than their beauty or taste. No more than nineteen columns, which formerly belonged to the famous palace of Persepolis, are now remaining. Each is about fifteen feet high, and composed of excellent Parian marble. The ruins of other ancient buildings are found in many parts of Persia but they are void of that elegance and beauty 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 monuments 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.

HISTORY.] The Persian empire succeeded the Assyrian or Babylonian. 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. Alexander's empire was divided among his great general officers, whose descendants, in less than three centuries, were conquered by the Romans. The latter, however, never fully subdued Persia; and the natives had princes of their own, from Arsaces, called Arsacides, who more than once defeated the Roman legions. The successors of those princes survived the Roman empire itself, but were subdued by the famous Timur-Leng, or Tamerlane, whose posterity were supplanted by a doctor of law, the ancestor of the Sefi or Sophi family, and who pretended to be descended from Mahomed himself. His successors, from him sometimes called Sophis, 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 a disrepute with their subjects, barbarous as they were, that Hussein, a prince of the Sefi 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 Thamas, the representative of the Sefi family, had escaped from the rebels, and, assembling an army, took into his service Nadir Shah, who defeated and killed Esref, and re-annexed to the Persian monarchy all the places dismembered from it by the Turks and Tartars during their late rebellions. At last the secret ambition of Nadir broke out; and after assuming the name of Thamas Kouli Khan, 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. He made an expedition into Hindoostan, from which country he carried off an amazing booty in money, precious stones, and other valuables; but it has been remarked, that he brought back an inconsiderable part of his plunder from India, losing great part of it upon his return by the Mahrattas and accidents. He next conquered Usbec Tartary; but was not so successful against the Daghistan Tartars, whose country he found to be inaccessible. He vanquished 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, and particularly his attempt

to change the religion of Persia to that of Omar, and strangling the chief priests who resisted, that it was thought his brain was disordered; 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; and it may naturally be supposed, that a chronological and accurate account of these various and rapid revolutions is very difficult to be obtained. The confusion which prevailed through the whole country, from the death of Nadir, until the settlement of Kerim Khan, prevented all attempts of literature, arts, and sciences. During this interval, the whole empire of Persia was in arms, and rent by commotions; different parties in different provinces of the kingdom struggling for power, and each endeavouring to render himself independent of the other, torrents of blood were shed, and the most shocking crimes were committed with impunity. The whole face of the country, from Gombroon to Russia, presents to the view thousands of instances of the misery and devastation which has been occasioned by these commotions.

From the accounts we have been able to collect, the number of pretenders to the throne of Persia, from the death of Nadir Shah until the final establishment of Kerim Khan's government, was no less than nine, including himself. Kerim Khan Zund was a most favourite officer of Nadir Shah, and at the time of his death was in the southern provinces; Shirauz and other places had declared for him. He found means, at last, after various encounters with doubtful success, completely to subdue all his rivals; and finally to establish himself as ruler of all Persia. He was in power about thirty years, the latter part of which he governed Persia under the appellation of Vakeel, or regent; for he never would receive the title of Shah. He made Shirauz the chief city of his residence, in gratitude for the assistance he had received from its inhabitants, and those of the southern provinces. He died in the year 1779, in the eightieth year of his age, regretted by all his subjects, who esteemed and honoured him as the glory of Persia. His character is most deservedly celebrated for the public buildings which he erected, and the excellent police which he maintained; so that, during his whole reign, there was not in Shirauz a single riot productive of bloodshed: besides these merits, his aversion to severe punishments, his liberality and kindness to the poor, his toleration of people of different persuasions, his partiality for Europeans, and his encouragement of trade, together with his great military abilities and personal courage, rendered him not only beloved by his own subjects, but greatly respected by foreign powers.

After the death of Kerim Khan his kinsman Zikea, or Saki, seized the government, but on account of his cruelties was soon murdered by the soldiers, who raised Abul Futtah, the son of Kerim, to the throne. He was soon after deposed by his uncle Sadick, who was besieged in Shirauz, taken and put to death by Ali Murad, another relation of Kerim Khan's. A eunuch, however, of the name of Aga Mahmet, or Akau Mahomet Khan, refused to acknowledge the conqueror as sovereign. Ali Murad marched against him, but on his way died by a fall from his horse. Jaaffar Khan, who had been made governor of Kom by Ali Murad, then assumed the regal authority, but being defeated by Akau, the latter retained possession of the provinces of Mazanderan and Ghilan, as well as the cities of Ispahan, Hamadan, and Tauris, where he was acknowledged as sovereign. Jaaffar Khan held possession of the city of Shirauz, and the provinces or districts of Bea-

boon and Shuster : he also received an annual present from the province of Carmania, and another from the city of Yezd : Abushehr and Lar also send him tribute. The southern provinces are in general more fruitful than those to the northward, they not having been so frequently the scenes of action during the late revolutions.

In 1792, however, Akau Mahomed Khan assembled an army, and advanced against Jaaffar Khan, who was slain at Shirauz, in an insurrection ; after which Akau became sole sovereign of Persia, except that part in the west included in the dominions of the Afghan sovereign of Cabul and Candahar.

Akau Mahomed Khan, in 1794, was about fifty-five years of age, tall in stature, but of a disagreeable countenance. He is said to possess great art and dissimulation, and equal avarice and ambition. Being a eunuch, he had nominated for his successor his nephew Baba Serdar.

INDIA WITHIN THE GANGES, OR HINDOOSTAN, LATE THE EMPIRE OF THE GREAT MOGUL.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 1890 } Breadth 1550 }	between { 8 and 35 North latitude. } { 67 and 92 East longitude. }	870,910

NAME.] The name of India is derived from the river Indus, and is extended to all countries to the south of Tartary, between that river and China. This region has been divided into India within, and India beyond the Ganges, the former comprehending the northern part of Hindoostan, and the southern, improperly called the *peninsula*, or the Hither Peninsula ; the latter all the countries from the Ganges to the frontiers of China, with the peninsula of Malacca, or the Farther Peninsula.

The name of Hindoostan appears to be of uncertain derivation. It is not a native term, the Hindoos calling their country Bharata. It is supposed to have been given by the Persians, and to have a reference to the river Indus, or Sinde, with the Persian termination *stan*, signifying country. Mr. Fraser says, Hindoo signifies swarthy or black, and Hindoostan the country of the swarthy people.

BOUNDARIES.] This extensive country is bounded on the north by Usbec Tartary and Tibet ; on the east by Assam, Arracan, and the bay of Bengal ; on the south by the Indian Ocean ; and by the same ocean and by Persia on the west.

Grand Divisions.	Provinces.	Chief Towns.	
Hindoostan Proper—Provinces to the N. E. and N. on the Ganges.	Bengal .	Calcutta, or Fort William	} E. Lon. 88° 29' N. Lat. 22 35 English.
		Hoogley Dacca Moorshedabad	
	Bahar .	Patna.	
	Allahabad	Allahabad.	
	Oude . .	Lucknow.	
	Agra . .	Agra.	
	Delhi .	Delhi . . .	} E. Long. 77° 40' N. Lat. 29 15

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INDOO- E GREAT

Sq. Miles.
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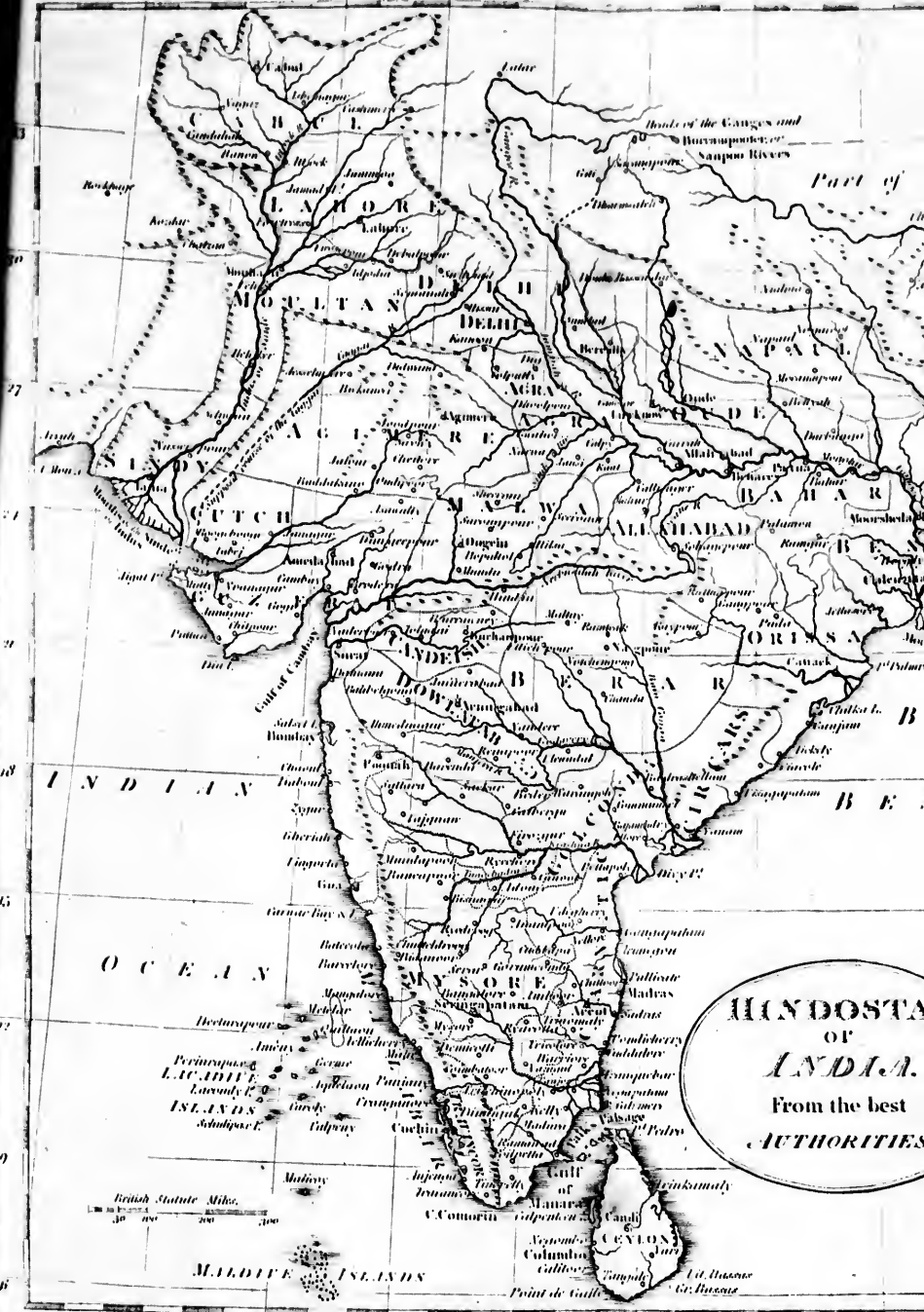
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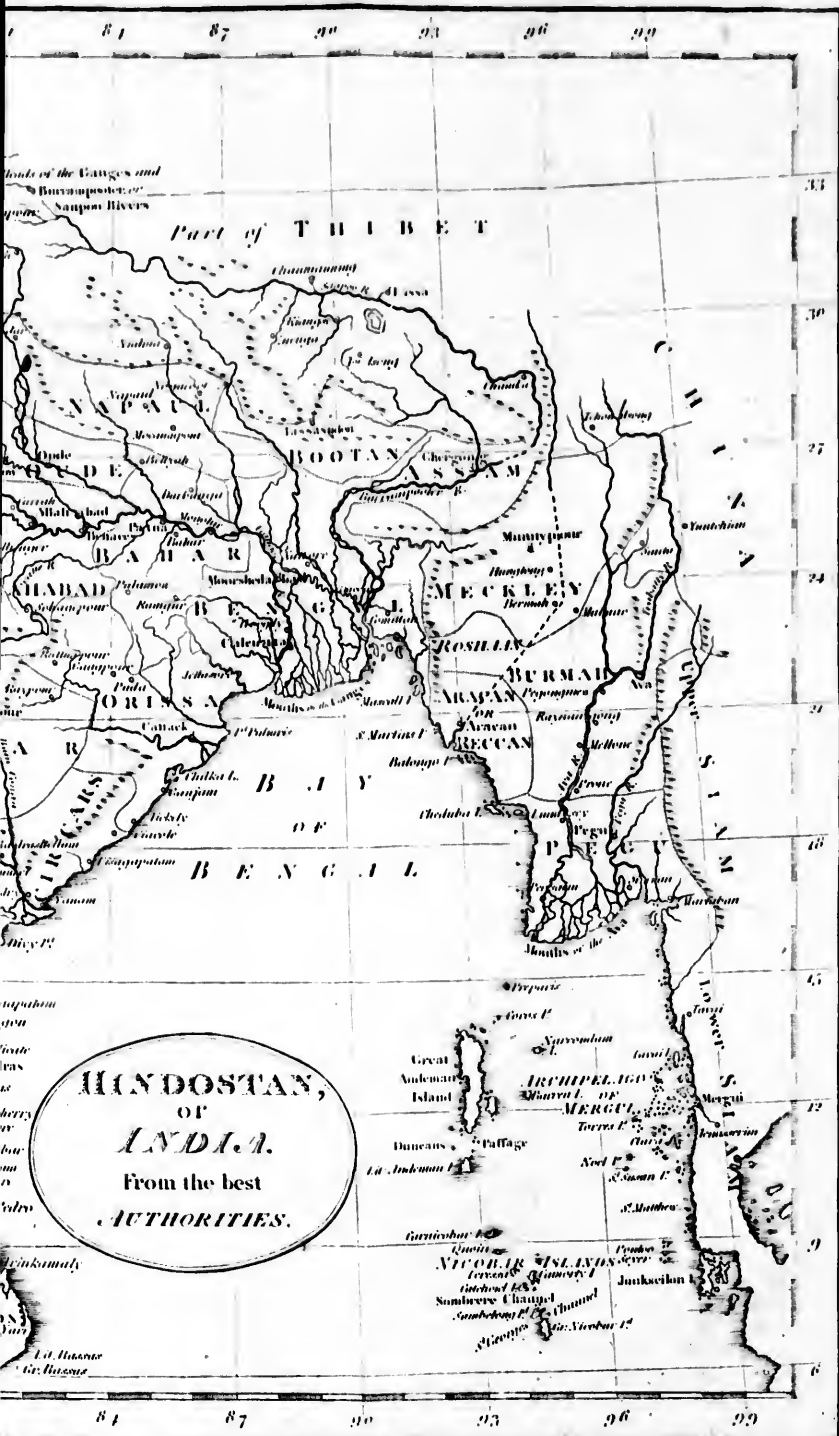
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PLATE VIII.







Part of THIBET

NIPPAN

BOOTAN

ASSAM

MECKLEY

BURMAH

ARCAN

ARAWAC

BECCAN

BAY OF BENGAL

S. MALAKKA

HINDOSTAN,
OF
INDIA.
From the best
AUTHORITIES.

ARCHIPELAGO MERGU

NICOBAR ISLANDS

81 87 90 93 96 99

Grand Divisions.	Provinces.	Chief Towns.		
Hindoostan Proper—Provinces to the N. W. on the Indus. . . .	Cabul	Cabul.		
	Candahar	Candahar.		
	Lahore	Lahore.		
	Cashmere	Cashmere or Serinagur.		
	Moultan	Moultan.		
	Sinde	Tatta.		
	Agimere	Agimere.		
	Guzerat	Ahmedabad, Cambac, Surat.		
	Malwa	Ougein, Indore.		
	Candeish	Burhanpour.		
	Berar	Nagpour.		
Orissa	Cuttack.			
The Deccan,* or southern Provinces of the Mogul Empire	Dowlatabad or Ahmednagur	} Aurungabad.		
	Visiapour or Beja- pour			
	Golconda or Hy- drabad	} Hydrabad.		
	The northern Cir- cars	} Cicacole Vingapatam. Rajamundry. Ellore. Condapilly, Masulipatam. Guntoor.		
Southern Hindoos- tan (im- properly) called the Peninsula of Hin- doostan.	} South- east coast, usually called the coast of Coro- mandel.	Carnada or the Car- natic.	Pullicate, Dutch. Madras or Fort { E. lon. 80° 29' St. George { N. lat. 13 5 Arcot. Sadras or Sadraspatam, Dutch: St. Thomas, Portuguese. Pondicherry, late French. Fort St. David, English. Porto Novo. Cuddalore. Devicotta. Coimbetore. Trichinopoly. Tranquebar, Danish. Seringapatam. Bednore. Chitteldroog. Bangalore.	
		Mysore	Tanjore	Tanjore.
		Tanjore	Madura	Madura.
		Madura	Tinevelly	Palamcotta.
		Tinevelly	Travancore	Travancore.
		Travancore	Calicut	Cochin. Calicut. Tellichery.
		Calicut		

* This name DECCAN signifies the SOUTH, and, in its most extensive signification, includes the whole peninsula south of Hindoostan Proper. However, in its ordinary signification, it means only the countries situated between Hindoostan Proper, the Carnatic, and Orissa; that is, the provinces of Candeish, Berar, Amednagur, Hydrabad, Visiapour, and Orissa.

Rennell's Introduction to the Memoir of his Map of Hindoostan, p. cxii.

Grand Divisions.	Provinces.	Chief Towns.
South-west coast, usually called the coast of Malabar.	Canara	{ Barcelore. Onore.
	The Pirate coast.	The Concan
Bombay :		

The provinces of the Mogul empire were divided into circars, which were again subdivided into purgunnahs, the former of which may be compared to counties, and the latter to hundreds. The provinces are called soubahs, and the governors or viceroys over them soubahdars and navaubs or nabobs.

PRESENT POLITICAL DIVISIONS.] The invasion of the empire of Hindoostan by the celebrated Persian usurper, Nadir Shah (which has been mentioned in the history of Persia), so weakened the authority of the emperor, that the viceroys of the different provinces either threw off their allegiance, or acknowledged a very precarious dependence; and, engaging in wars with each other, called in as allies the East India companies of France and England, who had been originally permitted, as traders, to form establishments on the coasts. These, from the great superiority of European discipline, from allies, became in a short time principals in an obstinate contest, that at length terminated in the expulsion of the French from Hindoostan; and thus a company of British merchants have acquired, partly by cessions from the country powers, and partly by conquest, territories equal in extent, and superior in wealth and population, to most of the kingdoms of Europe.

The Mahrattas originally possessed several provinces of Hindoostan, from whence they were driven by the arms of the Mogul conquerors; they were never wholly subjected, but, retiring to the northern part of the Gauts, made frequent incursions from these inaccessible mountains: taking advantage of the anarchy of the empire, they have extended their frontiers, and are at present possessed of a tract of country 1000 British miles long by 700 wide; besides the territory they acquired from that of Tippoo Sultan in 1792 and 1799.

Hyder Ally, a soldier of fortune, who had learned the art of war from the Europeans, having possessed himself of that part of the ancient Carnatic called the kingdom of Mysore, within a few years acquired, by continual conquests, a considerable portion of the southern part of the peninsula. This able and active prince, the most formidable enemy that the English ever experienced in Hindoostan, dying in 1783, left to his son Tippoo dominions superior in extent to the kingdom of England. Tippoo engaged in two wars with the English, in the former of which he lost a considerable part of his territories, and in the latter his life and the remainder of his dominions, which were divided between the British, the Nizam, and the Mahrattas.

In consequence of these revolutions, the present Mogul, Shah Alum, the descendant of the great Timur, such is the instability of human greatness, is merely a nominal prince, of no importance in the politics of Hindoostan: he is permitted to reside at Delhi, which, with

a small adjacent territory, is all that remains to him of that vast empire, which his ancestors governed for more than 350 years.

The sovereignty of this great country is, therefore, now divided between the British, some nabobs or governors tributary to and dependent on them; the Nizam or Soubahdar of the Deccan; the Mahrattas; some independent rajahs, or Hindoo princes; and, in the north, the Afghans and the Seiks.

The British territory consists of the soubahs, or provinces of Bengal and Bahar, the district of Benares, and part of the soubah of Orissa; the city and district of Cuttack and port of Balasore, lately ceded, after a short campaign, by the Mahratta chief Bounsla; the Doob, or country between the Ganges and Jumna, ceded at the same time by Sindia; four of the five northern circars; the jaghire, or territory of Madras; the territories and ports of Cuddalore, Devicotta, and Negapatam; the island and city of Seringapatam; the late kingdom of Canara, and district of Coimbatore; and the island and fortress of Bombay on the gulf of Cambaya.

The extent of these territories is computed at above 219,000 square miles, or 100,000 more than are contained in the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland; their population at nearly 14 millions of souls; and the revenue arising from them at above three millions and a half sterling.

The allies, or rather tributaries of the British, are the Nabob of Oude, Azuph Dowla, whose chief cities are Lucknow and Fyzabad; and the Nabob of Arcot, or of the Carnatic, Mahommed Ali, whose capital is Arcot, but who usually "resides at Chepauk, about a mile from Madras, in princely state, upon part of the possessions," says Mr. Pennant, "for which the English paid a fine to his predecessors, in acknowledgment of the original permission there to form their settlement." The small states of Tanjore, Madura, and Tinevelly, are dependent on the Nabob of Arcot, or rather on the English.

The original country of the Mahrattas was the province of Candeish, and the district of Baglana, or the north-western part of Dowlatabad, in the Deccan. They extended their territory to the west and south along the sea-coast from Surat to Canara, through that narrow tract of land called the Concan. They are now divided into the Poonah or western, and the Berar or eastern Mahrattas. The Poonah Mahrattas possess the provinces of Candeish, Malwa, and Allahabad; and a great part of Agra, Agimere, Guzerat, Dowlatabad, and Visiapour; the Berar Mahrattas, the greater part of the provinces of Berar and Orissa. Their name is derived, by Major Rennell, from a district called Marat; but even the existence of such a district is disputed. They are Hindoos, and not Mahometans, and governed by different chiefs, the principal of whom are named Sindia, Holkar, and Bounsla. The chiefs of the Poonah Mahrattas pay a kind of nominal obedience to a head, called the peishwa, though they often quarrel with him, and often among themselves, and never are united but by the apprehension of a common danger. The capital of the Poonah Mahrattas is Sattarah, where the rajah, the descendant of their founder Sevajee, is kept in a kind of splendid confinement; for the peishwa is supposed to be only his minister, and must receive his appointment from him. The seat of government of the peishwa, however, is at Poonah, in which city centers the principal wealth of the Mahratta states; Sindia resides at Ongein; Holkar at Indoor; and Bounsla, the chief of the Berar Mahrattas, at Nagpour. The Mahratta chiefs

were they to act in concert, are, it is said, able to bring into the field above 200,000 horse and 60,000 foot.

The possessions of the Nizam or Subahdar of the Deccan (a younger son of the famous Nizam-al-Muluck) comprise the province of Golconda, that is, the ancient province of Tellingana, or Tilling, situated between the lower parts of the Kistna and Godavery rivers, and the principal part of Dowlatabad; together with the western part of Berar, subject to a tribute of a chout, or fourth part of its net revenue, to the Berar Mahratta. The Nizam has the Peishwa, or Poonah Mahratta on the west and north-west; the Berar Mahratta on the north; the northern circars on the east; and the Carnatic and Mysore on the south. I am not perfectly clear (says Major Rennell) in my idea of his western boundary, which, during his wars with the Mahrattas, was subject to continual fluctuation; but I understand generally, that it extends more than 40 miles beyond the city of Aurungabad, westwards, and comes within 80 miles of the city of Poonah. His capital is Hyderabad, or Bagnagur, situated on the Moussi river.

The rajah of Mysore, the descendant of the rajah who was dispossessed by the usurper Hyder Ali, has, since the fall of Tippoo Sultan, been restored to the sovereignty of a great part of the Mysore under the protection of the British. Most of the other rajahs are dependent on some of the other great powers. One of the most wealthy and powerful of these rajahs is the Jyepoor rajah, the head of the rajpoots, in Agimere, who is tributary to the Mahrattas, and who, perhaps, is the prince most capable of effectually resisting their overgrown power, were he not of an inactive and effeminate character.

The north-western provinces of Hindoostan are possessed by the Abdallees and the Seiks. The Abdallees, also called Duranees, from the custom of wearing a pearl in one of their ears, are properly a sect or tribe of Afghans, or the inhabitants of the mountainous country in the north and west of Hindoostan, but the name seems to be applied to the Afghans in general. They possess a territory stretching from the mountains of Tartary to the Arabian Sea, and from the Indus to the confines of Persia. They are a robust hardy race of men; and being generally addicted to a state of predatory warfare, their manners largely partake of a barbarous insolence, and they avow a fixed contempt for the occupations of civil life. The principal cities of Afghanistan are Candahar and Cabul, the former of which was the capital; but the late and present sultans have kept their court at Cabul. About the year 1720 an army of Afghans invaded Persia, took Ispahan, and made the Shah Hussein prisoner. They kept possession of Ispahan and the southern provinces for ten years, when they were defeated in several battles, and driven out of the country, by Nadir Kuli, commonly known in Europe by the name of Kouli Khan. After Nadir had deposed his sovereign Shah Thamas, he besieged and took Candahar; but afterwards received a considerable body of the Afghans into his service, who became his favourite foreign troops. On his assassination in 1747, Abdalli Ahmed Khan, the general of the Afghan troops, though furiously attacked by the whole Persian army, effected a safe retreat into his own country, where he caused himself to be acknowledged sovereign of the Afghan territories, by the title of Ahmed Shah. He was succeeded in 1773 by his son Timur Shah, and he by Zemaun Shah, the present sultan.

The Seiks are a powerful nation, consisting of several small inde-

pendent states, connected by a kind of federal union. They possess the whole of Lahore, the principal part of Moulton, and the west part of Delhi. This tract extends 400 miles from north-west to south-east, and is from 150 to 200 broad; though the part between Attock and Belker cannot be less than 320. The founder of their sect was named Nanock, and lived in the beginning of the sixteenth century. They are the descendants of his disciples; the word *seiks*, in the Sanscrit language, signifying disciples. Their army consists almost entirely of horse, of which it is supposed they can bring 200,000 into the field. The Seiks are now become one of the most powerful states of Hindoostan. Their capital is Lahore.

MOUNTAINS.] The chief mountains of Hindoostan are those of the northern chain, which separate this country from Tibet, and are called by the natives Himmala, or the mountains of snow, with which they are constantly covered. They are the ancient Imaus, or Emodus, a branch of Caucasus. In southern Hindoostan the mountains called the Gauts (though this word properly signifies a pass in a mountain, and not a mountain) extend from the river of Surat to Cape Comorin. They are called the Ballaghaut, or upper Gauts, and the Payenghaut, or lower Gauts. They are in many places a mile and a quarter in height, overgrown with forests, and have their summits frequently covered with snow. At their termination near Cape Comorin, they may be seen nine or ten leagues out at sea.

RIVERS, LAKES.] The Ganges (ganga or river, by way of eminence) is not only the principal river of Hindoostan, but one of the noblest in the world. It issues from Kentsaisse, one of the vast mountains of Tibet, and after a course of about 750 miles through mountainous regions little known, enters Hindoostan at the defile of Kupele, supposed by the natives to be its source. From hence this great river, which the Hindoos hold in religious veneration, believing that its waters have a virtue which will purify them from every moral transgression, flows through delightful plains, with a smooth navigable stream from one to three miles wide, during the remainder of its course, which is about 1350 miles to the bay of Bengal, into which it falls by two large, and a multitude of smaller channels, that form and intersect a large triangular island, the base of which at the sea is near 200 miles in extent. The whole navigable course of this river, from its entrance into the plains of Hindoostan to the sea, and which, with its windings, extends, as has been observed, above thirteen hundred miles, is now possessed by the British, their allies and tributaries. The western branch, called the Little Ganges, or river of Hoogly, is navigable for large ships, and is generally resorted to. The Ganges receives eleven rivers, some of which are equal to the Rhine, and none inferior to the Thames.

The Burrampooter, or Brahmampooter, that is, the son of Brahma, is a river, the extent and importance of which was not ascertained till the year 1765. It is superior to the Ganges both in length of course and in size. It rises near the head of the latter river, in the mountains of Tibet, on the opposite side of the same ridge, and takes its course in a contrary direction, till it is 1200 miles distant from it, having proceeded to within about 200 miles of Yunan, the most western province of China, when it returns again, and joins the Ganges near the sea. During the last 60 miles, before its junction with the Ganges, it forms a stream, which is regularly from four to five miles wide. In Tibet it is called the Sanpoo, and when it joins the Ganges the Megna.

The river Jumma is another considerable river in this part of Hindoostan: it rises in the mountains of Sirinagur, and pursuing a course nearly parallel to that of the Ganges for 500 miles, falls into the latter river at Allahabad.

The Indus, called by the natives Sindeh, is the boundary of India to the west, and gives name to the country. It derives its origin from ten streams springing remote from each other out of the Persian and Tartarian mountains, one of which originates in Cashmere. In its course to the Indian sea, it receives five great rivers, the Behut, the ancient Hydaspes; the Chunab or ancient Acesinas; the Rauvee or Hydrates; the Setlege or Hesudrus; and a river on the west, the ancient Hyphasis. These rivers form the Panjab, or the country of the five rivers. The Indus is likewise called the Nilab, or the Blue River, and the Attock. Its whole course is about 1000 miles.

In southern Hindoostan, the principal rivers are the Nerbudda, which falls into the Indian sea, after a course of about 700 miles, and is considered as forming the northern boundary of the Deccan; the Godavery, which falls into the bay of Bengal, after a course of nearly the same extent; the Kistna or Kreesna, which is the boundary of the Deccan to the south; and the Cavery or Cauvery, which surrounds the city and island of Seringapatam. The two latter rivers fall into the bay of Bengal, after a course of about 500 miles each.

METALS, MINERALS.] The principal of the mineral productions of Hindoostan is that most valuable of gems the diamond, which is found chiefly in the provinces of Golconda and Visiapour, and also in that of Bengal. Raolconda, in Visiapour, and Gandicotta, are famed for their mines, as is Coulour in Golconda. The diamond is generally found in the narrow crevices of the rocks, loose, and never adherent to the strong stratum. The miners make use of long iron rods, with hooks at the ends, and with these they pick out the contents of the fissures, and wash them in tubs in order to discover the diamonds. In Coulour they dig on a large plain to the depth of ten or fourteen feet; near sixty thousand people are employed, the men to dig, and the women and children to carry the earth to the places in which it is to be deposited before the search is made. Diamonds are also found in the gravel or sand of rivers, washed out of their beds, and carried down with the stream. The river Gonel, near Sumbulpour, is the most noted for them. Many other precious stones are found in this country; but there seem to be no mines, either of gold or silver, though particles of gold are found in some of the rivers in the northern parts of Bengal.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AGRICULTURE.] The winds in this climate generally blow for six months from the south, and six from the north. April, May, and the beginning of June, are excessively hot, but refreshed by sea breezes; and in some dry seasons, the hurricanes, which tear up the sands, and let them fall in dry showers, are excessively disagreeable. The English, and consequently the Europeans in general, who arrive at Hindoostan, 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.

In the southern part of Hindoostan, or what is called the Peninsula, the chain of mountains named the Gaults, running from north to south, render it winter on one side of this peninsula, while it is summer on the other. About the end of June a south-west wind be-

gins to blow from the sea, on the coast of Malabar, which, with continual rains, lasts four months, during which time all is serene upon the coast of Coromandel (the western and eastern coasts being so denominated). Towards the end of October, the rainy season and the change of the monsoons begin 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 English shipping to Bombay, upon the Malabar coast. The air is naturally hot upon this peninsula, but it is refreshed by breezes, the wind altering every twelve hours; that is, from midnight to noon it blows off the land, when it is tolerably hot, and during the other twelve hours from the sea, which last proves a great refreshment to the inhabitants of the coast.

The soil of this country is in many parts so excellent as to consist of black vegetable mould, to the depth of six feet. In Bengal the Ganges annually overflows the country to the extent of more than 100 miles in width, which inundation greatly fertilizes the land; and the periodical rains and intense heat produce an extraordinary luxuriance of vegetation, and render the arts of agriculture almost unnecessary. The lands, however, are tilled with very simple instruments, and the harvests gathered in by the ryots or peasants, who live in the utmost penury and wretchedness, and are allowed for their sustenance no other share of the rich produce of the soil, but some coarse rice, and a few pepper pods.

VEGETABLE PRODUCTIONS.] Large forests are found in various parts of this extensive country, and on the coast of Malabar they consist of trees of a prodigious size. The teek-tree affords a strong and durable timber, which might be advantageously employed in ship-building; as teek ships of forty years old are not uncommon in the Indian seas, while a European built ship is ruined there in five years. The cocoa-tree is remarkable for its extensive utility: of the body or trunk the natives make boats and frames for their houses and rafters; they thatch their houses with the leaves, and by slitting them lengthwise, make mats and baskets. The nut affords food, drink, and a valuable oil. From the branches, when cut, exudes a liquor called toddy, from which fermented is distilled an excellent arrack. The Indian fig, likewise called the banyan, and the wonder-tree, is sometimes of an amazing size, as it is continually increasing: every branch proceeding from the trunk throws out long fibres, which take root in the earth, and shoot out new branches, which again throw out fibres that take root, and continue in this state of progression as long as they find soil to nourish them. Of fruit-bearing trees the number is very great, and the fruits delicious, especially pomegranates, oranges, lemons, citrons, dates, almonds, mangoes, pine-apples, musk-melons, water-melons; and, in the northern parts, pears and apples.

Hindoostan produces almost every kind of grain, especially rice. Among other vegetables are cucumbers, radishes, carrots, yams, and sweet potatoes. The sugar-cane no where grows with greater vigour, or is more productive of its juice, or more capable of being manufactured into finer sugar, than in Bengal. Tobacco, which was introduced into this country about the year 1617, is now produced here in great quantities.

ANIMALS.] Of the wild animals of Hindoostan, the tyger, for his size and strength, may claim the first place; for lions, if there be any, are extremely rare. The royal tyger, as he is called, of Bengal, grows, it is said, to the height of five and six feet, with a proportion-

able length, and has such strength, that he can carry off a bullock or a buffalo with ease. Elephants are here very numerous and large. Here are also leopards, panthers, lynxes, hyenas, wolves, jackals, and foxes, with various species of apes and monkeys, and many beautiful antelopes, particularly that large kind called the nil-gchau. Wild buffaloes are frequent here, which are very fierce, and have vast horns, that are sometimes known to grow to the length of ten feet. With respect to domestic animals, the cattle are generally of a large size, and the sheep are covered with hair instead of wool, except in the northern parts.

Among the birds are peacocks and various species of parrots and parroquets. Poultry in a wild state are found in great numbers in most of the jungles or thickets of Hindoostan. The natives of this country, and indeed of almost every part of India, are extravagantly fond of cock-fighting, and pay greater attention to the training and feeding these birds than we ever did, even when that diversion was at its height.

The serpents of Hindoostan are very numerous, and some species of them are venomous in an extraordinary degree. At Bombay, and near Madras, a small snake is found, which the Portuguese call cobra de morte; it is only from six to nine inches long, but from its bite death almost instantaneously ensues.

NATURAL CURIOSITIES.] Among these may be enumerated the mountains which form the northern boundary between this country and Tibet, sometimes called the Glacieres of India, and which make the most majestic and awful appearance, even at the distance of 150 miles; the ice rises often into lofty spires on the grandest of scales, and the light sides appear stained in the most elegant manner with a roseate colour. At the Gangontra, or Fall of the Ganges, sometimes called the Cow's Mouth, that river, after having flowed through a subterraneous passage, again emerges. Two miles to the west of Gocauk, the Gutpurba river, where it is 169 yards broad, falls perpendicularly down 174 feet; a fall exceeding that of the famous cataract of Niagara, in North America, which is not more than 162, or according to some accounts only 150 feet.

POPULATION.] The Mahometans, or, as they are called, Moors of Hindoostan, are computed by Mr. Orme, a judicious and authentic writer on the history of this country, to be about ten millions, and the Indians, or Hindoos, about a hundred millions. According to other estimates the whole population of Hindoostan is supposed only to amount to about sixty millions.

INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS.] The Hindoos, or as they are likewise called Gentoos, have, from time immemorial, been divided into four great tribes. The first and most noble tribe are the Brahmins, who alone can officiate in the priesthood, like the Levites among the Jews. They are not, however, excluded from government, trade, or agriculture, though they are strictly prohibited from all menial offices, by their laws. The second in order is the Sittri tribe, who, according to their original institution, ought to be all military men; but they frequently follow other professions. The third is the tribe of Beise, who are chiefly merchants, bankers, and banias, or shopkeepers. The fourth tribe is that of Sudder, who ought to be menial servants; and they are incapable of raising themselves to any superior rank. If any of them should be excommunicated from any of the four tribes, he and his posterity are for ever shut out from the society of every person in the nation, except that of the Harricast, who are held in

utter detestation by all the other tribes, and are employed only in the meanest and vilest offices. This circumstance renders excommunication so dreadful, that any Hindoo will suffer the torture, and even death itself, rather than deviate from one article of his faith.

Besides this division into tribes, the Gentoos are also subdivided into casts and small classes or tribes; and it has been computed that there are eighty-four of these casts, though some have supposed there are a greater number. The order of pre-eminence of all the casts, in a particular city or province, is generally indisputably decided. The Indian of an inferior would think himself highly honoured by adopting the customs of a superior cast: but this latter would give battle sooner than not vindicate its prerogatives. The inferior receives the victuals prepared by a superior cast with respect, but the superior will not partake of a meal which has been prepared by the hands of an inferior cast. Their marriages are circumscribed by the same barriers as the rest of their intercourses; and hence, beside the national physiognomy, the members of each cast preserve an air of still greater resemblance to one another. There are some casts remarkable for their beauty, and others as remarked for their ugliness.

The members of each cast, says Dr. Robertson, adhere invariably to the profession of their forefathers. From generation to generation, the same families have followed, and will always continue to follow, one uniform line of life. To this may be ascribed that high degree of perfection conspicuous in many of the Indian manufactures; and though veneration for the practices of their ancestors may check the spirit of invention, yet, by adhering to these, they acquire such an expertness and delicacy of hand, that Europeans, with all the advantages of superior science, and the aid of more complete instruments, have never been able to equal the exquisite execution of their workmanship. While this high improvement of their more curious manufactures excited the admiration, and attracted the commerce of other nations, the separation of professions in India, and the early distribution of the people into classes attached to particular kinds of labour, secured such abundance of the more common and useful commodities, as not only supplied their own wants, but ministered to those of the countries around them.

To this early division of the people into casts, we must likewise ascribe a striking peculiarity in the state of India; the permanence of its institutions, and the immutability in the manners of its inhabitants. What now is in India, always was there, and is still likely to continue; neither the ferocious violence and illiberal fanaticism of its Mahomedan conquerors, nor the power of its European masters, have effected any considerable alterations. The same distinctions of condition take place, the same arrangements in civil and domestic society remain, the same maxims of religion are held in veneration, and the same sciences and arts are cultivated. Hence, in all ages, the trade with India has been the same; gold and silver have uniformly been carried thither in order to purchase the same commodities with which it now supplies all nations; and, from the age of Pliny to the present times, it has always been considered and execrated as a gulf which swallows up the wealth of every other country, that flows incessantly towards it, and from which it never returns*.

All these casts acknowledge the Brahmins for their priests, and from them derive their belief of the transmigration; which leads

* Dr. Robertson's Historical Disquisition concerning India, Appendix, p. 261, 262.

many of them to afflict themselves even at the death of a fly, although occasioned by inadvertence. But the greater number of casts are less scrupulous, and eat, although very sparingly, both of fish and flesh; but, like the Jews, not of all kinds indifferently. Their diet is chiefly rice and vegetables, dressed with ginger, turmeric, and other hotter spices, which grow almost spontaneously in their gardens. They esteem milk the purest of foods, because they think it partakes of some of the properties of the nectar of their gods, and because they esteem the cow itself almost like a divinity.

Their manners are gentle; their happiness consists in the solaces of a domestic life; and they are taught by their religion, that matrimony is an indispensable duty in every man, who does not entirely separate himself from the world from a principle of devotion. Their religion also permits them to have several wives; but they seldom have more than one; and it has been observed, that their wives are distinguished by a decency of demeanour, a solicitude in their families, and a fidelity to their vows, which might do honour to human nature in the most civilized countries. The amusements of the Hindoos consist in going to their pagodas, in assisting at religious shows, and in fulfilling a variety of ceremonies prescribed to them by the Brahmins. Their religion forbids them to quit their own shores*; nor do they want any thing from abroad. They might, therefore, have lived in much tranquillity and happiness, if others had looked on them with the same indifference with which they regard the rest of the world.

The soldiers are commonly called rajah poots, or persons descended from rajahs, and reside chiefly in the northern provinces, and are generally more fair-complexioned than the people of the southern provinces, who are quite black. These rajah poots are a robust, brave, faithful people, and enter into the service of those who will pay them; but when their leader falls in battle, they think that their engagements to him are finished, and they run off the field without any stain upon their reputation.

The custom of women burning themselves upon the death of their husbands still continues to be practised, though much less frequently than formerly. The Gentoos are as careful of the cultivation of their lands, and their public works and conveniences, as the Chinese; and there scarcely is an instance of a robbery in all Hindoostan, though the diamond merchants travel without defensive weapons.

The complexions of the Gentoos is black, their hair is long, their persons are straight and elegant, their limbs finely proportioned, their fingers long and taper, their countenances open and pleasant, and their features exhibit the most delicate lines of beauty in the females, and in the males a kind of manly softness.

Their walk and gait, as well as their whole deportment, is in the highest degree graceful. The dress of the men is a kind of a close-bodied gown, and wide trowsers, resembling petticoats, reaching down to their slippers. Such of the women as appear in public, have shawls over their heads and shoulders, short close jackets, and tight drawers,

* The Gentoos are persuaded, that the waters of the three great rivers, Ganges, Kistna, and Indus, have the sacred virtue of purifying those who bathe in them from all pollutions and sins. This religious idea seems to be founded on a principle of policy, and intended to restrain the natives from migrating into distant countries: for it is remarkable, that the sacred rivers are so situated, that there is not any part of India where the inhabitants may not have an opportunity of washing away their sins.

which come down to their ancles. Hence, the dress of the men gives them, in the eyes of Europeans, an appearance of effeminacy, while that of the women seems rather masculine.

Their houses cover much ground, and have spacious galleries, and accommodations of various kinds. The apartments are small, and the furniture not very elegant, if we except the rich Persian carpets. The grandeur of the palaces consists in baths and harams. The harams or zenanas, that is the residences of the women, are removed from the front of the house, and receive the light only from a square space in the centre of the whole building. The apparel of the women is inconceivably rich; they have jewels on their fingers and about their neck, and also in their ears and nostrils, with bracelets on their wrists and arms, and round their ancles.

The Mahomedans, who, in Hindoostan, are called Moors, are of Persian, Turkish, Arabic, and other extractions. They early began, in the reigns of the caliphs of Bagdad, to invade Hindoostan. They penetrated as far as Delhi, which they made their capital. They settled colonies in several places, whose descendants are called Tytans; but their empire was overthrown by Tamerlane, who founded the Mogul government, which still subsists. Those princes being strict Mahomedans, received under their protection all that professed the same religion, and these being a brave active people, counterbalanced the numbers of the natives. They introduced the division of provinces, over which they appointed soubahs; and those provinces, each of which may be stiled an empire, were subdivided into nabobships, each nabob being immediately accountable to his soubah, who, in process of time, became almost independent of the emperor, or as he is called, the Great Mogul, only paying him an annual tribute. The vast resort of Persian and Tartar tribes has likewise strengthened the Mahomedan government; but it is observable, that in two or three generations, the progeny of all those adventurers, who brought nothing with them but their horses and their swords, degenerated into eastern indolence and sensuality.

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 rude music, both of wind and stringed instruments, and play at cards in their private parties.

The Persees, or Parsees, of Hindoostan, are originally the Gauris, 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. They are known as paying divine adoration to fire, but it is said only as an emblem of the divinity.

PROVINCES, CITIES, CHIEF TOWNS, EDIFICES.] Bengal, of all the provinces of Hindoostan, is, perhaps, the most interesting to an English reader. It is esteemed 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 calicoes, silks, salt-petre, lakka, opium, wax and civet, go all over the world: and provisions here are in vast plenty, and incredibly cheap, especially pullets, ducks, and geese. The country is intersected by canals cut from the Ganges for the benefit of commerce, and extends near one hundred

leagues on each side of that river, and is full of cities, towns, castles, and villages.

In Bengal, the worship of the Gentoos is practised in its greatest purity, and their sacred river (Ganges) is in a manner lined with their magnificent pagodas or temples.

Generally speaking, the description of one Indian city is a description of all, as they are all built on one plan, with extremely narrow and crooked streets, with an incredible number of reservoir ponds and gardens. A few of the streets are paved with brick. The houses are variously built; some of brick, others with mud, and a still greater proportion with bamboos and mats; which standing intermixed with each other, form a motley appearance. The bamboo houses are invariably of one story, and covered with thatch. Those of brick seldom exceed two floors, and have flat terraced roofs, but are often so thinly scattered, that fires, which frequently happen, do not sometimes meet with the obstruction of a brick house through the whole street.

Calcutta, the chief city of Bengal, and of all the British possessions in Hindoostan, is, in part, an exception to this rule of building; the quarter inhabited by the English being composed entirely of brick buildings, many of which have more the appearance of palaces than of private houses; but the remainder of the city, and by much the greatest part, is built according to the general description of Indian cities. Within twenty or twenty-five years, Calcutta has been wonderfully improved, both in appearance and in the salubrity of its air, for the streets have been properly drained, and the ponds filled up; thereby removing a vast surface of stagnant water, the exhalations from which were particularly hurtful. Calcutta is well known to be the emporium of Bengal, and the seat of the governor-general of India. It is supposed at present to contain at least 500,000 inhabitants. Its local situation is not fortunate, for it has some extensive muddy lakes, and a vast forest close to it. It is a modern city, having risen on the site of the village Govindpour, about ninety years ago*.

The city of Calcutta is about one hundred miles from the sea, situated on the western branch of the Ganges, which is navigable up to the town, for the largest ships that visit India. It extends from the western point of Fort William along the banks of the river, almost to the village of Cossipoor, that is, about four and a half English miles; the breadth is in many parts inconsiderable. The mixture of European and Asiatic manners, which may be observed in Calcutta, is curious—coaches, phaetons, single horse chaises, with the palankeens and hackeries of the natives, the passing ceremonies of the Hindoos, the different appearances of the fakirs, form a sight, perhaps more novel and extraordinary, than any city in the world can present to a stranger †.

In 1756, an unhappy event took place at Calcutta, which is too remarkable to be omitted. 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. Holwel, the governor's chief servant,

* Rennell's Memoir. † Hedges' Travels in India, from 1780 to 1783, p. 15.

and 145 British subjects, into a little but secure prison, called the Black Hole, a place about eighteen feet square, and shut up from almost all communication of free air. Their miseries during the night were inexpressible, and before morning no more than twenty-three were found alive, the rest dying of suffocation, which was generally attended with a horrible phrensy. Among those saved was Mr. Holwel himself, who has written a most affecting account of the catastrophe. The insensible nabob returned to his capital, after plundering the place, imagining he had routed the English out of his dominions; but the seasonable arrival of admiral Watson, and colonel (afterwards lord) Clive, put them once more, with some difficulty, in possession of Calcutta; and the war was concluded by the battle of Plassey, gained by the colonel, and the death of the tyrant Surajah Dowla, in whose place Mhir Jaffer, one of his generals, who had previously signed a secret treaty with Clive to desert his master, and amply reward the English, was advanced, of course, to the soubahship.

Moorshedabad, or Muxadabad, is a modern city of vast extent, and was the capital of Bengal before the establishment of the English power.

Chandernagore was formerly the principal place possessed by the French in Bengal: it lies higher up the river than Calcutta. But though strongly fortified, furnished with a garrison of 500 Europeans, and 1200 Indians, and defended by 123 pieces of cannon and three mortars, it was taken by the English admirals Watson and Pococke, and colonel Clive; and also was taken in the following war, but was restored by the peace of 1783. It was again taken in 1793, and remains in the hands of the English. Hoogley, 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 had here a well-fortified factory. The search for diamonds is carried on by about ten thousand people, from Sumbui-pour, which lies thirty leagues to the north of Hoogley, for about fifty miles farther. Dacca is said to be the largest city in Bengal, of which it was the capital, before Moorshedabad. The tide comes up to its walls, and it formerly contained a Dutch factory. The weaving business, the great trade of India, is carried here to a perfection unknown in other parts, and the muslins made here are of most exquisite fineness. The other chief towns are Cosimbuzar, Chinsura, formerly a Dutch settlement, Rajmahel, and Mauldah; besides a number of other places of less note, but all of them rich in the Indian manufactures.

The province of Bahar lies to the west of Bengal; it carries on a considerable trade, most of the salt-petre exported to England being made in it. The capital is Patna, supposed by Major Rennell to be the Palibothra of the ancients, with which opinion Sir William Jones appears to have coincided, though D'Anville and Dr. Robertson thought Allahabad, the capital of the soubah of the same name, to have been this celebrated ancient city. Patna is situate on the south bank of the Ganges, along which river the city and suburbs extend five miles. It is fortified in the Indian manner, with a wall and citadel.

Benares is a rich and populous city, on the northern bank of the Ganges, about four hundred and fifty miles from Calcutta. It is more celebrated as the ancient seat of Brahminical learning, for which it is a kind of university, than on any other account. It contains the remains of many Hindoo temples or pagodas, and in the

middle of the city is a large mosque, built by Atrungzebe, who destroyed a magnificent pagoda to erect it on its site. The zemindary or district of Benares, was a part of the province or soubahship of Oude till 1774, when its tribute or quit-rent of 24 lacks of rupees was transferred to the English.

Allahabad, in the province of the same name, is situate at the conflux of the Ganges and the Jumna, where the waters of the former river, which are every where held sacred, are thought to be peculiarly sanctified; whence the city has received the name of *Allahabad*, or the *City of God*. It belongs to the nabob of Oude, and contains a spacious fort, and several magnificent structures. At a little distance, to the south-west, are the diamond mines of Penna, in the small detached province of Bundelcund.

Lucknow, which is the present capital of Oude, having superseded Fyzabad, is extensive, but meanly built. The houses are chiefly mud walls, covered with thatch, and many consist entirely of mats and bamboos, and are thatched with leaves of the cocoa-nut, palm-tree, and sometimes with straw. The palace of the nabob stands on a high bank near the river, and commands an extensive view both of the Goomty and the country on the eastern side. Fyzabad is of great extent, and appears to contain a great number of people, but they are chiefly of the lowest class; for the court being removed to Lucknow, drew after it the great men, and the most eminent of the merchants, bankers, and shroffs, or money-changers. Nearly adjoining to Fyzabad are the remains of the very ancient city of Oud, which is said to have been the first imperial city of Hindoostan, and the capital of a great empire twelve hundred years before the christian æra; but whatever was its former magnificence, no traces of it now remain. It is considered as a holy place, and the Hindoos frequently come thither on pilgrimage from every part of India.

Agra, situate on the south side of the river Jumna, was made the capital of the Mogul empire, by the emperor Acbar, about the year 1566, and named from him Acbarabad. It was then a small fortified town, but soon became one of the largest and most celebrated cities of Hindoostan, being fourteen miles in circumference, regularly fortified in the Indian manner, with a fine citadel, and containing many magnificent palaces; but after the removal of the capital of the empire to Delhi, by Shah Jehan, the grandson of Acbar, it rapidly declined. To the south-east of the city of Agra is a beautiful monument, raised by the emperor Shah Jehan, for his beloved wife Tajemahel, whose name it bears. When this building is viewed from the opposite side of the river, it possesses a degree of beauty, from the excellence of the materials, and the perfection of the workmanship, which is only surpassed by its grandeur, extent, and general magnificence.

Delhi, or Shahjehanabad, the capital of the province of Delhi, is likewise the nominal capital of all Hindoostan, and was the real one, from 1647, when Shah Jehan made it his residence, to avoid the heats of Agra, till the present dissolution of the empire. It is said to be a city of great antiquity, and that its ancient name was Inderput. It is situate on the Jumna, 117 miles to the north-west of Agra. It is about seven miles in circumference, and is surrounded on three sides by a wall of brick and stone, and has seven gates built of free-stone. Though this city may be said to be now in ruins, it contains above forty mosques, the principal of which is very magnificent, and the

remains of many noble and splendid palaces, with baths of marble. The gardens of Shalimar, laid out by order of the emperor Shah Jehan, though not more than a mile in circumference, are said to have cost a million sterling in rich and profuse decorations, and to have been nine years in completing. One of the quarters of the city has been very thinly inhabited since the dreadful massacre by Nadir Shah, in 1739, in which above one hundred thousand of the inhabitants were slaughtered. The environs of this once magnificent and celebrated city, appear now nothing more than a shapeless heap of ruins, and the surrounding country is equally desolate and forlorn.

The province of Cashmire, 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 one hundred thousand villages, to be stored with cattle and game, without any beasts of prey. The capital (called Cashmere) 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. This province is particularly famed for the beauty and fineness of the shawls made here.

The province of Cabul is diversified with hills, dales, and extensive forests; but the mountains are said to be covered with perpetual snow. The city of Cabul is the capital of the dominions of the Afghans, or kingdom of Candahar.

The province and city of Lahore formerly made a great figure in the Indian history, and is still one of the largest and finest provinces, producing the best sugars of any in Hindoostan. The city of Lahore was once nine miles in length, but is now much decayed. It is at present the capital of the Seiks.

The inhabitants of the province of Moultan carry on an extensive traffic in horses with the Persians and Tartars; the city of the same name is principally remarkable for its antiquity and its cotton manufactures.

Tatta, the capital of Sinde, is a large city, formerly distinguished for its manufactures in silk and cotton; but a plague, which happened in 1699, carried off above eighty thousand of the inhabitants employed in them, and they have since greatly declined. It is still famous for its 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.

The greater part of the provinces of Agimere, Candeish, and Malwa, are possessed by the Mahratta chief, Scindiah, whose usual residence is at Ougrein, the capital of the latter, an ancient and spacious city, six miles in circumference, and surrounded by a strong wall, with round towers. It is situate on the Sepras, and contains four mosques, a number of Hindoo temples, and a new and sumptuous palace, built by Scindia.

Guzerat is a maritime province on the Gulf of Cambaya, and one of the finest in India, but inhabited by a fierce, rapacious people. It is said to contain thirty-five cities. Ahmedabad is the capital, where there is an English factory, and it is said, in wealth, to vie with the

richest towns in Europe. At the distance of about one hundred and ten miles to the south, stands Surat, on the Taptee, one of the most rich and commercial cities in Hindoostan, and containing near three hundred thousand inhabitants, though the harbour is small and incommodious, on which account ships generally receive and deliver their cargoes for the merchants of Surat at the port of Swalley, about twelve miles distant to the north west. The English have a very flourishing factory at Surat.

Among the islands lying upon the same coast, is that of Bombay, belonging to the English East India company. Its harbour can conveniently contain one 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 conveniences of life. The town is about a mile long, and poorly built; and the climate was fatal to English constitutions, till experience, caution, and temperance, taught them preservatives against its unwholesomeness. The best water there is preserved in tanks, which receive it in the rainy seasons. The fort is a regular quadrangle, and well built of stone. Many black merchants reside here. This island was part of the portion paid with the infant of Portugal to Charles II. who gave it to the East India company; and the island is still divided into three Roman catholic parishes, inhabited by Portuguese, and what are called Mestizos and Canarines; the former being a mixed breed of the natives and Portuguese, and the other the aborigines of the country. The English have found methods to render this island and town, under all their disadvantages, a safe, if not an agreeable residence. The reader scarcely needs to 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 Sepoys. The inhabitants of the island amount to near sixty thousand, of different nations, each of whom enjoys the practice of his religion unmolested.

Proceeding to the south on the western coast of what is termed the Peninsula of Hindoostan, the tract that borders on the sea, from Bombay to Goa, is called the Concan, and sometimes the Pirate coast, as it was subject to the celebrated pirate Angria, and his successors, whose capital was the strong fortress of Gheriah, taken by the English and Mahrattas in 1755: by the acquisition of this coast the Mahrattas have become a maritime power.

The island and city of Goa, the capital of the Portuguese settlements in the East Indies, lies about two hundred and sixty miles south of Bombay. The island is about twenty-seven miles in compass; it is one of the finest and best fortified ports in the Indies. This was formerly a most superb settlement, and was surpassed, either in bulk or beauty, by few of the European cities. It is said that the revenues of the Jesuits upon this island equalled those of the crown of Portugal. Goa, as well as the rest of the Portuguese possessions of this coast, are under a viceroy, who still keeps up some remains of the ancient splendor of the government.

The late kingdom of Canara, or Canhara, begins forty miles to the south of Goa, and reaches to Calicut; its soil is extremely productive of rice, and supplies many parts of Europe, and several of the Indies. The Canarines, it is said, were always governed by a queen, whose son

had the title of rajah; but the country was conquered by Hyder Ali; and since the defeat and death of his son, Tippoo Sultan, has been in possession of the English. The principal ports of this province are Mangalore and Onore: the capital is Bednore.

To the east of Canara, on the other side of the Ghauts or mountains, is the country of Mysore, the capital of which, Seringapatam, is now held by the English. This celebrated city, the conquest of which has shed such lustre on the British arms, is situate on an island of the river Caveri, four miles long, and about a mile and a half broad. On the western side is a fortress with regular outworks, and the city contains several magnificent palaces and lofty mosques; for Tippoo and his father were Mahometans, and not Gentoos. The mausoleum of Hyder Ali, erected by his son, is a sumptuous edifice; in the environs are noble gardens.

Though Malabar gives name to the whole south-west coast of the peninsula, yet it is confined at present to the country so called, lying on the north west of Cape Comorin. The principal places on this coast are Tellicherry, an English settlement, in a beautiful situation, and remarkable for its salubrity, whence it is the great resort of invalids; Calicut, memorable for having been the first Indian port visited by the Portuguese under Vasco de Gama, and as the seat of the Zamorins, the sovereigns of the country, who at this period appear to have possessed the whole Malabar coast from Goa to Cochin; and Cranganore, formerly a Dutch settlement, but sold by them to the rajah of Travancore, the attack of which place by Tippoo Sultan, in 1790, occasioned the war with that prince, the result of which put us in possession, by the partition treaty, of the whole coast from Caroor to Mount Dilly.

Cochin is situated on an island separated from the main land by a narrow creek of the sea. It is a rajahship which appears to be dependent upon that of Travancore, which extends along this coast to Cape Comorin. Cochin was one of the earliest settlements of the Portuguese in India. The Dutch gained possession of it in 1660; and from them it was taken, in 1795, by the English, who still retain it.

In the vicinity of Cochin are to be found some thousands of Jews, who pretend to be of the tribe of Manasseh, and to have records engraven on copper-plates in Hebrew characters; they are said to be so poor, that many of them embrace the Gento religion.

Cape Comorin, which is the southernmost part of this peninsula, though not above three leagues in extent, is famous for uniting in the same garden the two seasons of the year; the trees being loaded with blossoms and fruit on the one side, while on the other they are stripped of all their leaves. This surprising phenomenon is owing to the ridge of mountains so often mentioned, called the Ghauts, which traverse the whole peninsula from south to north. On the opposite sides of the Cape, the winds are continually at variance; blowing from the west on the west side, and from the east on the eastern side.

Beyond Cape Comorin, the sea coast extends northerly, with a considerable curvature towards the east, to Cape Calymere, where the coast of Coromandel properly begins. This space comprehends the kingdoms or provinces of Tinevelly, Madura, Maravar, or the Marawars, and Pondiman: The greatest breadth of these countries is about seventy-six miles; the length to Cape Calymere, two hundred and twenty. The kingdom of Tinevelly is separated from that of Travancore by the Ghauts; its extent of coast, which is called the Fishing

Coast, from its valuable fishery of pearls, is nearly a hundred miles. This province and Madura are flat, and extremely productive of rice; abundance of cotton also grows in the drier parts. The principal places in the first are Tinevelly and the fort of Palamcottah, which last has in its neighbourhood a peculiar manufacture of muslin. At Madura various kinds of linen cloths are manufactured. Madura and Palamcottah are garrisoned by English troops; but the revenues of the country are collected by the nabob of Arcot.

Tanjore is a little kingdom lying to the east of Madura; the soil is fertile, and its prince was rich, till plundered by the nabob of Arcot, and some British subjects connected with him. Within it lies the Danish-East India settlement of Tranquebar, and the fortress of Negapatam, which was taken from the Dutch during the war before the last, and confirmed to the English by the treaty of peace: the capital city is Tanjore.

The Carnada, or 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 Kistna, which divides it from Golconda; on the west by Visiapour; and on the south by the kingdoms of Messaur and Tanjore; 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 Arcot, belonging to the nabob of Arcot. The country in general is esteemed healthful, fertile, and populous. Within this country, upon the Coromandel coast, lies Fort St. David, or Cuddalore, 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 which has been repeatedly taken by the English, and as often restored by the treaties of peace.

Fort St. George, better known by the name of Madras, is the capital of the English East India company's dominions in that part of the East Indies, and is distant eastward from London about four thousand eight hundred miles. Great complaints have been made of the situation of this fort; but no pains have been spared by the company in rendering it impregnable to any force that can be brought against it by the natives. It protects two towns, called, from the complexion 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 amend 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. These mines were under the direction of a Mogul officer, who let them out by admeasurement, and inclosing the contents by palisadoes; all diamonds above a certain weight originally belonged to the emperor. The district belonging to Madras, extending about forty miles round, is of little value for its product. 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.

Pullicate, or Poulicat, lying to the north of Madras, belongs to the Dutch. The kingdom of Golconda, which, besides its diamonds, is famous for the cheapness of its provisions, and for making white wine of grapes that are ripe in January, has already been mentioned. Golconda is subject to a prince called the Nizam, or soubah of the Deccan, who is rich, and can raise one hundred thousand men. The capital of

his dominions is called Bagnagar, or Hydrabad, but the kingdom takes its name from the fortress of Golconda. East-south-east of Golconda lies Masulipatam, where the English and Dutch have factories. The English have also factories at Ganjam and Vizigapatam, on this coast; and the Dutch at Narsipore.

The province of Visiapour, or Bejapore, before its conquest by the Mogul emperors, was a large kingdom, the rajah of which, it is said, had a revenue of six millions sterling, and could bring into the field one hundred and fifty thousand soldiers; it is now subject to the Poonah Mahrattas. The capital is of the same name, and the country very fruitful. The province of Dowlatabad adjoins to Visiapour on the north; the capital is Aurungabad, one of the most populous cities of Hindoostan, built by Aurengzebe near the old capital, Dowlatabad, or Doltabad, which has a very strong fortress, seated on a lofty mountain.

The province of Orissa, whence the English company draw some part of their revenues, lies to the north of Golconda, extending in length from east to west about five hundred and fifty miles, and in breadth about two hundred and forty. The greater part of it is in possession of the Mahratta chief, Bounsla; but the capital, Cattack, and the port of Balasore, has been ceded to the English by the treaty which concluded the short but successful war of 1803; an acquisition the more valuable, as it secures a communication between the British territory on the Ganges, and that on the coast of Coromandel.

In this province stands the temple of Jagernaut, which they say is attended by five hundred priests. The idol is an irregular pyramidal black stone of about four or five hundred pounds weight, with two rich diamonds near the top, to represent the eyes, and the nose and mouth painted with vermilion.

MANUFACTURES, COMMERCE.] The manufactures of Hindoostan consist principally of muslins and silks; the shawls of Cashmire are particularly esteemed. The inhabitants, in all handicraft trades that they understand, are more industrious, and better workmen, than most of the Europeans; and in weaving, sewing, embroidering, and some other manufactures, it is said, that the Indians do as much work with their feet as their hands. Their painting, though they are ignorant of drawing, is amazingly vivid in its colours. The fineness of their liven, 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 principal materials of luxury. The greatest share of it is centred in England, the trade of the French with this country being at present entirely annihilated; nor is that of the Portuguese, Danes, and Dutch, of much importance. The exports from Hindoostan are diamonds, raw, and some wrought silks, rice, spices, and drugs.

The Mahomedan merchants carry on a trade with Mecca, in Arabia; from the western parts of this country, up the Red Sea. This trade is carried on in a particular species of vessels called junks, the largest of which, we are told, besides the cargoes, will carry seventeen hundred Mahomedan 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 Mahomedan

junk, returning from this voyage, is often worth two hundred thousand pounds.

GOVERNMENT, LAWS.] The government of the Mogul emperors was despotic, and such is that of the different native sovereigns who rule the country at present. The people of Hindoostan are governed by no written laws, nor is there a lawyer in their whole empire; and their courts of justice are directed by precedents. The Mahomedan institutes prevail only in their great towns and their neighbourhood. The empire is hereditary, and the emperor is heir 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 Timur 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 Mahomed Shah, by Kouli Khan, which was attended by so great a diminution of the imperial authority, that the soubahs and nabobs became absolute in their own governments. Though they could not alter the fundamental laws of property, yet they invented new taxes, which beggared the people, to pay their armies, and support their power; so that many of the people, a few years ago, after being unmercifully plundered by collectors and tax-masters, were left to perish through want. To sum up the misery of the inhabitants, those soubahs and nabobs, and other Mahomedan governors, employ the Gentoos themselves, and some even of the Brahmins, as the ministers of their rapaciousness and cruelties. Upon the whole, ever since the invasion of Kouli Khan, Hindoostan, from being a well-regulated government, is become a scene of mere anarchy or stratocracy; every great man protects himself in his tyranny by his soldiers, whose pay far exceeds the natural riches of his government. As private assassinations and other murders are here committed with impunity, the people, who know they can be in no worse state, concern themselves very little in the revolutions of government. To the above causes are owing the late successes of the English in Hindoostan.

REVENUES.] The whole revenues of the Mogul empire, in the time of Aurungzebe, were computed at thirty millions sterling; which, it has been observed, considering the comparative value of all the necessaries of life, and produce of the soil in that country, may be estimated as equal to four times that sum in England at present.

ROYAL TITLE.] The emperor of Hindoostan, or Great Mogul (so called from being descended from Timur, or Tamerlane, the Mongul or Mogul Tartar), on his advancement to the throne, assumes some grand title; as, "*The Conqueror of the World, the Ornament of the Throne;*" &c. but he is never crowned.

RELIGION.] The institutions of religion, publicly established in all the extensive countries stretching from the banks of the Indus to Cape Comorin, present to view an aspect nearly similar. They form a regular and complete system of superstition, strengthened and upheld by

every thing which can excite the reverence and secure the attachment of the people. The temples consecrated to their deities are magnificent, and adorned not only with rich offerings, but with the most exquisite works in painting and sculpture which the artists highest in estimation among them were capable of executing. The rites and ceremonies of their worship are pompous and splendid, and the performance of them not only mingles in all the transactions of common life, but constitutes an essential part of them. The Brahmins, who, as ministers of religion, preside in all its functions, are elevated above every other order of men, by an origin deemed not only more noble, but acknowledged to be sacred. They have established among themselves a regular hierarchy and gradation of ranks, which, by securing subordination in their own order, adds weight to their authority, and gives them a more absolute dominion in the minds of the people. This dominion they support by the command of the immense revenues with which the liberality of princes, and the zeal of pilgrims and devotees, have enriched them.

The temples or pagodas of the Gentoos are stupendous but disgusting stone buildings, erected in every capital, and under the direction of the Brahmins. To this, however, there are some exceptions; for, in proportion to the progress of the different countries of India in opulence and refinement, the structure of their temples gradually improved. From plain buildings they became highly ornamented fabrics, and, both by their extent and magnificence, are monuments of the power and taste of the people by whom they were erected. In this highly finished style there are pagodas of great antiquity in different parts of Hindoostan, particularly in the southern provinces, which are not exposed to the destructive violence of Mahomedan zeal. In order to assist our readers in forming a proper idea of these buildings, we shall briefly describe two, of which we have the most accurate accounts. The entry to the pagoda of Chillambrum, near Porto Novo, on the Coromandel coast, held in high veneration on account of its antiquity, is by a stately gate, under a pyramid, a hundred and twenty-two feet in height, built with large stones above forty feet long, and more than five feet square, and covered with plates of copper, adorned with an immense variety of figures, neatly executed. The whole structure extends one thousand three hundred and thirty-two feet in one direction, and nine hundred and thirty-six in another. Some of the ornamental parts are finished with an elegance entitled to admiration.

The pagoda of Seringham, superior in sanctity to that of Chillambrum, surpasses it as much in grandeur. This pagoda is situated about a mile from the western extremity of the island of Seringham, formed by the division of the great river Caveri into two channels. "It is composed of seven square inclosures, one within the other, the walls of which are twenty-five feet high, and four thick. These inclosures are three hundred and fifty feet distant from one another, and each has four large gates with a square tower, which are placed, one in the middle of each side of the inclosures, and opposite to the four cardinal points. The outward wall is nearly four miles in circumference, and its gateway to the south is ornamented with pillars, several of which are single stones thirty-three feet long, and nearly five in diameter; and those which form the roof are still larger: in the inmost inclosures are the chapels. Here, as in all the other great pagodas of India, the Brahmins live in a subordination which knows

no resistance, and slumber in a voluptuousness which knows no wants."

If the Brahmins are masters of any uncommon art or science, they frequently turn it to the purposes of profit from their ignorant votaries. Mr. Scrafton says, that they know how to calculate eclipses; and that judicial astrology is so prevalent among them, that half the year is taken up with unlucky days; the head astrologer being always consulted in their councils. The Mahomedans likewise encourage those superstitions, and look upon all the fruits of the Gentoo 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 refinement 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 Hindoostan.

The reasons above mentioned account likewise for their being less under the influence of their passions than the inhabitants of other countries. The perpetual use of rice, their chief food, gives them but little nourishment; and their marrying early, the 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 their women is on decay at eighteen; at twenty-five they have all the marks of old age. We are, therefore, not 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 Persees, or Parses, of Hindoostan, are originally the Gaurs, 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. They are known as paying divine adoration to fire, but it is said only as an emblem of the divinity.

LEARNING.] The Brahmins, who are the tribe of the priesthood, descend from those Brachmans who are mentioned to us with so much reverence by antiquity; and although much inferior, either as philosophers or men of learning, to the reputation of their ancestors, as priests, their religious doctrines are still implicitly followed by the whole nation; and as preceptors, they are the source of all the knowledge which exists in Hindoostan. But the utmost stretch of their mathematical knowledge seems to be the calculation of eclipses. They have a good idea of logic; but it does not appear that they have any treatises on rhetoric; their ideas of music, if we may judge from their practice, are barbarous; and in medicine, they derive no assistance from the knowledge of anatomy, since dissections are repugnant to their religion.

The poetry of the Asiatics is too turgid, and full of conceits, and the diction of their historians very diffuse and verbose; but, though the manner of eastern compositions differs from the correct taste of Europe, there are many things in the writings of Asiatic authors worthy the attention of literary men. Mr. Dow observes, that in the Sanscrit, or learned language of the Brahmins, which is the grand repository of the religion, philosophy, and history of the Hindoos, there are in particular many hundred volumes in prose, which treat of the ancient

Indians and their history. The same writer also remarks, that the Sanscrit records contain accounts of the affairs of the Western Asia, very different from what any tribe of the Arabians have transmitted to posterity; and that it is more than probable, that, upon examination, the former will appear to bear the marks of more authenticity, and of greater antiquity, than the latter. The Arabian writers have been generally so much prejudiced against the Hindoos, that their accounts of them are by no means to be implicitly relied on.

Mr. Dow observes, that the small progress which correctness and elegance of sentiment and diction have made in the East, did not proceed from a want of encouragement to literature. On the contrary, it appears, that no princes in the world patronised men of letters with more generosity and respect than the Mahomedan emperors of Hindoostan. A literary genius was not only the certain means to acquire a degree of wealth, which must astonish Europeans, but an infallible road for rising to the first offices of the state. The character of the learned was at the same time so sacred, that tyrants, who made a pastime of imbruing their hands in the blood of their other subjects, not only abstained from offering violence to men of genius, but stood in fear of their pens.

UNIVERSITIES.] The great seat of Brahminical learning, as has already been mentioned, is Benares; besides which there is an academy of the same kind at Tricium, on the Malabar coast, that is in great repute; and a celebrated Brahmin school at Cangiburam, in Carnate, which appears, from the testimony of Ptolemy, to have existed in the first century of the Christian era, and the members of which are equal in celebrity to the Brahmins of Benares.

LANGUAGE.] The Sanscrit, or sacred language of the Brahmins, is an original and extremely artificial language, compared by Sir William Jones to the Greek and Latin; it is written with fifty-two characters, and abounds in compound words. The languages in common use within the wide extent of this great country, are various; Persian was generally spoken at the court of Delhi; the Devanagari, or Hindoostanic, is spoken at Benares, and has fifty-two characters, with which the Sanscrit may be written. Its mode of writing has been introduced into all the northern part of India. The Bengalese, or common language of Bengal, is a wretched and corrupt dialect, spoken at Calcutta. The Guzeratic is spoken in the province of Guzerat and Sinde. The Marashda, or language of the Mahrattas, is prevalent through all the country of the Mahrattas. The Talenga, an harmonious, nervous, and learned language, which, like the Sanscrit, has fifty-two characters, is spoken on the coast of Orissa, in Golconda, on the river Kistna, and as far as the mountains of Balangat. The Tamulac is spoken in the Deccan, Mysore, Madura, and some parts of the Malabar coast, though there the Malabar principally prevails. The Canarese, or language of Canara, extends to Goa. To these may be added the Nepalic, spoken in the kingdom of Nipaul, on the borders of Tibet, which has a great similarity to the Devanagari. Almost all these languages have their distinct alphabets.

ANTIQUITIES.] Near Bombay are several other islands, one of which, called Elephanta, contains the most inexplicable antiquity perhaps in the world. A figure of an elephant, of the natural size, cut coarsely in stone, presents itself on the landing-place, near the bottom of a mountain. An easy slope then leads to a stupendous temple, hewn out of the solid rock, eighty or ninety feet long, and forty broad. The roof, which is cut flat, is supported by regular rows of pillars, about ten

feet high, with capitals, resembling round cushions, as if pressed by the weight of the incumbent mountain. At the farther end are three gigantic figures, which have been mutilated by the blind zeal of the Portuguese. Beside the temple are various images, and groupes on each hand, cut in the stone—one of the latter bearing a rude resemblance of the judgment of Solomon: also a colonnade, with a door of regular architecture; but the whole bears no manner of resemblance to any of the Gentoo works.

At Ellora, not far from Dowlatabad, in the province of that name, is a spacious plain, two leagues in extent, filled with pagodas, tombs, chapels, pillars, and many thousands of statues of colossal size, cut out of the natural rock, but of bad sculpture, being of great antiquity, and the work of the early Hindoos.

HISTORY.] The first invader of this country, India, whose expedition is authentically recorded, was the famous Alexander of Macedon. Zingis Khan also directed his force thither in the year 1221, and made the emperor forsake his capital. Long before Timur, or Tamerlane, descended in the female line from that conqueror, Mahomedan princes had entered, made conquests, and established themselves in India. Walid, the sixth of the caliphs named Ommiades, who ascended the throne in the 708th year of the Christian era, and in the 90th of the Hegira, made conquests in India; so that the Koran was introduced very early into this country. Mahmoud, son of Sebegtechin, prince of Gazna, the capital of a province separated by mountains from the north-west parts of India, and situated near Kandahar, carried the Koran with the sword into Hindoostan, in the year one thousand or one thousand and two of the Christian era. He treated the Indians with all the rigour of a conqueror, and all the fury of a zealot, plundering treasures, demolishing temples, and murdering idolaters throughout his route. The wealth found by him in Hindoostan is represented to be immense. The successors of this Mahmoud are called the dynasty of the Gaznavides, and maintained themselves in a great part of the countries which he had conquered in India until the year 1155, or 1157, when Kosron Shah, the thirteenth and last prince of the Gaznavide race, was deposed by Kussain Gauri, who founded the dynasty of the Gaurides, which furnished five princes, who possessed nearly the same dominions as their predecessors the Gaznavides. Scheabbedin, the fourth of the Gauride emperors, during the life of his brother and predecessor, Gaiatheddin, conquered the kingdoms of Moultan and Delhi, and drew from thence prodigious treasures. But an Indian who had been rendered desperate by the pollutions and insults to which he saw his gods and temples exposed, made a vow to assassinate Scheabbedin, and executed it. The race of Gaurides finished in the year 1212, in the person of Mahmoud, successor and nephew to Scheabbedin, who was also cut off by the swords of assassins. Several revolutions followed till the time of Tamerlane, who entered India at the end of the year 1398, descending more terrible than all its former inundations, from the centre of the northern part of the Indian Caucasus. This invincible barbarian met with no resistance sufficient to justify, even by the military maxims of Tartars, the cruelties with which he marked his way. But, after an immense slaughter of human creatures, he at length rendered himself lord of an empire which extended from Smyrna to the banks of the Ganges. The history of the successors of Tamerlane, who reigned over Hindoostan with little interruption more than 350 years, has been variously represented; but all writers agree, that they were magnificent and despotic princes, and

that they committed their provinces to rapacious governors, or to their own sons, by which their empire was often miserably torn in pieces. At length, the famous Aurengzebe, in the year 1667, though the youngest among many sons of the reigning emperor, after defeating or murdering all his brothers, mounted the throne of Hindoostan, 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 within 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 in the year 1750.

In 1713, four of his grandsons disputed the empire, which, after a bloody struggle, fell to the eldest, Mauzoldin, who took the name of Jehander Shah. 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 their 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 Shah Jehan. The rajahs of Hindoostan, 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 Shah 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 Mahommed Shah, 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 the Deccan, which belonged to one of the Seyds, who was assassinated by the emperor's order, and 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. He 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 Mahrattas, whom he defeated, when they had almost made themselves masters of Agra and Delhi. 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 Nadir Shah, otherwise Kouli Khan, the Persian monarch, to invade Hindoostan. 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 Shah could have success, and at first wanted to make himself useful by opposing him. The success of Nadir Shah is well known, and the immense treasure which he carried from Hindoostan in 1739. Besides those treasures, he obliged the Mogul to surrender to him all the lands to the west of the rivers Attock and Sind, comprehending the provinces of Peyshor, Cabul, 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 Mogul empire 200,000 lives. As to the plunder made by Nadir Shah, 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 may, the invasion of Nadir Shah may be considered as putting a period to the greatness of the Mogul empire in the house of Timur. Nadir, however, when he had raised all the money he could in Delhi, re-instated the Mogul, Mahommed Shah, in the sovereignty, and returned into his own country. A general defection of the provinces soon after ensued; none being willing to yield obedience to a prince deprived of the power to enforce it. The provinces to the north-west of the Indus had been ceded to Nadir Shah, who being assassinated in 1747, Achmet Abdallah, his treasurer, an unprincipled man, but possessed of great intrepidity, found means, in the general confusion occasioned by the tyrant's death, to carry off three hundred camels loaded with wealth, whereby he was enabled to put himself at the head of an army, and march against Delhi with fifty thousand horse. Thus was the wealth drawn from Delhi made the means of continuing those miseries of war which it had at first occasioned. Prince Achmet Shah, the Mogul's eldest son, and the visier, with other leading men, in this extremity, took the field with eighty thousand horse, to oppose the invader. The war was carried on with various success, and Mahommed Shah died before its termination. His son, Achmet Shah, then mounted the imperial throne at Delhi: but the empire fell every day more into decay. Abdallah erected an independent kingdom, of which the Indus is the general boundary.

The Mahrattas, a warlike nation of the south-western peninsula of India, had, before the invasion of Nadir Shah, exacted a chout or tribute from the empire, arising out of the revenues of the province of Bengal, which being withheld in consequence of the enfeebled state of the empire, the Mahrattas became clamorous. The empire began to totter to its foundation; every petty chief, by counterfeiting grants from Delhi, laying claim to jaghires* and to districts. The country was torn to pieces by civil wars, and groaned under every species of domestic misery. Achmet Shah reigned only seven years, after which much disorder and confusion prevailed in Hindoostan, and the people suffered great calamities. At present, the imperial dignity of Hindoostan is vested in Shah Allum Zadah, who is universally acknowledged to be the true heir of the Tamerlane race; but his power is feeble: the city of Delhi, and a small territory round it, is all that is left remaining of the house and heir of Timur, who depends upon the protection of the English, and whose interest it is to support him, as his authority is the best legal guarantee of their possessions.

* Jaghire means a grant of land from a sovereign to a subject, revokeable indeed at pleasure, but generally held for life.

We shall now conclude the history of Hindoostan with some account of the British transactions in that part of the world, since 1765, when they were quietly settled in the provinces of Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa, and in the Carnatic, not indeed as absolute sovereigns, but as tributaries to the emperor. This state of tranquillity, however, did not long continue, for, in 1767, they found themselves engaged in a very dangerous war with Hyder Ally, the sovereign of Mysore. This man had originally been a military adventurer, who learned the rudiments of the art of war in the French camp; and in the year 1753 had distinguished himself in their service. In 1763, having been advanced to the command of the army of Mysore, he deposed his sovereign, and usurped the supreme authority, under the title of regent. In a short time he extended his dominions on all sides, except the Carnatic, until at last his dominions equalled the island of Great Britain in extent, with a revenue of not less than four millions sterling annually. The discords which took place in various parts of Hindoostan, particularly among the Mahrattas, enabled him to aggrandise himself in such a manner, that his power soon became formidable to his neighbours; and in 1767, he found himself in danger of being attacked on one side by the Mahrattas, and on the other by the British. The former were bought off with a sum of money, and the latter were in consequence obliged to retire. Having soon, however, assembled all their forces, several obstinate engagements took place; and the British now, for the first time, found a steady opposition from an Indian prince. The war continued with various success during the years 1767, 1768, and part of 1769, when Hyder, with a strong detachment of his army, passing by that of the British, advanced within a little distance of Madras, where he intimidated the government into a peace upon his own terms. The advantages gained by this peace, however, were quickly lost by an unfortunate war with the Mahrattas, from whom, in the year 1771, he received a most dreadful defeat, almost his whole army being killed or taken. Hyder was now reduced to the necessity of allowing his enemies to desolate the country, till they retired of their own accord; after which he retrieved his affairs with incredible perseverance and diligence, so that in a few years he became more formidable than ever. In 1772, the Mahrattas made some attempts to get possession of the district of Corah, and some other parts of the province of Oude, but were opposed by the British, who, next year, defeated and drove them across the river Ganges, when they had invaded the country of the Rohillas. On this occasion the latter had acted only as the allies of Sujah Dowla, to whom the Rohilla chiefs had promised to pay forty lacks of rupees for the protection afforded them; but when the money came to be paid, it was, under various pretences, refused; the consequence of which was, that the Rohilla country was next year (1774) invaded and conquered by the British, as well as several other large tracts of territory; by which means the boundary of Oude was advanced, to the westward, within twenty-five miles of Agra; north-westward, to the upper part of the navigable course of the Ganges; and south-westward to the Jumna river.

In 1778, a new war commenced with the Mahrattas; on which occasion a brigade, consisting of 7000 Indian troops, commanded by British officers, traversed the whole empire of the Mahrattas, from the river Jumna to the western ocean. About this time the war with France broke out, and Hyder Ally, probably expecting assistance from the French, made a dreadful irruption into the Carnatic, at the head of 100,000 men. For some time he carried every thing before him; and

having the fortune to defeat, or rather destroy, a detachment of the British army, under Colonel Baillie, it was generally imagined that the power of Britain in that part of the world would soon have been annihilated. By the happy exertions of Sir Eyre Coote, however, to whom the management of affairs was now committed, the progress of this formidable adversary was stopped, and he soon became weary of a war, which was attended with incredible expense to himself, without any reasonable prospect of success. By the year 1782, therefore, Hyder Ally was sincerely desirous of peace, but died before it could be brought to a conclusion; and his rival, Sir Eyre Coote, did not survive him above five months: a very remarkable circumstance, that the commanders in chief of two armies, opposed to each other, should both die natural deaths within so short a space of time.

To Hyder Ally succeeded his son, Tippoo Sultan, whose military prowess is well known. Of all the native princes of India, Tippoo was the most formidable to the British government, and the most hostile to its authority. The peace of Mangalore, in 1784, had, it was supposed, secured his fidelity by very feeble ties; and the splendid embassy which, not long after that event, he dispatched to France, afforded much reason to apprehend that some plan was concerted between the old government of that country and the tyrant of Mysore, for the annoyance of Great Britain in its Indian possessions; but this plan was happily defeated by the French revolution.

The increasing power of Tippoo was not less formidable to the Dutch, than to the English; and the vicinity of Cochin, their most flourishing settlement on the continent of India, to the territories of that aspiring monarch, made them tremble for its safety. Besides Cochin, the Dutch were possessed of two other forts, which were situated between Mysore and their favourite settlement; and one of them, Cranganore, had been taken by Hyder Ally in 1779, or 1780. When the war broke out in 1780 between Hyder and the English, he was obliged to evacuate his garrisons on the Malabar coast, to employ his force in the Carnatic; and Holland and France being soon after united with Hyder against the English, the Dutch embraced the opportunity of clandestinely taking possession, and re-garrisoning the fort; a measure which greatly offended Hyder, and of which he loudly complained. By the mediation, however, of France, a compromise took place, but upon what terms is uncertain.

From the vicinity of Cranganore and Acottah to his boundary, and their situation within the territory of an acknowledged tributary to Mysore (the rajah of Cochin), the possession of them was a most desirable object with Tippoo. In the month of June, 1789, he marched a formidable force towards Cranganore, with a professed intention of making himself master of it, upon a claim chiefly founded upon the transactions we have just related. Unable, therefore to retain the possession of the forts themselves, and fearing for a settlement of much superior value, the Dutch readily entered into a negotiation with the rajah of Travancore for the purchase of them. That politic people easily saw, that, by placing them in his hands, they erected a most powerful barrier, no less than the whole force of Great Britain (who was bound by treaty to assist him), against the encroachments of their ambitious neighbour upon their settlement at Cochin. The imprudence of the rajah, in entering upon such a purchase while the title was disputed, drew down upon him the heaviest censures from the government at Madras; and he was repeatedly cautioned both by Sir Archibald Campbell, and Mr. Holland, his

successor in the government, not to proceed in the negotiation. Such, however, was the ardour and temerity of the rajah in making this acquisition, that he not only concluded the purchase with the Dutch, but even treated with the rajah of Cochin, without the privity of Tippoo, though he was the acknowledged tributary of that prince, for some adjacent territory. The bargain was concluded in July, 1789, though it was not till the 4th of August that the rajah informed the Madras government, through their resident Mr. Powney, that he was on the point of making the purchase.

It was not probable that Tippoo would remain an indifferent spectator of these transactions. He insisted on the claim which he retained over these forts, in consequence of their being conquered by his father, and in consequence of the subsequent compromise. He asserted, that according to the feudal laws, no transfer of them could take place without his consent, as sovereign of Mysore; and on the 29th of December, he made, with a considerable force, a direct attack upon the lines of Travancore. On receiving a remonstrance from the British government of Fort St. George, he desisted, and even apologised. From the 29th of December to the 1st of March, Tippoo Sultan remained perfectly quiet, still asserting his claims to the feudal sovereignty of the forts; but, it is confidently affirmed, offering to submit the dispute to an impartial arbitration.

On the first of March, 1790, the rajah's troops made an offensive attack upon Tippoo, who had continued quiet within his lines from the 29th of December. An engagement took place; and the British government conceived themselves bound to take an active part. No period appeared more favourable to humble Tippoo, if that was the object of the British administration. With all the other powers of India we were not only at peace, but treaties of alliance existed between Great Britain and the two most powerful states of India, the Nizam and the Mahrattas; and both declared themselves in perfect readiness to exert their utmost force to crush the rising power of Mysore.

We shall here present the reader with a brief account of the progress and termination of this war, by which the British power was more than ever established on the continent of Asia, from a narrative drawn up by major Dirom, from journals and authentic documents.

It should be remembered, that the campaign here recorded was the third of our war with Tippoo Sultan. The *first* commenced in June, 1790, and concluded with that year. It was carried on below the Ghauts. The *second campaign* contained the capture of Bangalore, which fixed the seat of war in the enemy's country, and concluded with the retreat of lord Cornwallis from Seringapatam, towards the end of May 1791. The *third* commences almost from that point, and terminates in March 1792. Observing, however, as the author very properly states, that, in the fine climate of Mysore, campaigns are regulated rather by plans of operations, than by seasons.

The narrative commences with unfavourable circumstances; the retreat of the two armies under general Abercromby and lord Cornwallis; the loss of cannon in both; an epidemic distemper among the cattle; and a dreadful scarcity of grain. These evils, however, vanished by degrees; the junction of the Mahrattas afforded a supply of necessaries, and arrangements were made for obtaining in future the most ample and regular provisions of bullocks and grain, and for replacing the battering guns. On the return of the army to the vicinity of Bangalore, the operations began, which were to secure the communication with the Carna-

tic, and reduce the power of the enemy in those parts. The British force was immediately and successfully employed to reduce Oussoor, Rayacotta, and the other hill forts commanding the Policode pass. The next object was the forts to the north-east of Bangalore, which interrupted the communication with the Nizam's army, and with the Carnatic, by that route. These being soon reduced, Nundydroog, built on the summit of a mountain, about one thousand seven hundred feet in height, a place of greater magnitude and strength, was attacked, and after being besieged from September 22, was carried by assault on the 18th of October, in spite of obstacles which might reasonably have been deemed insurmountable.

By means of dispositions made for that purpose, supplies of all kinds now came in from the Carnatic. Penagra was taken at the end of October; and Kistnagheri attacked on the 7th of November; this was almost the only enterprise that was not completely successful: the lower fort and pettah were taken, but the upper fort maintained its defence, and the attack was relinquished. It seems that it could only have been carried by a *coup de main*, which unluckily failed. On the second of the same month, another instance of ill success attended us: the relief of Coimbatore having been prevented, that garrison was obliged to capitulate to Kummer-ud deen Khan, on terms which Tippoo did not afterwards fulfil.

Savendroog or the Rock of Death, bore witness, in the month of December, to the ardour and perseverance of the British troops. This fortress, standing in the way between Bangalore and Seringapatam, is thus described: It is "a vast mountain of rock, and is reckoned to rise above half a mile in perpendicular height, from a base of eight or ten miles in circumference. Embraced by walls on every side, and defended by cross walls and barriers, wherever it was deemed accessible, this huge mountain had the farther advantage of being divided above by a chasm which separates the upper part into two hills, which, having each their defences, from two citadels capable of being maintained, independent of the lower works; and, affording a secure retreat, should encourage the garrison to hold out to the last extremity," p. 67. It is no less famed for its noxious atmosphere, occasioned by the surrounding hills and woods, than for its wonderful size and strength. Hence it derives its formidable name.

The sultan is said to have flattered himself that before this place "half the Europeans would die of sickness, the other half be killed in the attack;" he was, however, mistaken. The garrison, fortunately for us, trusted more to the strength of the place than to their own exertions, and, on the 21st of December, only the 11th day of the siege, this fortress, hitherto deemed impregnable, was taken by assault in less than an hour, in open day, without the loss of a man, only one private soldier having been wounded.

Outredroog, and other forts, fell successively after this brilliant success. The forces of the allies were not equally fortunate during the same interval. The army of the Nizam, after a long siege of Gurramcondah, drew off to join our forces, and only left the place blockaded. To make amends for this failure, the Mahratta army, under Purseram Bhow, assisted by our engineers, took Hooly Onore, Bankpoor, Simoga, and other places. By the latter end of January, 1792, the whole allied force, excepting the Bombay army, was assembled in the vicinity of Hooleadroog.

We come now to the operations against Seringapatam. On the first of

February, 1792, the allies began their march, and at two o'clock on the 5th encamped across the valley of Milgotah, only six miles from the position of Tippoo before Seringapatam. It could not well be expected by the sultan that he should receive so early an attack as lord Cornwallis destined for him. His camp was strongly situated and fortified by a bound hedge, and several redoubts. Nevertheless, after causing his position to be reconnoitred in the morning of the 6th, the commander in chief issued orders for the attack that very evening. The army was to march at night in three divisions, and without cannon. "The plan of attack," says major Dirom, "was indeed bold beyond the expectation of our army; -but, like a discovery in science, which excites admiration when disclosed, it had only to be known, to meet with general applause." The outlines of this great enterprise are generally known; the particulars cannot be detailed in this place, but are related with great clearness by the historian, and so illustrated by the attendant plans, that the circumstances cannot be mistaken.

The result of this operation was, that Tippoo was driven from his camp into Seringapatam, all his redoubts taken, and a lodgment established on the island, in a strong position, where lieutenant Stuart remained posted. All possible preparations were made, from this time, for taking the capital by assault: and they were such as probably would have been crowned with full success. On the 16th of February, the Bombay army, under general Abercromby, after overcoming various obstacles, joined the main army, and remained posted to the north-west of the city.

On the 19th it was stationed on the south side of the Caveri, in a situation that seemed to give the sultan much uneasiness. However, after attacking the advanced posts of this army on the night of the 21st, Tippoo made no farther effort; and on the 24th, when the preparations for the general assault were in great forwardness, it was announced that preliminaries of peace were settled. The conferences for this purpose had begun on the 15th; but the operations on both sides continued till the 24th. After the cessation of arms, which then took place, the conduct of Tippoo Sultan was so equivocal and suspicious, as to make it necessary on our part to renew the preparations for the siege. Overawed, at length, by the firmness and decision of lord Cornwallis, and probably alarmed by the discontent of his own people, the reluctant sultan submitted to all the terms proposed; and on the 19th of March, the copies of the definitive treaty were delivered in form, by his sons, to lord Cornwallis, and the agents of the allied princes.

The substance of the treaty was: 1st. That Tippoo was to cede one half of his dominions to the allied powers. 2d. That he was to pay three crores and thirty lacks of rupees. 3d. That all prisoners were to be restored. 4th. That two of the sultan's three eldest sons were to become hostages for the due performance of the treaty.

Thus ended a war in which the advantages gained by us may be briefly stated thus:—1. Our most formidable enemy was so reduced by it, as to render our possessions in India both profitable and secure. 2. Madras was secured from invasion by possession of the passes, and covered by a territory defended by strong forts. 3. The value of Bombay was greatly enhanced by possessions gained on the Malabar coast, protected by Poligautcherry and the frontier of the Coorga Rajah. These advantages, it may be presumed, far overbalanced the expenses of the war. By a statement of major Dirom, it appears that

Tippoo lost in this war sixty-seven forts, eight hundred and one cannons, and forty-nine thousand three hundred and forty men.

The ambition of Tippoo Sultan was for a time repressed by the victories which had forced him to sign the treaty above-mentioned; and his power diminished by the cessions he had been compelled to make: still, however, he retained the same enmity to the British government, and the desire of revenge, should any events afford him encouragement and an opportunity again to resume his arms. The war which took place between England and France, in consequence of the French revolution, seemed to present such an opportunity, and Tippoo willingly listened to the suggestions of French emissaries, that, by entering into an alliance with that republic, he might receive from it such aid and support as should not only enable him to regain the territory he had lost, but entirely to drive the English out of Asia, and share the dominions they had there acquired with the French.

In the month of February, 1798, a proclamation was issued by the governor-general of the Isle of France, importing that an embassy had arrived at the Isle of France with letters from Tippoo Sultan, addressed not only to the governor of that island, but to the executive directory of France, proposing to conclude an offensive and defensive alliance with the French; to subsidize and to supply whatever troops the French might furnish to the sultan; and to commence against the British power in India a war of aggression, for which the sultan declared himself to be fully prepared. The proclamation concluded by offering encouragement to the subjects of France to enter into the service of Tippoo Sultan, on terms to be fixed with his ambassadors then on the spot. The circumstances attending this proclamation, on inquiry, established the fact, that Tippoo had actually concluded such an alliance as was mentioned in it with the French; and it also appeared that he had dispatched an embassy to Zemaun Shah, the sultan of the Abdalli, the object of which could be no other than to encourage that prince in the prosecution of his long-intended invasion of Hindoostan. The French expedition to Egypt, likewise, in the summer of the same year, appeared to have for its ultimate object the execution of a plan of invasion of the British settlements in India, in conjunction with Tippoo.

In consequence of these transactions, which so evidently menaced hostility, lord Mornington, (now marquis of Wellesley) the present governor-general of Bengal, addressed a letter to Tippoo Sultan, in which he expressed his surprise and concern at the intercourse he maintained, and the alliance he had formed, with the French, proposing to send to him major Doveton, who might more fully and particularly explain the sole means which appeared effectual for removing all distrust and suspicion, and establishing peace and good understanding on the most durable foundations. His lordship, at the same time, expecting but little satisfaction from the negotiation he had thus offered to open, determined to assemble without delay the armies on the coast of Coromandel and Malabar; and directed all his attention to strengthen and improve the defensive alliance concluded with the Nizam and the Peishwa of the Mahrattas. He gave peremptory orders to the government of Fort St. George to complete the equipment of their battering train, and to advance it with all practicable dispatch to the most eligible station on the frontier of the Carnatic, with a view of proceeding towards Seringapatam at the earliest possible

period, if such a movement into Mysore should become necessary.

The letter of his lordship to Tippoo produced no other answer than vague professions of a wish to maintain peace and amity. The sultan, however, declined receiving major Doveton; alleging that no means more effectual could be devised than the treaties and engagements already entered into, to give stability to the foundations of friendship and harmony, or promote the welfare and advantage of all parties.

As it was evident that Tippoo meant only to gain time and increase his strength, lord Mornington determined to avail himself of the superiority of his force, and commence hostilities immediately. He accordingly, on the 3d of February, 1799, directed lieutenant-general Harris to enter the territory of the Mysore with the army assembled under his command; and on the same day issued orders to lieutenant-general Stuart to be prepared to co-operate from Malabar; and signified to rear-admiral Rainier, and to the several allies of the company, that he now considered the British government in India to be at war with Tippoo Sultan.

The army of Bombay, under the command of lieutenant-general Stuart, marched from Cananore on the 21st of February, arrived at the head of the Poodicherrum ghaut on the 25th of the same month, and took post at Seedapoor and Seedasere on the 2d of March. The army of Madras, under lieutenant-general Harris, entered the territory of Mysore on the 5th of March, and commenced its operations by the reduction of several forts upon the frontier. On the 6th of March Tippoo Sultan passed his own frontier, and attacked a detachment of the army of Bombay, under lieutenant-general Stuart, the total strength of whose entire army did not amount to six thousand fighting men. The attack of the sultan's force was sustained by a body not exceeding two thousand men, and the sultan's army was finally defeated and completely dispersed before general Stuart could collect the whole of his divided force.

After this signal defeat, Tippoo retreated precipitately to his camp at Periapatam, and remained there until the 11th of March without making any farther attempt to molest the army. He then returned to Seringapatam, whence in a few days he moved to meet lieutenant-general Harris and the army of Madras, between which and the army of Tippoo an engagement took place on the 27th of March, in which the sultan was completely defeated, and driven from every post which he attempted to maintain. General Harris then proceeded on his march without the least interruption, till, on the 30th, he crossed the Caveri, with his whole army, and, on the 5th of April, encamped two miles south-west of Seringapatam, the siege of which he immediately prepared to commence.

In the afternoon of the 14th of April, the army of Bombay joined the army before Seringapatam. A large body of the cavalry of the enemy, under the command of Kummeer-ud-deen Khan, had attended them closely during their march from Periapatam, but without having been able to make the slightest impression upon them. On the night of the 20th, general Harris received a letter from Tippoo Sultan, expressive of a desire to open a negotiation for peace. To this overture the general answered by transmitting a draft of preliminaries, founded on instructions with which he had been furnished by the governor-general; and which were, in substance, that Tippoo

should deliver all Frenchmen, or natives of the island of Mauritius, or Bourbon, or of any other countries now subject to France, as also all Europeans, natives or subjects of countries at war with Great Britain, to be treated as prisoners of war; that he should renounce all connection with the French nation; that he should cede one-half of the dominions of which he was in possession before the war, to the allies; that he should pay two crores of rupees (above two millions sterling); and that he should send as hostages four of his sons, and four of his principal officers, together with half the required treasure, within forty-eight hours, to the camp of the allies. To these propositions the sultan replied, that they were weighty, and could not be brought to a conclusion without the intervention of ambassadors.—General Harris, considering this as evidently intended to gain time, refused to admit any vakeels, or ambassadors, unless accompanied by the hostages and specie required.

On the 30th of April, the batteries began to batter in breach, and, on the evening of the 3d of May, had so much destroyed the walls, that the arrangement was made for assaulting the place on the following day, when the breach was reported practicable. The troops intended to be employed were stationed in the trenches early in the morning of the 4th, that no extraordinary movement might lead the enemy to expect the assault, which it was determined to make in the heat of the day, as the time best calculated to insure success, since the troops of the sultan would then be least prepared to oppose the attack. Agreeable to this disposition, at one o'clock the troops began to move from the trenches, crossed the rocky bed of the Caveri, and mounted to the assault, in despite of every obstacle which the difficulty of the passage and the resistance of the enemy could oppose. Their impetuous attack was completely successful. Resistance, however, continued to be made from the palace of Tippoo for some time after all firing had ceased from the works. Two of his sons were there, who, on assurance of safety, surrendered to the troops surrounding them; and guards were placed for the protection of the family, most of whom were in the palace. It was soon after reported, that Tippoo Sultan had fallen: Syed Sahab, Meer Saduc, Syed Gofar, and many other of his chiefs, were also slain. Measures were immediately adopted to stop the confusion, at first unavoidable in a city strongly garrisoned, crowded with inhabitants, with their property in ruins from the fire of a numerous artillery, and taken by assault. The princes were removed to the camp.

As it appeared important to ascertain the fate of the sultan, immediate search was made for his body, which, after much difficulty, was found, late in the evening, in one of the gates, under a heap of slain. He had been shot through the head, and bayoneted in three parts of his body, as he attempted to make his escape. The corpse was the next day recognized by the family, and interred with the honours due to his rank in the mausoleum of his father.

The treasure found in the place was immense; a prodigious quantity of grain, and military stores of all kinds, were likewise taken.

Thus ended the power and life of, perhaps, the most inveterate and formidable enemy the British government ever had in Hindoostan. His death has given a security to their possessions in that country, which they never could have had during his life. His territories have been divided between the British, the Nizam, and the Peishwa of the Mahrattas, except certain districts of Mysore, which have been as-

signed to a descendant of the ancient rajahs of Mysore, who is to pay an annual subsidy to the British government of seven lacks of pagodas (or seventy thousand pounds sterling) for the defence of his country. The British possess the fortress, city, and island of Seringapatam.

Tippoo Sultan was, when he fell, about fifty years of age. He was about five feet nine inches high; his face was round, with large full eyes, and his countenance full of fire and animation. In his disposition he was naturally cruel, passionate, and revengeful. It is probable that his abilities have been over-rated, and that he was neither so wise a statesman, nor so able a general, as he has been represented. Though he possessed a considerable share of prudence, and was not, in general, wanting either in promptitude or judgment, he at last fell a victim to ill-concerted schemes, dictated by his ambition and thirst of revenge.

The PENINSULA of INDIA beyond the GANGES, called the FARTHER PENINSULA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 2000 } Breadth 1000 }	between	{ 1 and 30 North latitude. { 92 and 109 East longitude. }	741,500

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 straits of Malacca on the south; and by the Bay of Bengal and Hindoostan on the west. It contains the following provinces and countries.

	Chief Towns.	Length.	Breadth.
		Miles.	Miles.
Assam	Ghergon	260	140
Meckley	Munnypour	350	170
Aracan or Reccan	Aracan	500	200
Ava or Burmah (Empire)	Ava	1050	600
Pegu	Pegu	300	200
Martaban	Martaban	300	120
Siam	Siam or Yuthia	600	220
Malacca	Malacca	560	180
Laos	Lanjan		
Cambodia	Cambodia	400	150
Siampa or Chiampa	Feneri		
Cochin China	Hua	450	100
Tonquin	Cachao or Kesho	350	220

Of these countries we shall give an account in the order they are above enumerated.

The country of ASSAM lies to the east of the northern part of the province of Bengal, and is bounded on the north by Tibet, and on the south by Meckley; its eastern boundaries are not distinctly known. The river Burrampooter runs through it, dividing it into two parts,

of which the northern is called Uttaracul, and the southern Daeshincot; several other rivers fall into the Burrampooter within this country. The products are cocoa, pepper, ginger, sugar, and various kinds of fruits, as oranges, citrons, limes, and pine apples. Gold is found in every part of the country by washing the sand of the rivers, and is one of the sources of the revenue: twelve thousand, or according to some writers, twenty thousand persons are employed in searching for it. Elephants are very numerous in the extensive forests of this country, where six or seven hundred may be taken in a year.

Assam is the kingdom of a rajah who resides at Ghergong, the capital. This city is encompassed with a bound hedge of bamboos, and has four gates. The rajah's palace is surrounded by a causey planted on each side with a close hedge of bamboos, which serves instead of a wall; and on the outside there is a ditch which is always full of water. The rajah's seat is adorned with lattice work and carving; and within and without are placed plates of brass so well polished that when the rays of the sun strike upon them they shine like mirrors. It is an ascertained fact that 3000 carpenters, and 12,000 labourers were constantly employed in this work during two years before it was finished. When the rajah sits in this chamber or travels, instead of drums and trumpets they beat the *dbol* and *dand*. The latter is a round and thick instrument made of copper, and is certainly the same as the drum, which it was customary in the time of the ancient kings to beat in battle and marches.*

The people of Assam are said to be a base, unprincipled nation, who have no fixed religion, though they have some brahmins among them. They abstain from no kinds of meat, but even eat animals that have died a natural death. They are, however, a stout and brave race, and have repeatedly resisted with success the invasions of the Moguls. They display considerable skill in embroidering with flowers, and in weaving velvet, and particularly a kind of silk. Great quantities of gunpowder are made in this kingdom, the soil abounding with nitre, and it is even pretended that the composition of it, and the use of fire-arms and artillery were the invention of this country; an argument for which supposition has been drawn from the code of Gentoo laws, in which the use of *weapons of fire* is prohibited; but what these were does not appear to be distinctly known. It is certain, however, that they have artillery, and are very skilful in the use of it.

Of MECKLEY little is known but that it is a country abounding with extensive forests. It lies to the south of Assam, and extends to the frontiers of China. It is now subject to the Birman empire.

ARACAN or RECCAN lies to the south of Meckley, and was formerly governed by twelve princes, subject to the chief king, who resided in his capital. His palace was very large, and contained, as we are told, seven idols cast in gold, of two inches thick, each of a man's height, and covered with diamonds and other precious stones. The country produces great quantities of rice, cocoa nuts, bananas, oranges, and many other kinds of excellent fruits; but the elephants, buffaloes and tigers are said to be so numerous that many parts of it are uninhabited. The capital, Aracan, stands on a river of the same name, which runs through the city. The inhabitants are idolaters, worshipping images of baked clay. The women are tolerably fair, but the

* Pennant's View of Hindoostan, vol. ii. p. 360.

longest ears are reckoned the most beautiful, and in these they wear many rings. At present Aracan makes a part of the empire of Ava, having been conquered by Minderagee, the present sovereign of that country, in 1783. Pegu is about 300 English miles in length, and 200 in breadth. Its capital, Pegu, on a river of the same name, was, about the year 1600, one of the largest, and most splendid and populous cities in all Asia. The emperor of this country was anciently a very rich and powerful monarch; but about the beginning of the seventeenth century, Pegu was conquered by the king of Ava or Birmah, and the kingdoms united; till about the year 1740, when the Peguers rebelled, and in a few years subdued, in their turn, the kingdom of Ava. In 1754, however, the Birmans, under Alompra, who became their sovereign, shook off the yoke, and again subdued Pegu, which now forms a part of the Birman empire.

AVA, BIRMAH, or, as it is called by the natives, Miama, is bounded on the west by a ridge of lofty mountains which divide it from Aracan; on the north-east and east by China and Siam; and on the south by Pegu. The Birman empire consists of Ava, Pegu, and Aracan, which are now all subject to one sovereign. It is difficult to ascertain the exact limits of this empire, but according to major Symes, in his account of an embassy to Ava, in the year 1795, it appears to include the space between the 9th and 26th degrees of north latitude, and between the 92d and 107th degrees of longitude east of Greenwich; being about 1050 geographical miles in length, and 600 in breadth. The number of cities, towns, and villages, in the Birman dominions, major Symes was assured by a person who might be supposed to know, amounts to 8000; from which the population of the whole empire, including Aracan, may be supposed to be not less than seventeen millions.

The climate of Ava is extremely salubrious; the seasons are regular, and the extremes of heat and cold seldom experienced; at least the duration of the intense heat, which immediately precedes the commencement of the rainy season, is very short. The soil is remarkably fertile, and produces as luxuriant crops of rice as are to be found in the finest parts of Bengal. Sugar canes, tobacco of a superior quality, indigo, cotton, and different tropical fruits, in perfection, are all indigenous products of this fertile country. The kingdom of Ava abounds in minerals: it contains mines of gold, silver, rubies, and sapphires; it also affords amethysts, garnets, very beautiful chrysolites, jasper, loadstone, and marble. An extensive trade is carried on between the capital of the Birman dominions and Yunan in China. The principal article of export from Ava is cotton. Amber, ivory, precious stones, betel nut, and the edible nests brought from the eastern archipelago, are also articles of commerce.

The general disposition of the Birmans is strikingly contrasted with that of the natives of Hindoostan, from whom they are separated only by a narrow ridge of mountains, in many places admitting of an easy intercourse. Notwithstanding the small extent of this barrier, the physical difference between the nations could scarcely be greater, had they been situate at the opposite extremities of the globe. The Birmans are a lively inquisitive race, active, irascible, and impatient; the character of their Bengal neighbours it is well known is the reverse. The unworthy passion of jealousy, which prompts most nations of the East to immure their women within the walls of a haram, and surround them with guards, seems to have scarcely any influence over the minds of this extraordinary and more liberal people. The wives

and daughters of the Birmans are not concealed from the sight of men, and are suffered to have as free intercourse with each other as the rules of European society admit. The Birmans are extremely fond both of poetry and music. Their religion is, in fact, that of the Hindoos, though they are not votaries of Brahma, but sectaries of Boodh.

The emperor of Ava, like the other sovereigns of the East, is a despotic monarch. The prevailing characteristic of the Birman court is pride. Like the sovereign of China, his majesty of Ava acknowledges no equal. There are no hereditary dignities or employments in the Birman government. All honours and offices, on the demise of the possessor, revert to the crown. The titles the monarch assumes in his public acts are, the "Lord of earth and air; the monarch of extensive countries; the proprietor of all kinds of precious stones; the king who performs the ten duties incumbent on all kings; the master of the white, red, and mottled elephants, whose praises are repeated far as the influence of the sun and moon extends."

Alompra, who, as mentioned above, in 1754 recovered the independence of his country, and subdued the Peguers, was a Birman originally, of low extraction, who collected a band of resolute adventurers, defeated the Peguers, and rendered himself sovereign of Ava. He died in 1760, and was succeeded by Namdogee Praw, who died in 1764, leaving the throne to his brother, Shembuan. The present sovereign is named Shembuan Minderagee Praw. He is the fourth son of Alompra, and ascended the throne in 1782.

MARTABAN is a country to the south-east of Pegu, and was formerly an independent kingdom, but now makes a part of the empire of Ava. The soil is fertile in rice, fruits, and various kinds of wine. The capital, of the same name, was once a much frequented sea-port, and one of the most flourishing commercial towns in the East, being situate on a capacious bay, affording an excellent harbour for the largest ships; but after the conquest of the country by the emperor of Ava, he caused a number of vessels, filled with stones, to be sunk at its entrance, so that it is now only navigable for small vessels. The chief trade is now in earthen-ware and fish.

The kingdom of SIAM is rich and flourishing, and approaches, in its government, policy, and the quickness and acuteness of its inhabitants, very near to the Chinese. It is surrounded by high mountains, which, on the east side, separate it from the kingdoms of Camboja and Laos; on the west from Pegu; and on the north from Ava, or more properly from Jangoma: on the south it is washed by the river Siam, and joins the peninsula of Malacca, the north-west part of which 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 in the education of their children. Their marriages are simple, and performed by their talapoins, or priests, sprinkling holy water on the couple, and repeating some prayers. The government is despotic; servants must appear before their masters in a kneeling posture; and the mandarins are prostrate before the king. Siam, the capital, is represented as a large city, but scarcely one-sixth part of it is inhabited: and the palace is about a mile and a half in circuit. Bankok, which stands about 18 leagues to the south of Siam, and 12 miles from the sea, is the only place towards the coast that is fortified with walls, batteries, and brass cannon; and the Dutch have a factory at Ligor, which stands on the east side of the peninsula of Malacca, but belonging to Siam.

The peninsula of MALACCA is a large country, and contains several kingdoms or provinces. The Dutch, however, till lately were, it is said, the real masters and sovereigns of the whole peninsula, being in possession of the capital (Malacca). The inhabitants, in the internal parts, differ little from brutes in their manner of living; and yet the Malayan language is reckoned the purest of any spoken in all the Indies. We are told by the latest travellers, that its chief produce is tin, pepper, elephants' teeth, canes, and gums.

It has been supposed that it is the Golden Chersonesus, or peninsula of the ancients. Its situation is certainly excellent for trade with India; so that when it was first discovered by the Portuguese, who were afterwards expelled by the Dutch, Malacca was the richest city in the East, next to Goa and Ormus, being the key of the China, the Japan, the Moluccas, and the Sunda trade. The country, however, at present is chiefly valuable for its trade with the Chinese. This degeneracy of the Malayans, who were formerly an industrious, ingenious people, is easily accounted for, by the tyranny of the Dutch, whose interest it is that they should never recover from their present state of ignorance and slavery.

Malacca was taken from the Dutch by the English, in August, 1795, before which the latter used to 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 was connived at by the Dutch governor and council, who little regarded the orders of their superiors, provided they could enrich themselves.

The kingdom of LAOS, or LAHOS, formerly included that of Jangoma, or Jangomay; but that is now subject to Ava: we know few particulars of it that can be depended upon. It is said to be immensely populous, to abound in all the rich commodities as well as the gross superstitions of the East, and to be divided into a number of petty kingdoms, all of them holding of one sovereign, who, like his oriental brethren, is absolutely despotic, and lives in inexpressible pomp and magnificence; but is of the Lama religion, and often the slave of his priests and ministers.

CAMBODIA, or CAMBOJA, is a country little known to the Europeans; but, according to the best information, its greatest length, from north to south, is about four hundred English miles; and its greatest breadth, from west to east, about one hundred and fifty miles. This kingdom has a spacious river running through it, the banks of which are the only habitable parts of the country, 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 those of 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 it is very unpalatable and disagreeable to the Europeans. The same barbarous magnificence, despotism of the king, and ignorance of the people, prevail here as throughout the rest of the peninsula.

Between Cambodia and Cochinchina lies the little kingdom of SIAMPA or CHIAMPA, the inhabitants of which trade with the Chinese, and seem therefore to be somewhat more civilised than their neighbours. The king resides at Feneri, the capital.

COCHIN-CHINA, or the western China, is situated under the torrid zone, and extends, according to some authors, about five hundred

miles in length ; but it is much less extensive in its breadth from east to west. Laos, Cambodia, and Siampa, as well as some other smaller kingdoms, are said to be tributary to Cochin-China. 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.

Tonquin is only separated from Cochin-China by a small river ; it produces little or no corn or wine, but is the most healthful country of all the peninsula. Rubies, topazes, amethysts, and other precious stones, are found here. In some places, especially towards the north, the inhabitants have swellings in their throats, said to be owing to the badness of their water. The principal river is the Holi Kian, which, after receiving the Li-Sien, passes by Cachao, or Kesho, the capital, a city which, according to Dampier, resembles in its form and appearance the towns of China, and is considerably populous. The Tonquinese are excellent mechanics, and fair traders ; but greatly oppressed by their king and great lords. The king engrosses the trade, and his factors sell by retail to the Dutch and other nations. The Tonquinese are fond of lacker houses, which are unwholesome and poisonous. The people in the south are a savage race, and go almost naked, with large silver and gold ear-rings, and coral, amber, or shell bracelets. In Tonquin and Cochin-China, the two sexes are scarcely distinguishable by their dress, which resembles that of the Persians. The people of quality are fond of English broad-cloth, red or green, and others wear a dark-coloured cotton cloth.

The government of Tonquin 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 was to have all the executive powers of the government, under the name of Chouah ; while the Bua, or real king, should retain the royal titles, and be permitted some inconsiderable civil prerogatives within his palace, from which neither he nor any of his family can stir without permission of the chouah.

The chouah resides generally in the capital, Cachao, which is situated near the centre of the kingdom. The bua's palace is a vast structure, and has a fine arsenal. The English have a very flourishing factory on the north side of the city.

THE EMPIRE OF CHINA.

THIS empire includes China Proper, Chinese Tartary, and Tibet ; the Chinese emperors of the Tartarian race having, with the last century, greatly extended their authority and influence over the wandering hordes inhabiting the countries to the west of China. We shall treat of each of these divisions of the Chinese empire separately.

CHINA PROPER.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 1450	between { 20 and 42 North latitude. } { 98 and 123 East longitude. }	1,298,000
Breadth 1260		
NAME.] The Chinese call their country <i>T'chong Qua</i> , which signi-		

See the kingdom of the centre, as their vanity leads them to consider China as the most distinguished region of the world, and situate in the middle of it. The name of China (in the east Chin, or Tsin) is derived, by some, from one of their ancient monarchs of that name, who reigned, it is said, about two centuries before the Christian era; and by others, from the Chinese word *chin*, signifying silk.

BOUNDARIES.] China is bounded by Chinese Tartary and an amazing stone wall of five hundred leagues in length, 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 and mountains of Tibet and Asiatic Russia, on the west.

DIVISION AND POPULATION.] The empire of China is divided into fifteen provinces, each of which might, for its extent, fertility, populousness, and opulence, rank as a distinct kingdom. The following statement of the division, population, and extent of China Proper, was delivered to lord Macartney, at his request, by Chow-ta-Zhin, a Chinese mandarin, and is founded on authentic documents, taken from one of the public offices in Pekin.

Provinces.	Population.	Sq. Miles.	Acres.
Pe-che-lee - - - -	38,000,000	58,949	37,727,360
Kiang-nan } - - -	92,000,000	92,961	59,495,040
2 provinces } - - -			
Kiang-see - - - -	19,000,000	72,176	46,192,640
Tehe-kiang - - - -	21,000,000	39,150	25,056,000
Fo-chen - - - -	15,000,000	53,480	34,227,200
Hou-pe } Hou-quang } -	14,000,000 }	144,770	92,652,800
Hou-nan } - - - -	13,000,000 }		
Ho-nan - - - -	25,000,000	65,104	41,666,500
Shang-tung - - - -	21,000,000	65,101	41,666,560
Shan-see - - - -	27,000,000	55,268	35,371,520
Shen-see - - - -	18,000,000		
Kan-sore - - - -	12,000,000 }	154,008	98,566,120
Se-chueen - - - -	27,000,000	166,800	106,752,000
Canton - - - -	21,000,000	79,456	50,851,840
Quang-see - - - -	10,000,000	78,250	50,080,000
Yu-nan - - - -	8,000,000	107,969	69,100,160
Koei-cheou - - - -	9,000,000	64,554	41,314,560
Total	333,000,000	1,297,999	830,719,360

With respect to this statement, sir George Staunton, who compiled the judicious and authentic account of the late English embassy to China, observes, that "the extent of the provinces is ascertained by astronomical observations, as well as by admeasurement. The number of individuals is regularly taken in each division of a district by a tything-man, or every tenth master of a family. Those returns are collected by officers resident so near as to be capable of correcting any gross mistake; and all the returns are lodged in the great register at Pekin. Though the general statement is strictly the result of those returns added to each other, which seem little liable to error, or, taken separately, to doubt, yet the amount of the whole is so prodigious as to stagger belief. It must, however, be recollected, that population in China is not subject to be materially diminished by war. No private soldiers, and a few officers only, natives of the ancient provinces of China, were engaged in the conquest of Western Tartary, or in the Tibet war. Celibacy is rare, even in the military professions, among the Chinese. The number of manufacturers, whose occupations are not always favourable to health, whose constant confinement to par-

ticular spots, and sometimes in a close or tainted atmosphere, must be injurious, and whose residence in towns exposes them to irregularities, bears but a very small proportion to that of husbandmen in China. In general there seem to be no other bounds to Chinese populousness than those which the necessity of subsistence may put to it. These boundaries are certainly more enlarged than in other countries. The whole surface of the empire is, with trifling exceptions, dedicated to the production of food for man alone. There is no meadow, and very little pasture, nor are fields cultivated in oats, beans, or turneps, for the support of cattle of any kind. Few parks or pleasure-grounds are seen, excepting those belonging to the emperor. Little land is taken up for roads, the chief communication being by water. There are no commons or lands suffered to lie waste by the neglect, or the caprice, or for the sport, of great proprietors. No arable land lies fallow. The soil, under a hot and fertilising sun, yields double crops, in consequence of adapting the culture to the soil, and supplying its defects by mixture with other earths, by manure, watering, and careful and useful industry of every kind. The labour of man is little diverted from that industry, to minister to the luxuries of the opulent and powerful, or in employments of no real use. Even the soldiers of the Chinese army, except during the short intervals of the guards which they are called to mount, or the exercises or other occasional services which they perform, are mostly employed in agriculture. The quantity of subsistence is increased also by converting more species of animals and vegetables to that purpose than is usual in other countries. From a consideration of the influence of all these causes, the great population of China, asserted in this statement, will not, perhaps, appear surprising, though it appears from it that every square mile in that vast empire contains, upon an average, about one-third more inhabitants, being upwards of three hundred, than are found upon an equal quantity of land, also upon an average, in the most populous country in Europe."

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, MOUNTAINS.] The appearance of the country in China is very diversified, though in general it is level and most assiduously cultivated, yet, according to Du Halde, the provinces of Yunan, Kocicheou, Sechueen, and Fochen, are so mountainous as greatly to obstruct cultivation; and that of Tchekiang has lofty and precipitous mountains on the west. In the province of Kiangnan there is a district full of high mountains, which are also numerous in the provinces of Shensee and Shansee. These mountains do not appear to be known to Europeans by any appropriate names.

FORESTS.] Such is the industry of the Chinese, that they are not encumbered with forests or woods, 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.

LAKES.] China contains several extensive lakes, as that of Tongtint-hoo, in the province of Hou-quang, more than eighty leagues in circumference, and that of Poyang-hoo, in the province of Kiang-see, thirty leagues in circuit. The lakes of Wee-chaung-hoo and Tai-hoó are also remarkable for their picturesque scenery. On some of these lakes a singular method of fishing is practised. Thousands of small boats and rafts are sometimes seen on them, and in each boat about ten or a dozen birds, which, at a signal from the owner, plunge into

the water, and bring out in their bills fish of an enormous size. They are so well trained that it does not require either ring or cord round their throats to prevent them from swallowing any portion of their prey, except what the master is pleased to return them for encouragement and food. The boat used by these fishermen is of a remarkable light make, and is often carried to the lake, together with the fishing-birds, by the men who are there to be supported by it.

RIVERS.] The two principal rivers of China are the Hoan-ho and the Kian-ku; the former, called the Yellow River, from its discolourment by the mud its waters bring down, has its sources among the mountains of Tibet, and falls into the Yellow Sea, after a course of two thousand one hundred and fifty miles. The Kian-ku rises near the source of the Hoan-ho, and, after passing the city of Nanking, falls into the sea about one hundred miles to the south of the mouth of the Hoan-ho, having traversed a course of two thousand two hundred miles. These two rivers are considered as the longest in the world. There are many other rivers of inferior note in China; but the water of this country is in general very indifferent, and, in some places, must be boiled to make it fit for use.

CANALS.] These are sufficient to entitle the ancient Chinese to the character of a most wise and industrious people. The commodiousness and length of their canals are incredible. The chief of them are lined with hewn stone on the sides; and they are so deep, that they carry large vessels, and sometimes extend above one 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. These canals, and the variety that is seen upon their borders, render China delightful in a very high degree, as well as fertile, in places that are not so by nature.

METALS, MINERALS.] China (if we are to believe some naturalists) produces all metals and minerals that are known in the world. White copper, called by the Chinese *petong*, is peculiar to itself, but we know of no extraordinary quality it possesses. Tutenag is another peculiar metal, a mine of which, in the province of Hou-quang, yielded many hundred weight in the course of a few days. One of the fundamental maxims of the Chinese government is that of not introducing a superabundance of gold and silver, for fear of diminishing 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.

Iron, lead, and tin mines, must be very common, since these metals are sold at a low rate throughout the empire; and it appears, from very authentic documents, that the use of iron in particular was very ancient there: quarries and coal-mines abound in almost every province. Coals are found in great plenty in the mountains of the provinces of Shen-see, Shan-see, and Pe-che-lee; they are used by workmen in their furnaces, in all kitchens, and in the stoves with which the Chinese warm their apartments during the winter.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AGRICULTURE.] The climate of China varies ac-

ording to the situation of the places. Towards the north it is cold, 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. Agriculture, in this country, according to the testimony of all travellers, is carried to the utmost degree of perfection. 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.

VEGETABLES.] Many of 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.

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 qualities of our tallow, and when manufactured with oil serves the natives as candles; but they smell strong, nor is their light clear. Of the other trees peculiar to China, are some which yield a kind of flour; some partake of the nature of pepper. The gum of some is poisonous, but affords the finest varnish in the world. After all that can be said of these, and many other beautiful and useful trees, the Chinese, notwithstanding their industry, are so wedded to their ancient customs, that they are very little, if at all, meliorated by cultivation. The same may be said of their richest fruits, which, in general, are far from being so delicious as those of Europe, and indeed of America. This is owing to the Chinese never practising grafting or inoculation of trees, and knowing nothing of experimental gardening.

It would be unpardonable here not to mention the raw silk, which so much abounds in China; and, above all, the *tea-plant*, or shrub. It is planted in rows, and pruned to prevent luxuriancy. "Vast tracts of hilly land (says sir George Staunton) are planted with it, particularly in the province of Fochien. Its perpendicular growth is impeded for the convenience of collecting its leaves, which is done first in spring, and twice afterwards in the course of the summer. Its long and tender branches spring up almost from the root without any intervening naked trunk. It is bushy like a rose-tree, and the expanded petals of the flower bear some resemblance to that of the rose. Every information received concerning the tea-plant concurred in affirming that its qualities depended both upon the soil in which it grew, and the age at which the leaves were plucked off the tree, as well as upon the management of them afterwards. The largest and oldest leaves, which are the least esteemed, and destined for the use of the lowest classes of the people, are often exposed to sale with little previous manipulation, and still retaining that kind of vegetable taste which is common to most fresh plants, but which vanishes in a little time, whilst the more essential flavour, characteristic of each particular vegetable, remains long without diminution. The young leaves undergo no inconsiderable preparation before they are delivered to the purchaser. Every leaf passes through the fingers of a female, who rolls it up almost to the form it had assumed before it became expanded in the progress of its growth. It is afterwards placed upon thin plates of earthen-ware or iron, made much thinner than can be executed by artists out of China. It is confidently said, in the country, that no plates of copper are ever employed for that purpose. Indeed, scarcely any utensil used in China is of that metal, the chief application of which is for coin. The earthen or iron plates are placed

over a charcoal fire, which draws all remaining moisture from the leaves, rendering them dry and crisp. The colour and astringency of green tea is thought to be derived from the early period at which the leaves are plucked, and which, like unripe fruit, are generally green and acrid."

The Portuguese had the use of tea long before the English; but it was introduced among the latter before the Restoration, as mention is made of it 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 monopolised even by their emperors, is now found to be but a common root, and is plentiful in North 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.

ANIMALS.] The lion, according to Du Halde, is not found in China, but there are tigers, rhinoceroses, bears, buffaloes, and wild boars. A very small breed of camels, some of which are not higher than horses, is found here. There are also several species of deer, among which the musk deer is a singular animal, which is likewise a native of Tibet.

CURIOSITIES NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] Few natural curiosities present themselves in China, that have not been comprehended under preceding articles. Some volcanoes, and rivers and lakes of particular qualities, are to be found in different parts of the empire. The volcano of Linesung 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 mountains present, on their tops, temples, monasteries, and other edifices. 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, though a single arch, and joins two mountains; and some in the interior parts of the empire are said to be still more stupendous. The triumphal arches of this country form the next species of artificial curiosities. Though they are not built in the Greek or Roman style of architecture, yet they are superb and beautiful, and erected to the memory of their great men, with vast labour and expense. They are said in the whole to be eleven hundred, two hundred of which are particularly magnificent. Their sepulchral monuments make likewise a great figure. Their towers, the models of which are now so common in Europe, under the name of pagodas, are vast embellishments to the face of their country. They seem to be constructed by a regular order, and all of them are finished with exquisite carvings and gildings, and other ornaments. That at Nanking, which is two hundred feet high, and forty in diameter, is the most admired. It is called the Porcelain Tower, because it is lined with Chinese tiles. Their temples are chiefly remarkable for the fanciful taste in which they are built, for their capaciousness, their whimsical ornaments, and the ugliness of the idols they contain. The Chinese are remarkably fond of bells, which give name to one of their principal festivals. A bell at Peking weighs

one hundred and twenty thousand pounds, but its sound is said to be disagreeable. Their buildings, except the pagodas, being confined to no order, and susceptible of all kinds of ornaments, have a wild variety, and a pleasing elegance, not void of magnificence, agreeable to the eye and the imagination, and present a diversity of objects not to be found in European architecture.

NATIONAL CHARACTER, MANNERS, CUSTOMS.] The Chinese, in their persons, are middle-sized, their faces broad, their eyes black and small, their noses blunt, and turned upwards; they have high cheek-bones, and large lips. The Chinese have particular ideas of beauty; they pluck up the hairs of the lower part of their faces by the roots with tweezers, leaving a few straggling ones by way of beard. Their Tartar princes compel them to cut off the hair of their heads, and, like Mahometans, to wear only a lock on the crown. Their complexion, towards the north, is fair, but towards the south swarthy; corpulence is esteemed a beauty in a man, but considered as a palpable blemish in the fair sex, who aim at preserving a slimness and delicacy of shape. 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 show 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.

“Of most of the women we saw (says sir George Staunton), even in the middle and inferior classes, the feet were unnaturally small, or rather truncated. They appeared as if the fore-part of the foot had been accidentally cut off, leaving the remainder of the usual size, and bandaged like the stump of an amputated limb. They undergo, indeed, much torment, and cripple themselves in a great measure, in imitation of ladies of higher rank, among whom it is the custom to stop by pressure the growth of the ankle as well as foot from the earliest infancy; and leaving the great toe in its natural position, forcibly to bend the others, and retain them under the foot, till at length they adhere to, as if buried in the sole, and can no more be separated. It is said, indeed, that this practice is now less frequent than formerly, at least among the lower sort in the northern provinces.”

“The exterior demeanour of the Chinese (observes the same writer) is very ceremonious. It consists of various evolutions of the body, and inclinations of the head, in bending or stiffening the knee, and in joining or disengaging the hands; all which are considered as the perfection of good-breeding and deportment; while the nations who are not expert in such discipline are thought to be little better than barbarians. When, however, those Chinese ceremonies are once shown off, the performers of them relapse into ease and familiarity. — In their address to strangers they are not restrained by any bashfulness, but present themselves with an easy, confident air, as if they considered themselves as the superiors, and as if nothing in their manners or appearance could be deficient or inaccurate.”

The Chinese, in general, have been represented as the most dishonest, low, thieving set in the world; employing their natural quick-

ness 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. It should, however, be remembered, that some of the late accounts of China have been drawn up by those who were little acquainted with any parts of that empire but the sea-port towns, in which they probably met with many knavish and designing people. But it seems not just to attempt to characterise a great nation by a few instances of this kind, though well attested; and we appear not to be sufficiently acquainted with the interior parts of China, to form an accurate judgment of the manners and character of the inhabitants. By some of the Jesuit missionaries, the Chinese seem to have been too much extolled, and by later writers too much degraded.

DRESS.] This varies according to the distinction of ranks; and is entirely under the regulation of the law, which has even fixed the colours that distinguish the different conditions. The emperor, and princes of the blood, have alone a right to wear yellow; certain mandarins are entitled to wear satin of a red ground, but only upon days of ceremony; in general they are clothed in black, blue, or violet.—White is only worn for mourning; and cannot be too much soiled for the occasion, to avoid every appearance of personal care and ornament. The colour to which the common people are confined, is blue or black; and their dress is always composed of plain cotton cloth. 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 sash, a coat or gown thrown over them, silk boots quilted with cotton, and a pair of drawers. Dress is seldom altered in China from fancy or fashion. Even among the ladies there is little variety in their dresses; except, perhaps, in the disposition of the flowers or other ornaments of the head. They generally wear over a silk netting, which is in lieu of linen, a waistcoat and drawers of silk, trimmed or lined in cold weather with furs. Above this is worn a long satin robe, which is gracefully gathered round the waist, and confined with a sash. These different parts of their apparel are usually each of a different colour, in the selection and contrast of which the wearers chiefly display their taste. They suffer their nails to grow, but reduce their eye-brows to an arched line.

MARRIAGES.] The parties never see each other, in China, till the bargain is concluded by the parents, and that is generally when they are perfect children. When the nuptials are celebrated, the lady is carried (as yet unseen by the bridegroom) in a gilt and gaudy chair, hung round with festoons of artificial flowers; and followed by relations, attendants, and servants, bearing the paraphernalia, being the only portion given with a daughter in marriage by her parents. Next to being barren, the greatest scandal is to bring females into the world; and if a woman of poor family happens to have three or four girls successively, it not unfrequently happens that she will expose them on the high roads, or throw them into a river: for, in China, parents who cannot support their female children are allowed to cast them into the river; but they fasten a gourd to the child, that it may float on the water; and there are often compassionate people of

fortune, who are moved by the cries of the children to save them from death.

FUNERALS.] The Chinese, among other superstitions, are particularly scrupulous about the time and place of burying their dead. The delay occasioned before these difficult points are ascertained, has often long detained the coffins of the rich from their last repository; many are seen in houses and gardens under temporary roofs, to preserve them in the mean time from the weather: but necessity forces the poor to overcome many of their scruples in this respect; and to deposit at once, and with little ceremony, the remains of their relations in their final abode.

The following is the description of a Chinese funeral procession, observed by sir George Staunton, passing out at one of the gates of Peking: "The procession was preceded by several performers on solemn music; then followed a variety of insignia, some of silken colours, and painted boards with devices and characters, displaying the rank and office of him who was no more. Immediately before the corpse the male relations walked, each supported by friends, occupied in preventing them from giving way to the excesses and extravagance of grief, to which the appearance of their countenance implied that they were prone. Over the mourners were carried umbrellas with deep curtains hanging from the edges. Several persons were employed to burn circular pieces of paper, covered chiefly with tin foil, as they passed by burying-grounds and temples. These pieces, in the popular opinion, like the coin to Charon for being conveyed to the Elysian fields, are understood to be convertible, in the next stage of existence, into the means of providing the necessaries of life."

The public burying-grounds are extremely extensive, owing to the respect paid to the dead by the Chinese, which prevents them from opening a new grave upon any spot where the traces of a former one remain upon the surface.

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.

CHIEF CITIES, EDIFICES.] The empire is said to contain 4400 walled cities; the chief of which are Peking, Nanking, and Canton. Peking, the capital of the whole empire of China, and the ordinary residence of the emperors, is situated in a very fertile plain, twenty leagues distant from the great wall. It is an oblong square, and is divided into two cities: that which contains the emperor's palace is called the Tartar city, because the houses were given to the Tartars when the present family came to the throne; and they, refusing to suffer the Chinese to inhabit it, forced them to live without the walls, where they in a short time built a new city; which, by being joined to the other, renders the whole of an irregular form, six leagues in compass. The walls and gates of Peking are of the surprising height of fifty cubits, so that they hide the whole city: and are so broad, that sentinels are placed upon them on horseback; for there are slopes within the city of considerable length, by which horsemen may ascend the walls, and in several places there are houses built for the guards. The gates, which are nine in number, are neither embellished with statues, nor other carving, all their beauty consisting in their prodigious height, which at a distance gives them a noble appearance. The

arches of the gates are built of marble; and the rest with large bricks, cemented with excellent mortar. Most of the streets are built in a direct line; the largest are about 120 feet broad, and a league in length. The shops where they sell silks and China-ware generally take up the whole street, and afford a very agreeable prospect. Each shop-keeper places before his shop, on a small kind of pedestal, a board about twenty feet high, painted, varnished, and often gilt, on which are written, in large characters, the names of the several commodities he sells. These being placed on each side of the street, at nearly an equal distance from each other, have a very pretty appearance: but the houses are poorly built in front, and very low; most of them having only a ground-floor, and none exceeding one story above it. Of all the buildings in this great city, the most remarkable is the imperial palace; the grandeur of which does not consist so much in the nobleness and elegance of the architecture, as the multitude of its buildings, courts, and gardens, all regularly disposed: for within the walls are not only the emperor's house, but a little town, inhabited by the officers of the court, and a multitude of artificers employed and kept by the emperor; but the houses of the courtiers and artificers are low and ill contrived. F. Artier, a French Jesuit, who was indulged with a sight of the palace and gardens, says that the palace is more than three miles in circumference; and that the front of the building shines with gilding, paint, and varnish, while the inside is set off and furnished with every thing that is most beautiful and precious in China, the Indies, and Europe. The gardens of this palace are large tracts of ground, in which are raised, at proper distances, artificial mountains, from twenty to sixty feet high: which form a number of small valleys, plentifully watered by canals; which, uniting, form lakes and meres. Beautiful and magnificent barks sail on these pieces of water; and the banks are ornamented with ranges of buildings, not any two of which are said to have any resemblance to each other: which diversity produces a very pleasing effect. Every valley has its house of pleasure, large enough to lodge one of our greatest lords in Europe, with all his retinue: many of these houses are built with cedar, brought, at a vast expense, the distance of 500 leagues. Of these palaces, or houses of pleasure, there are more than 200 in this vast inclosure. In the middle of a lake, which is near half a league in diameter every way, is a rocky island, on which is built a palace, containing more than a hundred apartments. It has four fronts, and is a very elegant and magnificent structure. The mountains and hills are covered with trees, particularly such as produce beautiful and aromatic flowers; and the canals are edged with rustic pieces of rock, disposed with such art as exactly to resemble the wildness of nature.

The estimated population of Peking was carried in the last century, by the Jesuit Grimaldi, as quoted by Gimelli Carreri, to sixteen millions. Another missionary reduces at least that of the Tartar city to one million and a quarter. According to the best information given to the late English embassy, the whole was about three millions. The low houses of Peking seem scarcely sufficient for so vast a population; but very little room is occupied by a Chinese family, at least in the middling and lower classes of life. A Chinese dwelling is generally surrounded by a wall six or seven feet high. Within this inclosure a whole family of three generations, with all their respective wives and children, will frequently be found. One small room is made to serve for the individuals of each branch of the family; sleeping in different

beds, divided only by mats hanging from the ceiling. One common room is used for eating.

Nanking, which was the royal residence till the fifteenth century, (its name signifying the *southern court*, as *Peking* does the *northern*;) is said to be a considerably more extensive city than Peking, the walls being about seventeen miles in circuit; but its population does not correspond to its extent. The most remarkable of its edifices is the famous porcelain tower already mentioned. The well-known stuff called *nankeen* derives its name from this city.

Canton is the largest port in China, and the only port that has been much frequented by Europeans. The city wall is above five miles in circumference, with very pleasant walks around it. From the top of some adjacent hills, on which forts are built, you have a fine prospect of the country. It is beautifully interspersed with mountains, little hills, and valleys all green: and these again pleasantly diversified with small towns, villages, high towers, temples, the seats of mandarins and other great men, which are watered with delightful lakes, canals, and small branches from the river Ta; on which are numberless boats and junks, sailing different ways through the most fertile parts of the country. The city is entered by several iron gates, and withinside of each there is a guard-house. The streets of Canton are very straight, but generally narrow, paved with flag stones. There are many pretty buildings in this city, great numbers of triumphal arches, and temples well stocked with images. The streets of Canton are so crowded, that it is difficult to walk in them; yet a woman of any fashion is seldom to be seen, unless by chance when coming out of her chair. There are great numbers of market places for fish, flesh, poultry, vegetables, and all kinds of provisions, which are sold very cheap. There are many private walks about the skirts of the town, where those of the better sort have their houses; which are very little frequented by Europeans, whose business lies chiefly in the trading part of the city, where there are only shops and warehouses. Few of the Chinese traders of any substance keep their families in houses where they do business; but either in the city, in the more remote suburbs, or farther up in the country. They have all such a regard to privacy, that no windows are made towards the streets, but in shops and places of public business, nor do any of their windows look towards those of their neighbours. The shops of those that deal in silk are very neat, make a fine show, and are all in one place; for tradesmen or dealers in one kind of goods herd together in the same street. It is computed that there are in this city, and its suburbs, 1,200,000 people; and there are often 5000 trading vessels lying before the city.

PUBLIC ROADS.] The security of travellers, and an easy mode of conveyance for passengers and merchandise of every kind, are objects to which particular attention seems to have been paid by administration in China. The manner in which the public roads are managed, greatly contributes to the former.

These roads are paved in all the southern provinces, and some of the northern. Valleys have been filled up, and passages have been cut through rocks and mountains, in order to make commodious highways, and to preserve them as nearly as possible on a level. They are generally bordered with very lofty trees; and sometimes with walls eight or ten feet in height, to prevent travellers from entering into the fields. Openings are left in them at certain intervals, which give a passage into cross roads that conduct to different villages. On all

the great roads, covered seats are erected at proper distances, where the traveller may shelter himself from the inclemency of the winter, or the excessive heats of the summer.

There is no want of inns on the principal highways, and even on the cross roads. The former are very spacious, but they are badly supplied with provisions. People are even obliged to carry beds with them, or to sleep on a plain mat. Government requires of those who inhabit them, to give lodging only to those who ask and pay for it.

We meet with many turrets (says Mr. Bell) called post-houses, erected at certain distances one from another, with a flag-staff, on which is hoisted the imperial pendant. These places are guarded by soldiers, who run from one post to another with great speed, carrying letters which concern the emperor. The turrets are in sight of one another, and by signals they can convey intelligence of any remarkable event. By these means the court is informed in the speediest manner of whatever disturbance may happen in the most remote parts of the empire.

MANUFACTURES, COMMERCE.] 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 great 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 lampblack. 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. Though the Chinese affect to keep that manufacture still a secret, yet it is well known that the principal material is a prepared pulverised earth, and that several European countries far exceed the Chinese in manufacturing this commodity*. The Chinese silks are generally plain and flowered gauzes; and they are said to have been originally fabricated in that country, where the art of rearing silk-worms was first discovered. They manufacture silks likewise of a more durable kind; and their cotton and other cloths are famous for furnishing a light warm wear.

Their trade, it is well known, is open to all 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.] 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 mandarins, or great officers of state, were looked upon as his substitutes; and the degrees of submission which were due from the

* The English, in particular, have carried this branch to a high degree of perfection, as appears from the commissions which have been received of late from several princes of Europe; and we hope that a manufacture so generally useful will meet with encouragement from every true patriot among ourselves.

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 mandarins had peculiar modes of speaking and writing, and the people were taught to believe that the princes partook of divinity; so that they were seldom seen, and more seldom approached. "In the great palace of Peking (says sir George Staunton), all the mandarins resident in the capital assembled about noon, on his imperial majesty's birth-day, and, dressed in their robes of ceremony, made the usual prostrations before the throne; incense of sandal and rose woods burning upon it at the same time, and offerings being made of viands and liquors, as if, though absent, he were capable of enjoying them. Mr. Barrow (a gentleman of the embassy) was present while the same ceremonies were observed at Yuen-min-yuen; and he was informed that they likewise took place on that day in every part of the empire, the prostrators being every where attentive to turn their faces towards the capital. On all the days of new and full moon, similar incense is burnt, and offerings are made before the throne by the officers of the household in the several palaces of the emperor."

Though this system preserved the public tranquillity for an incredible number of years, yet it had a fundamental defect, that often convulsed and at last proved fatal to the state, because the same attention was not paid to the military as the civil duties. The Chinese had passions like other men; and sometimes a weak or wicked administration drove them to arms, and a revolution easily succeeded, which they justified by saying that their sovereign had ceased to be their father. During these commotions, one of the parties naturally invited their neighbours, the Tartars, to their assistance; who, possessing great sagacity, became acquainted with the weak side of their constitution, and availed themselves of it accordingly, by invading and conquering the empire, and conforming to the Chinese institutions.

Besides the great doctrine of patriarchal obedience, the Chinese had sumptuary laws and regulations for the expenses of all degrees of subjects, which were very useful in preserving the public tranquillity, and preventing the effects of ambition. By their institutions, likewise, the mandarins might remonstrate to the emperor, but in the most submissive manner, upon the errors of his government; and, when he was a virtuous prince, this freedom was often attended with the most salutary effects. No country in the world is so well provided with magistrates for the discharge of justice, both in civil and criminal matters, as China; but they are often ineffectual, through want of public virtue, in the execution.

REVENUES.] The public revenues of China Proper (says Staunton) are said to be little less than two hundred millions of ounces of silver, which may be equal to about sixty-six millions of pounds sterling, or about four times those of Great Britain, and three times those of France before the late subversion. From the produce of the taxes, all the civil and military expenses, and the incidental and extraordinary charges, are first paid upon the spot, out of the treasuries of the respective provinces where such expenses are incurred; and the remainder is remitted to the imperial treasury at Peking. This surplus

amounted in the year 1792, according to an account taken from a statement furnished by Chow-ta-Zhin, to the sum of 36,614,328 ounces of silver, or 12,204,776*l*. A land tax was substituted in the last reign to the poll tax, as better proportioned to the faculties of individuals. Most imports, and all luxuries, are likewise taxed; but the duty, being added to the original price of the article, is seldom distinguished from it by the consumer. A transit duty is laid likewise on goods passing from one province to another. Each province in China, which may be compared to an European kingdom, is noted chiefly for the production of some particular article; the conveyance of which, to supply the demand for it in the others, raises this duty to a considerable sum, and forms the great internal commerce of the empire. Presents from the tributaries and subjects of the emperor, and the confiscations of opulent criminals, are not overlooked in enumerating the revenues of the public treasury. Taxes, such as upon rice, are received in kind. The several species of grain, on which many of the poorer classes of the people principally subsist, are exempted from taxation; so is wheat, to which rice is always preferred by the Chinese.

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 Chuntchi, the first Tartarian emperor of China; who obliged his hereditary subjects to conform themselves to the Chinese manners and policy, and the Chinese to wear the Tartar dress and arms. The two nations were thereby incorporated. The Chinese were appointed to all the civil offices of the empire. The emperor made 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.

According to the information given to the gentlemen of the English embassy by Van-ta-Zhin, who was himself a distinguished officer, and appeared to give his account with candour, though not always, perhaps, with sufficient care and accuracy, the total of the army in the pay of China, including Tartars, amounted to one million infantry, and eight hundred thousand cavalry. From the observation made by the embassy, in the course of their travels through the empire, of the garrisons in the cities of the several orders, and of the military posts at small distances from each other, there appeared nothing improbable in the calculation of the infantry; but they met few cavalry. If the number mentioned really do exist, a great proportion of them must be in Tartary, or on some service distant from the route of the embassy. As to the marine force, it is composed chiefly of the junks we have already mentioned; and other small ships that trade coast-ways, or to the neighbouring countries, or to prevent sudden descents.

A treatise on the military art, translated from the Chinese into the French language, was published at Paris, in 1772, from which it appears that the Chinese are well versed in the theory of the art of war: but caution, and care, and circumspection, are much recommended to their generals; and one of their maxims is, never to fight with enemies either more numerous or better armed than themselves.

ROYAL TITLE.] The emperor is styled "*Holy Son of Heaven, Sole Governor of the Earth, Great Father of his People.*"

RELIGION.] There is in China no state religion. None is paid, preferred, or encouraged, by it. The Chinese have no Sunday, nor even such a division as a week; the temples are, however, open every

day for the visits of devotees. Persons of that description have, from time to time, made grants, though to no great amount, for the maintenance of their clergy; but no lands are subject to ecclesiastical titles. The emperor is of one faith; many of the mandarins of another; and the majority of the common people of a third, which is that of Fo. No people are, in fact, more superstitious than the common Chinese. Beside the habitual offices of devotion on the part of the priests and females, the temples are particularly frequented by the disciples of Fo, previously to any undertaking of importance; whether to marry, or go a journey, or conclude a bargain, or change situation, or any other material event in life, it is necessary first to consult the superintendant deity. This is performed by various methods. Some place a parcel of consecrated sticks, differently marked and numbered, which the consultant, kneeling before the altar, shakes in a hollow bamboo, until one of them falls on the ground; its mark is examined, and referred to a correspondent mark in a book which the priest holds open, and sometimes even it is written upon a piece of paper pasted upon the inside of the temple. Polygonal pieces of wood are by others thrown into the air. Each side has its particular mark: the side that is uppermost, when fallen on the floor, is in like manner referred to its correspondent mark in the book or sheet of fate. If the first throw be favourable, the person who made it prostrates himself in gratitude, and undertakes afterwards, with confidence, the business in agitation. But if the throw should be adverse, he tries a second time; and the third throw determines, at any rate, the question. In other respects, the people of the present time seem to pay little attention to their priests. The temples are, however, always open for such as choose to consult the decrees of heaven. They return thanks when the oracle proves propitious to their wishes. Yet they often cast lots to know the issue of a projected enterprise, then supplicate for its being favourable; and their worship consists more in thanksgiving than in prayer.

The temples of Fo abound with more images than are found in most Christian churches; some of which, as one of the missionaries has observed, exhibit so strong a likeness to those in churches of the Roman faith, that a Chinese conveyed into one of the latter, might imagine the votaries he saw were adoring the deities of his own country. On the altar of a Chinese temple, behind a screen, is frequently a representation which might answer for that of the Virgin Mary, in the person of *Shin-moo*, or the sacred mother, sitting in an alcove with a child in her arms; and rays proceeding from a circle, which are called a glory, round her head, with tapers burning constantly before her. The resemblance of the worship of the Chinese to the forms of the catholic church, in some other particulars, has been, indeed, thought so striking, that some of the missionaries have conjectured that the Chinese had formerly received a glimpse of Christianity from the Nestorians, by the way of Tartary; others, that St. Thomas the apostle had been among them: but the missionary Premare could account for it no otherwise than by supposing it to have been a trick of the devil to mortify the Jesuits.

There are other images, however, in these temples, which bear a greater analogy to the ancient than to the present worship of the Romans. A figure, representing a female, appears to be something similar to Lucina; and is particularly addressed by unmarried women wanting husbands, and married women wanting children. The

doctrine of Fo, admitting of a subordinate deity particularly propitious to every wish which can be formed in the human mind, could scarcely fail to spread among those classes of the people who are not satisfied with their prospects as resulting from the natural causes of events. Its progress is not obstructed by any measures of the government of the country, which does not interfere with mere opinions.— It prohibits no belief which is not supposed to affect the tranquillity of society.

The temples of Peking are not very sumptuous. The religion of the emperor is new in China, and its worship is performed with most magnificence in Tartary. The mandarins, the men of letters, from whom are selected the magistrates who govern the empire, and possess the upper ranks of life, venerate rather than adore Confucius, and meet to honour and celebrate his memory in halls of a simple but neat construction. The numerous and lower classes of the people are less able than inclined to contribute much towards the erection of large and costly edifices for public worship. Their religious attention is much engaged besides with their household gods. Every house has its altar and its deities. The books of their mythology contain representations of those who preside over their persons and properties, as well as over exterior objects likely to affect them. Few of the Chinese, however, carry the objects to be obtained by their devotion beyond the benefits of this life. Yet the religion of Fo professes the doctrine of the transmigration of souls, and promises happiness to the people on conditions which were, no doubt, originally intended to consist in the performance of moral duties; but, in lieu of which, are too frequently substituted those of contributions towards the erection or repair of temples, the maintenance of priests, and a strict attention to particular observances. The neglect of these is announced as punishable by the souls of the defaulters passing into the bodies of the meanest animals, in which the sufferings are to be proportioned to the transgression committed in the human form.

According to Du Halde, the ancient Chinese adored a Supreme Being, under the name of Chang-Zi, or Tien; which, according to some, signified the spirit presiding over the heavens, but has been supposed by others to mean only the visible firmament. They also worshipped subaltern spirits, who presided over kingdoms, provinces, cities, rivers, and mountains. Since the fifteenth century, many of the Chinese literati have embraced a new system, which acknowledges a universal principle which they call Taiki. Their doctrine appears to have a resemblance to that of the soul of the world, as held by some ancient philosophers; and they have been denominated atheists. Such opinions are, however, confined to a comparatively small number of persons, the generality of the Chinese being addicted to the superstitions above described.

GENIUS, LEARNING, AND ARTS.] 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 exhibit the true sublime and beautiful. They perform all the operations of arithmetic with prodigious quickness, but differently from the Europeans. Till the latter came among them, they were ignorant of mathematical learning and all its depending arts; they had no proper apparatus for astronomical observations; and the metaphysical learning which existed among them was only known to their philosophers. But even

the arts introduced by the Jesuits were of very short duration among them; and lasted very little longer than the reign of Hang-hi, who was contemporary with our Charles II.—nor is it very probable they will ever be revived. It has been generally said, that they understood printing before the Europeans: but that can only be applied to their method of block-printing, by cutting their characters on blocks of wood; for the fusile and moveable types were undoubtedly Dutch or German inventions. The Chinese, however, had almanacks which were stamped from plates or blocks, many hundred years before printing was discovered in Europe.

The difficulty of mastering and retaining such a number of arbitrary marks and characters as there are in what may be called the Chinese written language, greatly retards the progress of their erudition. But there is no part of the globe where learning is attended with such honours and rewards, and where there are more powerful inducements to cultivate and pursue it. The literati are revered as another species, and are the only nobility known in China. If their birth be ever so mean and low, they become mandarins of the highest rank, in proportion to the extent of their learning. On the other hand, however exalted their birth may be, they quickly sink into poverty and obscurity, if they neglect those studies which raised their fathers. It has been observed, that there is no nation in the world where the first honours of the state lie so open to the lowest of the people, and where there is less of hereditary greatness. The Chinese range all their works of literature into four classes. The first is the class of *King*, or the sacred books, which contain the principles of the Chinese religion, morality, and government, and several curious and obscure records relative to these important subjects. History forms a separate class: yet, in this first class, there are placed some historical monuments, on account of their relation to religion and government; and, among others, the *Tekun sifou*, a work of Confucius, which contains the annals of twelve kings of Low, the native country of that illustrious sage. The second class is that of the *Su*, or *Che*; that is, of history and the historians. The third class, called *Tsu*, or *Tse*, comprehends philosophy and the philosophers; and contains all the works of the Chinese literati; the productions also of foreign sects and religions, which the Chinese consider only in the light of philosophical opinions; and all books relative to mathematics, astronomy, physic, military science, the art of divination, agriculture, and the arts and sciences in general. The fourth is called *Tsie* or *Miscellanies*; and contains all the poetical books of the Chinese, their pieces of eloquence, their songs, romances, tragedies, and comedies. The Chinese literati, in all the periods of their monarchy, have applied themselves less to the study of nature, and to the researches of natural philosophy, than to moral inquiries, the practical science of life, and internal polity and manners. It is said that it was not before the dynasty of the Song, in the tenth and eleventh centuries after Christ, that the Chinese philosophers formed hypotheses concerning the system of the universe, and entered into discussions of a scholastic kind; in consequence, perhaps, of the intercourse they had long maintained with the Arabians, who studied with ardour the works of Aristotle. And since the Chinese have begun to pay some attention to natural philosophy, their progress in it has been much inferior to that of the Europeans.

The invention of gunpowder appears to be 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 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 contains only three hundred and thirty words, all of one syllable; but then each word is pronounced with such various modulations, and each with a different meaning, that it becomes more copious than could be easily imagined. The missionaries, who adapt the European characters as well as they can to the expression of Chinese words, have devised eleven different, and some of them very compounded, marks and aspirations, to signify the various modulations, elevations, and depressions of the voice, which distinguish the several meanings of the same monosyllable. The Chinese oral language, being thus barren and contracted, is unfit for literature; and therefore their learning is all comprised in arbitrary characters, which are amazingly complicated and numerous, amounting to about eighty thousand. This language being wholly addressed to the eye, and having scarcely any oral affinity with the latter, has still continued in its original rude uncultivated state, while the former has received all possible improvement.

The Chinese characters, Mr. Astle observes, which are by length of time become symbolic, were originally imitative; they still retain so much of their original hieroglyphic nature, that they do not combine into words, like letters or marks for sounds, but we find one mark for a man, another for a horse, a third for a dog, and, in short, a separate and distinct mark for each thing which has a corporeal form. The Chinese use a great number of marks entirely of a symbolic nature, to impress on the eye the conceptions of the mind which have no corporeal forms: though they do not combine these last marks into words, like marks for sounds or letters; but a separate mark is made to represent or stand for each idea, and they use them as they do their abridged picture characters, which were originally imitative or hieroglyphic.

The Chinese books begin from the right hand; their characters are placed in perpendicular columns, of which there are generally ten in a page. They are read downwards, beginning from the right hand side of the paper; sometimes a title is placed horizontally, and this likewise reads from the right hand.

ANTIQUITIES.] The most remarkable of the remains of antiquity in the Chinese empire, the great wall separating China from Tartary, to prevent the incursions of the Tartars, is supposed to extend from twelve hundred to fifteen hundred miles. It is carried over mountains and valleys; and reaches from the province of Shensee to the Whang-Hay, or Yellow Sea. It is in most places built of brick and mortar, which is so well tempered, that though it has stood more than two thousand years, it is but little decayed. The beginning of this wall is a large bulwark of stone raised in the sea, in the province of Petcheleo, to the east of Peking, and almost in the same latitude: it is built like the walls of the capital city of the empire, but much wider, being terraced and cased with bricks; and is from twenty to twenty-five feet high; it is flanked with towers at the distance of almost

hundred yards, which add to its strength, and render it much easier to be defended. One-third of the men capable of labour in China, were, it is said, employed in constructing this wall, which was begun and completely finished in the short space of five years; and it is further reported, that the workmen stood so close for many miles, that they could hand the materials from one to another. P. Regis, and the other gentlemen who took a map of these provinces, often stretched a line on the top, to measure the bases 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.

The other antiquities found in this country, are coins of the ancient monarchs, which are collected and arranged in cabinets by the curious among the natives; several pagodas, or ornamented towers, erected in commemoration of great events; and numerous old temples, and triumphal arches.

[*HISTORY.*] The Chinese pretend, as a nation, to an antiquity beyond all measure of credibility; and their annals have been carried beyond the period to which the scripture chronology assigns the creation of the world. Poan Kou is said by them to have been the first man; and the interval of time betwixt him and the death of their celebrated Confucius, which was in the year before Christ 479, has been reckoned from 276,000 to 96,961,740 years. But, upon an accurate investigation of this subject, it appears, that all the Chinese historical relations of events prior to the reign of the emperor Yao, who lived 2057 years before Christ, are entirely fabulous, composed in modern times, unsupported by authentic records, and full of contradictions. It appears also, that the origin of the Chinese empire cannot be placed higher than two or three generations before Yao. Even this is carrying the empire of China to a very high antiquity, but it is certain that the materials for the Chinese history are extremely ample. The grand annals of the empire of China are comprehended in six hundred and sixty-eight volumes; and consist of the pieces that have been composed by the tribunal or department of history, established in China for transmitting to posterity the public events of the empire, and the lives, characters, and transactions, of its sovereigns. It is said, that all the facts which concern the monarchy, since its foundation, have been deposited in this department; and from age to age have been arranged according to the order of time, under the inspection of government, and with all the precautions against illusion or partiality that could be suggested. These precautions have been carried so far, that the history of the reign of each imperial family has only been published after the extinction of that family, and was kept a profound secret during the dynasty, that neither fear nor flattery might adulterate the truth. It is asserted, that many of the Chinese historians exposed themselves to exile, and even to death, rather than disguise the defects and vices of the sovereign. But the emperor Chi-hoang-ti, at whose command the great wall was built, in the year 213 before the Christian era, ordered all the historical books and records which contained the fundamental laws and principles of the ancient government to be burnt, that they might not be employed by the learned to oppose his authority, and the changes he proposed to introduce into the monarchy. Four hundred literati were burnt, with their books: yet this barbarous edict had not its full effect; several books were concealed,

and escaped the general ruin. After this period, strict search was made for the ancient books and records that yet remained; but, though much industry was employed for this purpose, it appears that the authentic historical sources of the Chinese, for the times anterior to the year 200 before Christ, are very few, and that they are still in smaller numbers for more remote periods. But, notwithstanding the depredations that have been made upon the Chinese history, it is still immensely voluminous, and has been judged by some writers superior to that of all other nations. Of the grand annals before mentioned, which amount to six hundred and sixty-eight volumes, a copy is preserved in the library of the French nation. A chronological abridgment of this great work, in one hundred volumes, was published in the forty-second year of the reign of Kang-hi; that is, in the year 1703. This work is generally called *Kam-mo*, or the abridgment. From these materials the abbé Grosier proposed to publish at Paris, in the French language, a *General History of China*, in twelve volumes quarto, some of which have been printed; and a smaller work, in twelve volumes octavo, by the late Father de Mailla, missionary at Peking, has been published.

But the limits to which our work is confined will not permit us to enlarge upon so copious a subject as that of the Chinese history; and which, indeed, would be very uninteresting to the generality of European readers. A succession of excellent princes, and a duration of domestic tranquillity, united legislation with philosophy, and produced their *Fo-hi*, whose history is enveloped in mysteries; their *Li-Laokum*; and, above all, their *Kong-foo-tse*, or *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 has been more than once broken into, and altered. Upwards of twenty dynasties, or different tribes and families of succession, are enumerated in their annals.

Neither the great *Zingis Khan*, nor *Timur*, though they often defeated the Chinese, could subdue their empire; and neither of them could keep the conquests they made there. Their 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. *On-san-quey*, the Chinese general, on the frontier of *Tartary*, refused to recognise the usurper; and made a peace with *Tsong-gate*, or *Chun-tchi*, 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.

In the year 1771, all the Tartars who composed the nation of the Tourgouths, left the settlements which they had under the Russian government on the banks of the Volga, and the Taick, at a small distance from the Caspian Sea, and, in a vast body of fifty thousand families, passed through the country of the Hasacks. After a march of eight months, in which they surmounted innumerable difficulties and dangers, they arrived in the plains that lie on the frontiers of Carapen, not far from the banks of the river Ily; and offered themselves as subjects to Kien-Long, emperor of China, who was then in the thirty-sixth year of his reign. He received them graciously; furnished them with provisions, clothes, and money, and allotted to each family a portion of land for agriculture and pasturage. The year following, there was a second emigration of about thirty thousand other Tartar families; who also quitted the settlements which they enjoyed under the Russian government, and submitted to the Chinese sceptre. The emperor caused the history of these emigrations to be engraven upon stone in four different languages.

The hopes which were lately indulged of the great and manifold advantages to be derived from the embassy of lord Macartney to the court of Peking, ended in disappointment. Never, perhaps, was there a character better qualified for the management of an embassy of such delicacy and importance than lord Macartney; but, notwithstanding his lordship's adroitness, he found it utterly impossible to obtain permission for the residence of an Englishman at the capital of China, as ambassador, consul, or in any other character; or any exclusive settlement for the English within the Chinese dominions, even on a temporary grant, and solely for the purposes of trade. According to a fundamental principle in Chinese politics, innovation, of whatever kind, is held to be inevitably pregnant with ruin; and, on this principle, the emperor declined to admit a foreign resident at the court of Peking, or to expand the principles on which our commercial intercourse with this country are at present regulated and confined.

The embassy arrived in the river Pei-ho, in the Gulf of Peking, the beginning of August 1793; and, on the 21st of the same month, reached the city of Peking. They remained here till the beginning of September; when they were conducted to Zhe-hol, or Jehol, one of the emperor's country residences in Tartary, distant about forty or fifty leagues from Peking. Here they had their audience of the emperor, who accepted the presents they had brought in the most gracious manner, and returned others of great value, of which two were so singular as to claim particular notice: the one was a poem addressed to his Britannic majesty, the composition of the emperor himself, and in his own hand-writing; it was lodged in a black wooden carved box, of no great value, but as an antique, to which character it has a just claim, having been two thousand years in the possession of the imperial family of China. The other present was a mass of costly agate, of unequalled size and beauty. It had always been the practice with the emperor to hold this agate in his hand, and to fix his eyes upon it, whenever he spoke to a mandarin, or any of his ministers; as to look upon a subject is considered as not only derogatory to the imperial dignity, but to confer too much honour on the individual addressed.

Kien-Long, the late emperor of China, appeared, at the time he gave audience to the embassy, to be perfectly unreserved, cheerful, and unaffected; his eyes were full and clear, and his countenance

open. He was clad in plain dark silk, with a velvet bonnet, in form not much different from the bonnet of Scotch Highlanders; on the front of it was placed a large pearl, which was the only jewel or ornament he appeared to have about him.

Kien-Long, or, as sir George Staunton writes his name, Chen-Lung, was only the fourth sovereign of the Tartar dynasty which took possession of the throne of that country about the year 1644. He ascended the throne of China in 1736, and died February 11, 1799. He was succeeded by Ka-Hing, the present emperor; who, immediately on his accession to the throne, degraded and imprisoned Ho-choong-taung, the prime minister of his predecessor. This minister was in power at the time of lord Macartney's embassy, and was supposed to be very hostile to the object of it: his disgrace has given hopes that such another attempt might now prove successful.

CHINESE TARTARY.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length	3000	between } 72 and 145 East longitude. } 35 and 53 North latitude.	} 944,000
Breadth	1030		

NAME.] THE origin of the name of Tartary is uncertain; * but it has been conjectured to be derived from the Chinese, who call all their neighbours, without distinction, *Tata* or *Ta-dse*.

BOUNDARIES.] Chinese Tartary is bounded on the north by Siberia, or Asiatic Russia; on the east by the sea of Japan, and the channel of Tartary; on the south by China Proper, and Tibet; and on the west by Independent Tartary.

The name of Tartary was formerly given vaguely to all the countries to the north of Persia, Hindoostan, and China, quite to the Northern Ocean; and from the Black Sea and the limits of European Russia to the Eastern Ocean.

DIVISION.] The only division of this country in general, arises from the different tribes by which it is inhabited; of these the principal are the Manchews, or Mandshurs in the east; the Monguls, or Moguls, in the middle; and the Eluts, or Calmucs, in the west. The country of the Manchew Tartars, who are more immediately under the authority of China (having given to the latter country the present imperial family), has been divided by the Chinese into three great governments, Chinyang, Kirin, and Tsitchicar; which take their names from those of their chief towns. The Russians call the latter Daouria; from the tribe Tajouri, who inhabit a great part of this district. To these may be added the province or peninsula of Cerea, which has been for several centuries under the dominion of the Chinese. It is considerably populous; and the inhabitants are said to differ in several respects, particularly in their language, from the Manchew Tartars.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, MOUNTAINS.] A great part of this extensive country is a vast elevated plain, supported like a table by

* More properly written *Tutary*. But custom has so established this orthography, which, perhaps, was suggested by the pronunciation of the name that it would appear affectation to alter it.

the mountains of Tibet on the south, and the Altaian chain on the north. This prodigious plain, the most elevated level land on the face of the globe, is intersected by several chains of mountains; and by the vast deserts of Cobi and Shamo, which have been supposed to be the same, the former being the Tartarian, and the latter the Chinese name. To the west of this great country are the mountains of Belur Tag, or the Cloudy Mountains, the Imaus of the ancients, which separate the Chinese empire from Balk and great Bucharia, and the Calmucs subject to China from the Kirguses of Independent Tartary.

LAKES.] There are several lakes in this country: among which are those of Balkash or Tengis, and Zaizan, each about one hundred and fifty miles in length; as also Koko-nor, or the Blue Lake, which has given its name to a tribe of Mogul Tartars.

RIVERS.] The principal of these is the Amur; called by the Tartars Sagalian Oula, or River Sagalian, probably because it falls into the Eastern Ocean opposite the island Sagalian. It is also called, near its source, the Kerlon, and the Argoon; it is a very large river, the length of its course being above one thousand eight hundred miles. The other rivers are the Songari, the Nonni, the Yarkand, and the Ili, which latter falls into the lake of Balkash.

CLIMATE, SOIL, PRODUCE.] The great elevation of this country renders the climate much colder than in others under the same parallel: even in summer it freezes so hard as to produce ice of considerable thickness, which is caused as much by the north-east wind blowing continually over this vast plain, but little sheltered with trees, as by the prodigious quantities of saltpetre which impregnate the earth at the depth of four or five feet; and it is not uncommon to dig up clods of frozen turf and heaps of icicles. The trees are neither numerous nor well grown, but there are some forests. Here are immense tracts of pasture; and the soil, were it cultivated, would no doubt be found sufficiently productive of most kinds of grain: agriculture, however, is not entirely neglected by the Southern Manchews, who raise some wheat.

ANIMALS.] Among the various animals of this country, the most remarkable are the wild horses, and wild asses, which are very numerous here. The horses and cattle are in great plenty, and sold at low prices. The *bos grunniens* of Linnaeus, or grunting ox, which inhabits Tartary and Tibet, has a tail of uncommon beauty, full and flowing, of a glossy and silky texture. These tails are a considerable article of exportation from Tibet: the Indians fasten small bundles of the hair to a handle, which they use for fly-flaps; the Chinese dye tufts of it with a beautiful scarlet, to decorate their caps; and the Turks employ it as ornaments to their standards, by some erroneously called horse-tails.

INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS.] The Mogul Tartars are in their persons generally short and stout; with broad faces, flat noses, small oblique eyes, thick lips, and a scanty beard, as they continually thin it by plucking out the hairs by the roots. Their ears are very large and prominent, their hair black, and their complexion of a reddish or yellowish brown; but that of the women is fair, and of a healthy ruddiness; they are extremely quick of sight and apprehension, are naturally easy and cheerful, and scarcely ever experience either care or melancholy. They are very hospitable to each other, and likewise to strangers who put themselves under their protection. Their dress consists of a flat yellow bonnet, the whole head being shaven except one

lock of hair; wide trowsers; a vest of light stuff, with narrow sleeves; and a girdle which supports the sabre, knife, and implements for smoking tobacco: the outer garment is of cloth, with wide sleeves, and linen is wound about the feet, over which are drawn buskins of leather, generally black or yellow: shirts are unknown. The dress of the women is the same with that of the men, only that, instead of the outer garment, they wear a gown without sleeves. They have generally long hair, which they plait in tresses.

The various tribes of these Tartars in general form wandering hordes, and live in tents, which they remove from one place to another, according as the temperature of the seasons, or the wants of their flocks require. When pasturage begins to fail, the whole tribes strike their tents, generally from ten to fifteen times in the year, proceeding in summer to the northern, and in winter to the southern wilds; the latter season they generally pass at the bottom of some mountain, or hill, which shelters them from the sharp and cutting north wind. Each of these tribes has its respective limits, and it would be an act of hostility towards their neighbours to go beyond them; but they are at full liberty to encamp wherever they choose, within the circumference assigned them. They live in their tents amid every kind of dirt and the dung of their flocks, which, when dried, they burn on their hearths instead of wood. They are naturally enemies of labour, and will not take the trouble of cultivating the earth; it even appears that they neglect agriculture from pride. When the missionaries asked them why they did not cultivate at least some gardens, they answered that "the grass was for beasts, and beasts for man." During the summer, they live only on milk, which they obtain from their flocks, using indiscriminately that of the cow, mare, ewe, goat, and camel. Their ordinary drink is warm water, in which a little coarse tea has been infused; with it they mix cream, milk, or butter, according to their circumstances: they have also a method of making a kind of spirituous liquor of sour milk, especially of that of the mare, which they distil after having allowed it to ferment. Tartars of better condition, before they distil this sour milk, mix with it some of the flesh of their sheep, which has been also left to ferment. This liquor is strong and nourishing, and one of their greatest pleasures is making themselves intoxicated with it.

The Moguls are extremely dextrous in handling the bow and arrow, managing their horses, and hunting wild beasts. Polygamy is permitted among them, but they generally have only one wife. They burn the bodies of their princes and chief priests, with many solemnities, and bury the ashes on eminences, where the tombs are sometimes walled round, and ornamented with a great number of small standards.

The whole nation of the Moguls, under the Chinese government, may be divided into four principal tribes; the Moguls, properly so called, the Kalkas, the Ortous, and the Eluts, of which branch are the Tartars of Kokonor; all of whom have a great resemblance in their character and manners.

The Manchews are not very different in their habits and manners from the Moguls. They have, however, towns and villages, and appear to be much more civilized, especially since their conquest of China; though the Chinese retain a great antipathy against their conquerors, whom they despise as a filthy race of savages.

CITIES, CHIEF TOWNS.] The capital of the whole country of the Manchew Tartars is Chin-yang, or as it is called by the Tartars

Mugden. It stands on an eminence, and is said to be nearly three leagues in circumference. It contains a palace for the emperor; several public edifices, magazines of arms, and storehouses. Kirin, the chief town of the department of that name, is the residence of a Manchew general, who is invested with all the powers of a viceroy : he has the inspection of the troops, and authority over all the mandarins. Ningouta, which is considered as the cradle of the present imperial family, is surrounded by a wooden wall, composed of plain stakes driven into the earth, which touch each other, and are twenty feet high. Without this palisado there is another of the same kind, which is a league in circumference, and has four gates corresponding to the four cardinal points.

The Moguls, properly so called, as has been observed, have no towns; but in the country of Little Bucharia, possessed by the Eluts, or Kalmucs, who were subjected by the Chinese in 1759, is the city of Cashgar, formerly the capital of a kingdom, nearly corresponding in its limits with Little Bucharia, and which still retains some trade; Yarkand, situate on a river of the same name; and Turfan, the capital of a detached principality, once much frequented by merchants in their way from Persia to China.

TRADE.] The principal trade of the Manchews consists in ginseng; and pearls found in several rivers which fall into the Amur. This pearl fishery belongs to the emperor, but the greater part of the pearls are small, and not of a fine water : a kind much more beautiful are found in other rivers of Tartary, which flow into the Eastern sea. The companies and merchants who engage in this fishery must every year give to the emperor, for permission to fish, 1140 pearls; this is the fixed tribute, and they must be pure and without blemish, or they are returned, and others required in their stead.

The sable skins of this country are highly valued, because they are reckoned to be very strong and durable. The most beautiful skins are set apart for the emperor, who buys a certain number of them at a stated price : the rest are sold at a high rate even in the country, where they are eagerly bought up by the mandarins and merchants.

The wandering tribes of Moguls know little of trade : they, however, exchange their cattle for cloth, silk, stuffs, and other apparel and ornaments for themselves and their women.

GOVERNMENT, LAWS.] The departments of the country of the Manchew Tartars are governed by viceroys appointed by the emperor of China. The wandering tribes of Moguls are governed by khans, or particular princes, who are independent of each other, but all subject to the authority of the Chinese emperor. When the Manchews subdued China, they conferred certain titles on the most powerful of the Mogul princes, and assigned them revenues, but far inferior to those of the Manchew lords at Peking. The emperor settled the limits of their respective territories, and gave them laws according to which they are at present governed. These tributary khans have not the power of condemning their subjects to death, nor of depriving them of their possessions : the cases of death and confiscation are reserved for the supreme tribunal established at Peking for the affairs of the Moguls, to which every individual may appeal from the sentence of his prince, who is obliged to appear in person whenever he is cited.

RELIGION.] Many of the Tartar tribes profess the religion of the lamas, or that of Tibet, of which we shall give a further account in the description of that country. They frequently make pilgrimages

in great numbers, from the distance sometimes of a thousand miles, to Putola and Teeshoo Loomboo, to pay devout homage and bring offerings to the lama.

Another religion, which is very prevalent among the Tartars, is that of Schamanism. The professors of this religious sect believe in one Supreme God, the creator of all things. They believe that he loves his creation, and all his creatures; that he knows every thing, and is all-powerful; but that he pays no attention to the particular actions of men, being too great for them to be able to offend him, or to do any thing that can be meritorious in his sight. But they also maintain that the Supreme Being has divided the government of the world, and the destiny of men, among a great number of subaltern divinities, under his command and control, but who, nevertheless, generally act according to their own fancies; and therefore mankind cannot dispense with using all the means in their power for obtaining their favour. They likewise suppose, that, for the most part, these inferior deities abominate and punish premeditated villany, fraud, and cruelty. They are all firmly persuaded of a future existence; but they have many superstitious notions and practices. Among all the Schamanes, women are considered as being vastly inferior to men, and are thought to have been created only for their sensual pleasure, to people the world, and to look after household affairs; and, in consequence of these principles, they are treated with much severity and contempt.

LANGUAGE.] The language of the Manchews is said to be very copious, these Tartars being particularly nice with respect to the too frequent recurrence of the same sounds. It is said, likewise, to be very expressive, as it has names not only for the different species of dogs, but such as signify the age, colour, good or bad qualities, of a dog, whether he has long hair or short hair, large ears or hanging lips, in all which, and many other cases, he has a distinct and very different name. In like manner a horse has a variety of names, signifying in a single word, whether he be a restive horse, a run-away horse, a horse easily frightened, with what pace he goes, &c. This language is written in characters which represent sounds and not things like those of the Chinese. M. Langles, a member of the French Institute, has compiled a dictionary of the Manchew language, which he pronounces to be the most learned and perfect of the Tartar tongues, though not written till the seventeenth century, when the emperor appointed some literati to design letters after those of the Moguls. The language of the Moguls is said to be radically different from that of the Manchews.

HISTORY.] The different tribes which at present inhabit this extensive region, were formerly comprehended under the general name of Monguls, or Moguls, a warlike and formidable nation, whose sovereign, Zingis, or Jenghis Khan, about the thirteenth century, conquered the greater part of the north of Asia, seized on China on the one hand, and invaded Hindoostan on the other. The Tartars held possession of China about a hundred years, but were expelled in 1368. The fugitives took different routes; some went towards the Eastern sea, and established themselves between China and the river Sagalien; the rest returned to their former country, where, intermixing with the Moguls that remained, they soon resumed their ancient manner of living. Those who settled towards the east, having found the country almost a desert, and without inhabitants, retained the customs which they had brought from China, and became known by

the name of Manehew or Eastern Tartars. In 1644 these Tartars re-entered China, and established a sovereign of their own race on the throne, as has been already mentioned in the history of China.

TIBET.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 1500 } Breadth 500 }	between { 75 and 101 East longitude. { 27 and 35 North latitude. }	385,000

NAME.] "THE country of Tibet," says captain Turner, "is called by the inhabitants Pue, or Puckoachim, which is derived, as they told me, from *Puc*, signifying northern, and *Koachim*, snow; that is, the snowy region of the north." * The Chinese call it Tsang. The origin of the name of Tibet (which in Bengal and the country itself is pronounced *Tibbet* or *Tibt*) does not appear.

BOUNDARIES.] Tibet is bounded on the north and north-west by the great desert of Cobi in Tartary; on the east by China; on the south by Assam and Birmah; and on the south-west and west by Hindoostan.

DIVISIONS.] This country is divided into Upper, Middle, and Lower Tibet. Upper Tibet is also called Nagari, and divided into the three provinces of Sangkar, Pourang, and Tamo. The provinces of Middle Tibet are Shang, Ou, and Kiang: those of Lower Tibet, Congbo, Kohang, and Takbo, or Bootan. The latter is an extensive country, usually considered as distinct from Tibet Proper. The countries to the west of Bootan and to the north of Hindoostan, as Morung, Mocampour, Nipaul, Gorka, and Kemaon, are not considered as parts of Tibet.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, MOUNTAINS, FORESTS.] Tibet at first view appears to the traveller as one of the least favoured countries under heaven, and seems to be in a great measure incapable of culture. It exhibits only low rocky hills without any visible vegetation, or extensive arid plains, both of the most stern and stubborn aspect, promising full as little as they produce. Bootan, however, or the most southern part, though it presents only the most mishapen irregularities, has its mountains covered with verdure, and rich with abundant forests of large and lofty trees.

The mountains in which the Ganges has its source, are called those of Kentaïsse: on the south are the mountains of Himmala.

LAKES.] The most considerable lake, with respect to dimensions, is that of Terkiri, which is about 80 miles in length and 25 broad; but the most remarkable is that of Jamdro or Palté, which is represented as a wide trench of about two leagues broad, every where surrounding an island of about twelve leagues in diameter.

RIVERS.] The principal river of Tibet is the Sanpoo, or Burrampooter, which has already been described as a river of Hindoostan. The Ganges likewise has its source among the mountains of Tibet,

* Account of an Embassy to the Court of the Teesboo Lama in Tibet, by Captain Samuel Turner: p. 305 and v.

as have also the Chinese rivers Hoanho and Kianku, the great river Mayhaung of Laos and Cambodia, and the Sardjoo or Gagra, which after a course of about 600 miles falls into the Ganges, near Chupra.

METALS, MINERALS.] Bootan is not known to contain any metal except iron, and a little copper; but in Tibet Proper gold is found in great quantities and very pure; sometimes in the form of gold dust in the beds of rivers, and sometimes in large masses and irregular veins. There is a lead-mine about two days' journey from Teeshoo Loomboo, which probably contains silver. Cinnabar abounding in quicksilver, rock-salt, and tincal, or crude-borax, are likewise among the mineral productions of this country: the latter is found in inexhaustible quantities.

CLIMATE, SOIL, PRODUCE.] The climate of Tibet is cold and bleak in the extreme, from the severe effects of which the inhabitants are obliged to seek refuge in sheltered vallies and hollows, or amidst the warmest aspects of the rocks. In the temperature of the seasons, however, a remarkable uniformity prevails, as well as in their periodical duration and return. In Bootan almost every part of the mountains and hills which is coated with the smallest quantity of soil is cleared and adapted to cultivation; but in Tibet Proper, the nature of the soil prevents the progress of agriculture. Wheat, barley, and rice are grown in Bootan.

ANIMALS.] The variety and quantity of beasts of prey, flocks, droves, and herds of wild-fowl and game in Tibet, according to Mr. Turner, are astonishing: in Bootan, he tells us, he met with no wild animals, except monkeys. The horses, cattle, and sheep of Tibet are of a diminutive size, as are most of the beasts of prey. The grunting ox, called by the Tibetians the *yak*, has been already described. The musk deer is a native of this country. This animal is about the height of a moderately sized hog; he has in the upper jaw two long tusks directed downwards, which seem intended to serve him to dig roots, his usual food: the musk, which is only found in the male, is of a black colour, and formed in a little bag or tumor near the navel. These deer are deemed the property of the state, and hunted only by the permission of government. In Tibet there is also a beautiful species of goats, with straight horns, which have, next the skin, and under the exterior coarse coat, a very fine hair, from which the valuable shawls of India are manufactured.

NATURAL CURIOSITIES.] To the north of Tassisudon, Mr. Sanders, who accompanied captain Turner on his embassy, observed a singular rock projecting over a considerable fall of water, and forming in front six or seven hundred angular semi-pillars of a great circumference, and some hundred feet high. Among the mountains of Bootan is a waterfall called Minzapeezo, which issues in a collected body, but descends from so great a perpendicular height, that before it is received in the thick shade below, it is nearly dissipated, and appears like the steam arising from boiling water.

POPULATION.] We have not materials from which the population of this country can be ascertained with any degree of accuracy; but from the facility with which it has been conquered by the Eluts and other invaders, it appears evident that it is very thinly inhabited in comparison to its extent.

INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS.] The people of Bootan and Tibet are much more robust and less swarthy than their southern neighbours of Bengal. Humanity, and an unartificial gentleness of

these Tartars
own race on
of China.

Sq. Miles.

} 385,000

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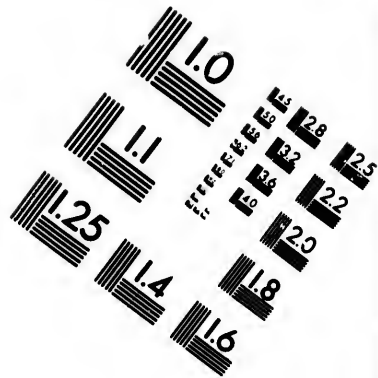
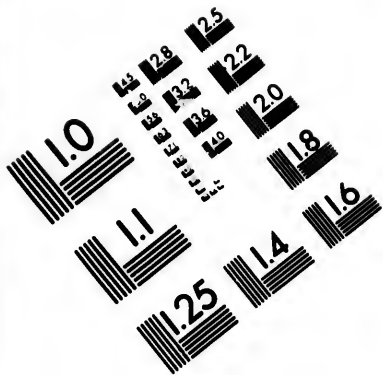
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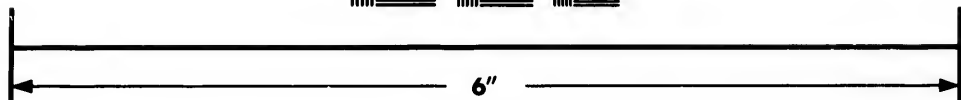
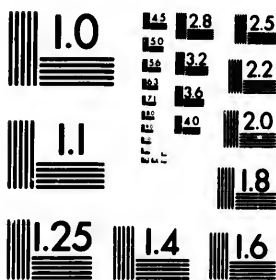
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disposition, says Mr. Turner, are the constant inheritance of a Tibetan. Without being servilely officious, they are always obliging; the higher ranks are unassuming, the inferior respectful in their behaviour; nor are they at all deficient in attention to the female sex; but as we find them moderate in all their passions, in this respect also, their conduct is equally remote from rudeness and adulation. A remarkable custom prevails in this country, directly contrary to the usual customs of the east, by which a woman is permitted to marry all the brothers of a family, without any restriction of age or numbers. The choice of the wife is the privilege of the elder brother. The ceremonies of marriage are neither tedious nor intricate. The elder brother of a family, to whom, as has been observed, the choice belongs; when enamoured of a damsel, makes his proposal to her parents. If his suit be approved, and the offer accepted, the parents with their daughter repair to the suitor's house, where the male and female acquaintance of both parties meet and carouse for the space of three days, with music, dancing, and every kind of festivity. At the expiration of this time the marriage is complete. The priests of Tibet, who shun the society of women, have no share in these ceremonies, or in ratifying the obligation between the parties. Mutual consent is their only bond of union, and the parties present are witnesses to the contract, which is formed indissolubly for life.

The Tibetians expose their dead bodies within walled areas, which are left open at the top, and have passages at the bottom to admit birds, dogs, and beasts of prey: no other funeral rites are performed but such as tend to facilitate the destruction of the body by the voracious animals, who are, as it were, invited to devour it. Some bodies are conveyed by the friends of the deceased to the summit of some neighbouring hill, where they are disjointed and mangled that they may become a more easy prey to carnivorous birds. The bodies of the sovereign lamas are, however, deposited in shrines prepared for their remains, which are ever after considered as sacred, and visited with religious awe: those of the inferior priests are burnt, and their ashes preserved in little hollow images of metal. An annual festival is observed in Tibet, as in Bengal, in honour of the dead, which is celebrated by a general illumination of the houses and other buildings.

CITIES, CHIEF TOWNS, EDIFICES.] Lassa, or Lahassa, is considered as the capital of Tibet, and is situate in a spacious plain; the houses are not numerous, but they are built of stone, and are large and lofty.—The celebrated mountain of Putala, on which stands the palace of the Dalai Lama, or grand lama, the high priest and sovereign of Tibet, is about seven miles to the east of the city.

Teeshoo Loomboo, or Lubrong, the seat of Teeshoo Lama, and the capital of that part of Tibet immediately subject to his authority, is, in fact, a large monastery, consisting of three or four hundred houses, inhabited by gylongs, a kind of monks or priests, besides temples, mausoleums, and the palace of the sovereign pontiff, with the residences of the various subordinate officers, both ecclesiastical and civil, belonging to the court. It is included within the hollow face of a high rock, and has a southern aspect. Its buildings are all of stone, none less than two stories high, flat roofed, and crowned with a parapet, rising considerably above the rest.

The castle or palace of Tassisudon in Bootan, stands near the centre of the valley of the same name. It is a stone building of a quadrangular form. The outer walls are lofty, being above thirty

feet high, and enclose a central square building, which is the habitation of the chief lama of the district, or Daeb Raja. There is no town near the palace, but a few clusters of houses are distributed in different parts among the fields.

"A Tibet village," says Mr. Turner, "by no means makes a handsome figure. The peasant's house is of a mean construction, and resembles a brick-kiln in shape and size more exactly than any thing to which I can compare it. It is built of rough stones, heaped upon each other without cement, and, on account of the strong winds that perpetually prevail here, it has never more than three or four small apertures to admit light. The roof is a flat terrace, surrounded with a parapet wall two or three feet high: on this are commonly placed piles of loose stones, intended to support a small flag, or the branch of a tree; or else as a fastening for a long line with scraps of paper, or white rag strung upon it, like the tail of a kite: this being stretched from one house to another, is a charm against evil genii, as infallible in its efficacy as horse-shoes nailed upon a threshold, or as straws thrown across the path of a reputed witch."

MANUFACTURES, COMMERCE.] The manufactures of Tibet are principally shawls and woollen cloths. The exports from Tibet, which go chiefly to China and Bengal, consist of gold dust, diamonds, pearls, coral, musk, rock-salt, tincal, woollen cloths, and lamb skins; in return for which are imported from China silks, satins, gold and silver brocades, tea, tobacco, and furs of various kinds; and from Bengal the productions of that country, and a variety of English commodities and manufactures.

"A very small quantity of specie, and that of a base standard, is current in Tibet. It is the silver coin of Nipaul, here termed *indermillee*; each is in value about one-third of a *sicca* rupee, and they are cut into halves, third parts, and quarters. This, which is the only money, serves to obtain the exigencies of life, but never enters into important contracts in the larger concerns of trade; in all such transactions, the equivalent is made in bullion, that is *tarema*, talents, or masses of gold and silver, which bear a value in proportion to the purity and specific gravity of the metal."*

GOVERNMENT, RELIGION.] The government of this country is intimately connected with its religion, the civil authority, as well as the spiritual, being in the hands of the lamas, or sovereign pontiffs, of whom the chief, called the Dalai Lama, or Grand Lama, is not only submitted to and adored by the Tibetians, but is also the great object of veneration among the various tribes of Tartars who roam through the vast tract of continent which stretches from the banks of the Volga, to Corea, on the Sea of Japan. He is not only the sovereign pontiff, the vicegerent of the Deity on earth; but, as superstition is ever the strongest where it is most removed from its object, the more remote Tartars absolutely regard him as the Deity himself. They believe him to be immortal, and endowed with all knowledge and virtue. Every year they come up from different parts, to worship and make rich offerings at his shrine: even the emperor of China, who is a Manchew Tartar, does not fail in acknowledgments to him in his religious capacity, though the lama is tributary to him, and actually entertains, at a great expense, in the palace of Peking, an inferior lama, deputed, as his nuncio, from Tibet. The opinion of those

* Turner, p. 372.

who are reputed the most orthodox among the Tibetians is, that when the grand lama seems to die either of old age or infirmity, his soul in fact only quits a crazy habitation to look for another younger or better, and it is discovered again in the body of some child, by certain tokens, known only to the lamas or priests, in which order he always appears. In 1774, the grand lama was an infant, which had been discovered some time before by the Teeshoo lama, who, in authority and sanctity of character, is next to the grand lama, and, during his minority, acts as chief. In the year 1783, when Mr. Turner went on his embassy into Tibet, the Teeshoo lama was in like manner an infant, under the guardianship of a regent; and Mr. Turner, in his account of his embassy, has given a curious and interesting relation of a visit which he was permitted to make to him. "Teeshoo Lama," he tells us, "was at that time eighteen months old. He was placed, in great form, upon his musnud. On the left side stood his father and mother, and on the other the officer particularly appointed to wait upon his person. The musnud is a fabric of silk cushions, piled one upon the other, until the seat is elevated to the height of four feet from the floor; a piece of embroidered silk covered the top, and the sides also were decorated with pieces of silk of various colours, suspended from the upper edge and hanging down. Though the little creature," says our author, "was unable to speak a word, he made the most expressive signs, and conducted himself with astonishing dignity and decorum. His complexion was of that hue which in England we should term rather brown, but not without colour. His features were good, he had small black eyes, and an animated expression of countenance; altogether, I thought him one of the handsomest children I had ever seen."

The religious votaries of the lamas are divided into two sects, the *gylookpa* and the *shammar*, at the head of each of which are three lamas. Over the *gylookpa* sect preside Dalai Lama, whose residence is at Pootalah, near Lassa; Teeshoo Lama, who resides at Teeshoo Loomboo; and Taranaut Lama, who resides at Kharka, in Kilmank. This sect prevails over the greatest part of Tibet. The three lamas who in like manner preside over the *shammar* sect, have their residence in Bootan, in separate monasteries, but from the limited extent of that country, at no great distance from each other. These sects are distinguished by the colour of the dress of their priests. Those of the *gylookpa* wear long robes of yellow cloth, with a conical cap of the same colour, having flaps to fall down and cover the ears. The dress of the other sect is red, and the tribes are known as belonging to the red or the yellow cap. The former, it is said, differ principally from the others in admitting the marriage of their priests; but the latter are considered as the most orthodox, as well as possessed of far the greatest influence, since the emperor of China is decidedly a votary of this sect, and has sanctified his preference of the yellow colour by a sumptuary law which limits it to the service of religion, and the imperial use. These sects formerly engaged in violent religious wars, each destroying, when successful, the monasteries of the other, and establishing its own in their stead; but at present the power of the *gylookpa* has attained the undisputed superiority, in which it appears to be firmly fixed in consequence of the emperor of China having declared in its favour, and adopted for himself the distinction of the yellow hat.

There are in this country numerous monasteries containing a great

number of gylongs or monks, who are enjoined sobriety, to forego the society of women, and confine themselves to the austere practices of the cloister. On the establishment of the monastery of Teeshoo Loomboo, were reckoned no less than three thousand seven hundred of these gylongs. There are also a number of nunneries, containing annes or nuns; and the strictest laws exist to prevent any woman from even accidentally passing a night within the limits of a monastery, or a man within those of a nunnery.

"The religion of Tibet," says Mr. Turner, "seems to be the schismatical offspring of that of the Hindoos, deriving its origin from one of the followers of that faith, a disciple of Boodh, who first broached the doctrine which now prevails over the wide extent of Tartary. It is reported to have received its earliest admission into that part of Tibet bordering upon India (which from hence became the seat of the sovereign lamas), to have traversed over Manchew Tartary, and to have been ultimately disseminated over China and Japan. Though it differs from the Hindoo in many of its outward forms, yet it still bears a very close affinity to the religion of Brahma in many important particulars. The principal idol in the temples of Tibet is Mahamoonie (a name which in Sanscrit literally signifies great saint), the Budha or Boodh of Bengal, who is worshipped under these, and various other epithets throughout the great extent of Tartary, and among all the nations to the eastward of the Burham-pooter. In the wide extended space over which this faith prevails, the same object of veneration is acknowledged under numerous titles: among others he is styled Godama or Gowtama in Assam and Ava; Samana in Siam; Amida Buth in Japan; Fohi in China; Budha or Boodh in Bengal and Hindoostan; Dherma Raja and Mahamoonie in Bootan and Tibet. Durga and Kali; Ganeish, the emblem of wisdom; and Carlikeah with his numerous heads and arms, as well as many other deities of the Hindoo mythology, have also a place in their assemblage of gods.

"The same places of popular esteem, or religious resort, as I have already hinted, are equally respected in Tibet and in Bengal. Praag, Cashi, Durgedin, Sangor, and Jagarnaut, are objects of devout pilgrimage; and I have seen loads of the sacred water taken from the Ganges, travelling over those mountains (which, by the bye, contribute largely to its increase), upon the shoulders of men, whom enthusiasts have deemed it worth their while to hire at a considerable expense for so pious a purpose.

"As far as I am able to judge respecting their ritual or ceremonial, it differs materially from the Hindoo. The Tibetians assemble in chapels, and unite together in prodigious numbers to perform their religious service, which they chant in alternate recitative and chorus, accompanied by an extensive band of loud and powerful instruments; so that whenever I heard these congregations, they forcibly recalled to my recollection both the solemnity and sound of a Roman catholic mass."*

[LANGUAGE.] The language of Tibet is said to be radically different both from that of the Manchews and that of the Moguls. According to Mr. Turner, it consists almost entirely of nasal and guttural sounds. The alphabetic characters are of two kinds, the *uchem* and the *umin*; the former of which is the character in which the sacred

* Turner, p. 306, 307.

writings are preserved, and considerably resembles the Sanscrit; the other is the alphabet used for business and common correspondence. The vowels are indicated by marks or points, and the order of writing, contrary to the usual practice in the east, is from the left to the right. Printing with blocks of wood, in the manner of the Chinese, is said to have been known in Tibet from a very remote age.

HISTORY.] The temporal government of Tibet has not been always in the possession of the lamas. According to the letters of father Andrada, who was in Tibet in the year 1624, that country was then governed by a secular sovereign, named Tsang-pa-han, who was a zealous protector of the Christian religion, and seemed greatly inclined to embrace it. The Tartar history of the same period corroborates this circumstance, for it relates that this prince despised the lamas, abandoned the law of the god Fo, and sought every opportunity to destroy it. The dalai lama being highly incensed at not receiving the homage of Tsang-pa-han, formed a league with the Tartars of Kokonor, who under their prince or khan, named Kouchi, entered Tibet at the head of a powerful army, attacked Tsang-pa-han, defeated him, and took him prisoner, and some time after caused him to be put to death. To this Tartar prince the dalai lama was indebted for his sovereignty over all Tibet; for, far from appropriating to himself the fruits of his victory, Kouchi declared himself a vassal of the supreme chief of his religion, and satisfied with receiving from him the title of khan, which he had never before enjoyed. This prince, to continue his protection to the dalai lama, and secure to him the undisturbed possession of his new acquisitions, fixed his residence, accompanied by his troops, in the neighbourhood of Lassa. His sons had no great inclination to return to a country which their father had abandoned, but followed his example and remained in Tibet.

In 1642, the dalai lama sent ambassadors to Tsongte, father to the first emperor of the present dynasty of the Manchew Tartars, threw himself under his protection, and paid him tribute. Ten years after, the dalai lama himself went to Peking, and did homage to the emperor. He was loaded with honours, received a golden seal and magnificent presents from the emperor, and was confirmed in his title of Dalai Lama.

In 1693, the emperor Kanghi, being desirous of honouring the *tya*, or minister of the dalai lama, declared him a prince, and granted him a golden seal. This minister, however, was far from being faithful to the interests of the emperor; he, on the contrary, secretly betrayed them to the ambitious views of Kaldan, the chief of the Eluts, who was the declared enemy of the Manchew Tartars. He even endeavoured to persuade the grand lama, not to go to Peking when called thither by the emperor, and when the dalai lama died he concealed his death. At length, however, all these intrigues were discovered in 1705, and Lats-khan, the chief of the Tartars of Kokonor, caused this perfidious minister to be put to death. Kanghi, informed of the crimes which he had committed, approved of the punishment inflicted on him, and sent some of the grandes of his court to Tibet, to govern that country in conjunction with the Tartar prince, on whom he lavished many rich presents. He afterwards appointed a new dalai lama, who was the sixth who had borne that title.

In 1714, Tchongkar, the principal chief of the Eluts, made an irruption into Tibet, and carried away a great quantity of rich plunder in gold, silver, precious stones, silks, and other valuable things. The

Tartar prince, who endeavoured to resist the invaders, was killed in battle, many of the lamas were put to the sword, and the monastery at Pootala was reduced to ashes. The dalai lama made application to the court of China for succours, and the emperor immediately sent a powerful army to his assistance, which drove the Eluts out of the country, re-established the dalai lama in his authority, and restored to the other lamas possession of their pagodas or monasteries.

Since 1759, when the Eluts were finally subjugated by the late emperor of China, Kien Long, the Tibetians have had nothing to fear from the incursions of those Tartars. But in 1792, the mountaineers of Nipaul invaded and ravaged the country, plundering the monasteries of their treasures, and robbing the mausolea of the lamas. The emperor of China, however, as soon as he had received information of this attack, sent an army to protect and avenge the lama. The Nipalese were defeated, and could only obtain peace on condition of becoming tributary to China, and making a full restitution of all the plunder they had carried off. The Chinese at the same time established military posts on the frontiers of Tibet, which prevent all communication between that country and Bengal, as the Chinese guard them with their accustomed jealousy and caution, and the approach of strangers, even of the natives of Bengal and Hindoostan, is utterly prohibited.*

INDEPENDENT TARTARY.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 1500 } Breadth 850 }	between { 31 and 52 North latitude. 55 and 70 East longitude. }	500,000

BOUNDARIES.] THESE are, on the east, the mountains of Belur, which separate this part of Tartary from Little Bucharia, now subjected by the Chinese; on the south, the mountains of Gaur, which divide it from Persia; and the provinces of Candahar and Cabul, in Hindoostan; on the west, the Caspian sea, the river Ural or Yaik, and the Uralian mountains; and on the north, the Russian dominions in Asia.

DIVISIONS.] Independent Tartary consists of extensive tracts inhabited by the Kirguses or Kirgusian Tartars; the country of Kharism, and Great Bucharia, inhabited by the Ushéc Tartars.—Great Bucharia is divided into the provinces of Fergana, Sogd, Vash, Kottan, Balk, Gaur, and Kilan.

MOUNTAINS, LAKES, RIVERS.] The principal mountains of this country are the Belur Tag, the ancient Imaus, and the mountains of Argjun and of Gaur. The most considerable lakes are that of Aral, about 200 miles in length and 70 in breadth; and that of Balcash, 140 miles long and 70 broad. The chief rivers are the Anu or Gihoon, the ancient Oxus; and the Sir or Sihoon, the ancient Iaxartes. The former rises in the mountains of Belur, and falls into the lake of Aral, after a course of about 900 miles; the latter rises among the same

* Turner, p. 442.

mountains, and falls into the same lake, after a course of about 550 miles.

METALS, MINERALS.] Several parts of this country contain gold, silver, iron, copper, vitriol, and sal ammoniac. Rich quarries of lapis lazuli abound in Great Bucharia, and several kinds of valuable stones, particularly rubies, are found here; but the natives have neither skill nor industry to derive much advantage from the mineral riches of this country.

CLIMATE, SOIL, PRODUCE.] The climate appears to be extremely temperate and salubrious; and the soil, in the southern parts at least, very productive, the grass, it is said, sometimes growing there to above the height of a man. Rice and other kinds of grain, as also exquisite melons, pears, and apples, are among the productions of Great Bucharia.

ANIMALS.] The animals here are nearly the same as in Tibet, the north of Persia, and other surrounding countries. The grunting ox, chamois goats, and wild asses, are found among the mountains on the south and north.

INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS.] The Kirguses or Kirgusian Tartars, who inhabit the northern part of this country, live in tents, and lead a wandering life. They consist of three hordes, called the great, lesser, and middle horde, each of which has its particular khan. They dwell always in portable huts, which they remove from time to time to different places in search of pasturage for their flocks and herds, which constitutes their principal occupation. They have horses, camels, cattle, sheep, and goats; and it is asserted that some individuals in the middle horde have 10,000 horses, 300 camels, 3 or 4000 cattle, 20,000 sheep, and more than 2000 goats. They have flat noses, small eyes, a sharp, but not a fierce look, and a frank and prepossessing air. The decoration of their horses employs them almost as much as that of their persons, they having generally elegant saddles, handsome housings, and ornamented bridles. They are great eaters, and they also smoke tobacco to excess. Men, women, and children all smoke and take snuff, the latter of which they keep in little horns fastened to their girdles. The great and wealthy live perfectly in the same manner as the rest of the people, and are distinguished only by the numerous train that accompanies them in their cavalcades, and the number of huts which surround their quarters, inhabited by their wives, children, and slaves.

The Usbec Tartars, who inhabit the southern parts of this country, resemble in their persons, manners, and customs, the other Tartarian tribes, except that they are in general more spirited and industrious. They are addicted to predatory warfare, and frequently make sudden incursions into the Persian provinces; on which occasions, it is said, the women likewise bear arms, and accompany their husbands to the field. Many of these Tartars reside in tents in the summer, but take up their abode in the towns and villages in winter. Those of Balk are the most civilized, and carry on a considerable trade with Persia and Hindoostan. The native Bucharians are of a fairer complexion than the Usbecs, and of a more peaceable disposition, as it is said they never bear arms.

CITIES, CHIEF TOWNS.] Samarcand, situate on the southern bank of the river Sogd, was anciently the seat of empire of the celebrated Timur or Tamerlane. It is fortified with strong bulwarks of earth: the houses are principally of hardened clay, though some are built

with stone procured from quarries in the vicinity. There is a citadel or castle which is now almost in ruins. Bokhara, situate likewise on the Sogd, in the middle of the last century was a large and flourishing city, with a wall of earth, and several mosques built with brick. Balk, on the river Dehash, is also large and populous, with houses of brick and stone, and a palace or castle built almost entirely of marble brought from the neighbouring mountains. Badakshan, on the river Amu, is a small town, but well built, and containing a considerable number of inhabitants.

TRADE.] The Kirguisians trade with the Russians: their traffic is entirely carried on by barter, and they exchange their horses, cattle, and sheep for manufactures, principally clothing and furniture. Arms of every kind are refused them by the Russians, and they procure them, by the same kind of barter, from Great Bucharia, and the southern parts of the country.

The Tartars of Great Bucharia are a very commercial people: their caravans travel through a great part of Asia, and traffic with Persia, Tibet, China, and Russia. Their principal marts in the latter country are Tomsk and Orenburg.

GOVERNMENT.] The Kirguses and Usbecs are subject to princes called khans, whose power is despotic over their several hordes and tribes. In Great Bucharia, the khan of Samarcand in the north, and the khan of Balk in the south, are, it is probable, the principal sovereigns of the country.

RELIGION.] The religion of almost all the Tartars of these countries is the Mahometan, according to the tenets of the sect of the Sunnis.

LEARNING.] The reader may be surprised to find this article in an account of the Tartars; yet nothing is more certain, than that under Zingis Khan and Tamerlane, and their early descendents, Astracan and the neighbouring countries were the seats of learning and politeness as well as empire and magnificence. Modern luxury, be it ever so splendid, falls short of that of those princes; and some remains of their taste in architecture are still extant, but in spots so desolate, that they are almost inaccessible. The encouragement of learning was the first care of the prince, and it was generally cultivated by his own relations or principal grandees. They wrote in the Persian and Arabic tongues. The name of Ulug Beig, the grandson of the great Timur, is well known to astronomers; and Abulgazi, the khan of Kharism, wrote the history of his country. Samarcand was a celebrated university for eastern science; and even in the last century was still a flourishing school for Mahometan literature.

ANTIQUITIES.] These consist of the ruins of edifices erected by Zingis Khan, Timur, and their successors. Remains of ditches and ramparts are frequently met with, which heretofore either surrounded small towns, now quite demolished, or were designed for the defence of camps, forts, or castles, the vestiges of which are often to be discovered. Many of them are still in tolerable preservation. In the uncultivated tracts, occupied by the Kirguisians, are many relics of opulent cities. Some gold and silver coins have likewise been found, with several manuscripts neatly written, which have been carried to Petersburg. In 1720, there was found in Calmuc Tartary a subterraneous house of stone, some urns, lamps, and ear-rings; an equestrian statue; an image of 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.] The country of Usbec Tartary was once the seat of a more powerful empire than that of Rome or Greece. It was not only the native country, but the favourite residence of Zingis or Jenghis Khan, and Timur or Tamerlane, who enriched it with the spoils of India and the eastern world.

The former, about the year 1200, made himself master of those regions which form at this day the Asiatic part of the Russian empire; and his son, Batou Sagin, conquered Southern Russia, and peopled it with Tartar colonies, which are now confounded or bleuded with the Russians. It was not until the time of Ivan III. who ascended the Russian throne in 1462, that the Russians were able to throw off the galling yoke of the Tartars. Ivan repeatedly defeated them, subdued the kingdom of Kasan, and other provinces, and made his name respected through all the neighbouring countries.

The fame of Tamerlane has been more permanent than that of Zingis Khan: his defeat of the Turkish emperor Bajazet has been noticed in the history of that nation. The honour of being descended from him is claimed not only by all the khans and petty princes of Tartary, but by the emperor of Hindoostan himself.

When the vast dominions of Zingis Khan fell to pieces, under his successors in the sixteenth century, the Mogul and Tartar hordes, who had formed one empire, again separated, and have since continued distinct.

THE RUSSIAN EMPIRE IN ASIA.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 5900	between { 37 and 190 East longitude. 50 and 78 North latitude. }	3,650,000
Breadth 1800		

BOUNDARIES.] THE Russian dominions in Asia are bounded on the north by the Arctic Ocean; on the east by the seas of Kamtschatka and Ochotsk, or the Eastern Ocean; on the south by Chinese and Independent Tartary, Persia, and Turkey; and on the west by Russia in Europe.

DIVISIONS.] The governments of the Russian empire in general have already been enumerated: those of which a part or the whole are in Asia, are Caucasia, Saratof, Simbirsk, Orenburg, Ufa, Kazan, Perm, Tobolsk, Kolhyvan, Irkutsk: to which is to be added the peninsula of Kamtschatka.

The three great governments of Tobolsk, Kolhyvan, and Irkutsk, are called by the general name of Siberia, from an ancient city named *Sibir*, which is said to have stood on the banks of the Irtysh, near the present city of Tobolsk, and to have been the residence of the old sovereigns of this part of Asia. The government of Tobolsk is divided into the two provinces of Tobolsk and Tomsk; and that of Irkutsk into the four provinces of Irkutsk, Nershinsk, Yakutsk, and Okotsk.

MOUNTAINS.] The mountains of Asiatic Russia are the Uralian chain, which divides it from Russian Europe; the mountains of Caucasus, those of Altai, called by the Chinese the Golden Ridge; and those of Nerzhinsk, or Russian Daouria.

RIVERS.] The chief rivers of this country are the Ob or Oby, the largest in the Russian empire, the length of its course being 1900 miles; and the Yenissei, which has a course of about 1750. The former falls into the sea of Ob, a gulf of the Frozen Ocean; in which ocean the Yenissei likewise terminates. The other principal rivers are the Irtysh, which falls into the Ob; the Lena; the Angora, which falls into the Yenissei; the Argun or Argoon, the boundary of the Russian and Chinese territory; the Selinga, and the Yaik or Ural.

In the southern part of Siberia, near the confines of Chinese Tartary, is the lake or sea of Baikal, 350 miles long and about 50 broad. There are also other lakes of less note.

METALS, MINERALS.] Siberia contains mines of gold, silver, copper, iron, lead, jasper, and lapis lazuli. Asiatic Russia also produces sulphur, alum, sal ammoniac, vitriol, nitre, and natron, in abundance.

CLIMATE, SOIL, PRODUCE.] The government of Caucasias, and in general the southern parts of this extensive region 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. The summers are very dry, and from the end of July to the beginning of October the air is pestered, and the soil sometimes ruined, by incredible quantities of locusts. Mr. Bell, who travelled with the Russian ambassador to China, represents some parts of Tartary as desirable and fertile countries, the grass growing spontaneously to an amazing height. The climate of Siberia is cold, but the air is pure and wholesome; and Mr. Tooke observes, that its inhabitants, in all probability, would live to an extreme old age, if they were not so much addicted to an immoderate use of intoxicating liquors. Siberia produces rye, oats, and barley, almost to the 60th degree of northern latitude. Cabbages, radishes, turneps, and cucumbers, thrive here tolerably well; but scarcely any other greens. All experiments to bring fruit-trees to bear have hitherto been in vain; but there is reason to believe that industry and patience may at length overcome the rudeness of the climate. Currants and strawberries of several sorts are said to grow here in as great perfection as in the English gardens. Herbs, as well medicinal as common, together with various edible roots, are found very generally here: but there are no bees in all Siberia.

ANIMALS.] These are camels, dromedaries, rein deers, bears, bisons, wolves, and all the other land and amphibious animals that are common in the northern 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 a river, and on seeing a shoal or fry of small fishes, spreads his wings and drives them to a shallow, where he gobbles as many of them as he can into his bag, and then going ashore, eats them, or

carries them to his young. This bird is probably a species of the pelican.

The forests of Siberia are well stocked with a variety of animals, some of which are not to be found in other countries. These supply the inhabitants with food and clothes; and, at the same time, furnish them with commodities for an advantageous trade. Siberia may be considered as the native country of black foxes, sables, and ermines, the skins of which are here superior to those of any part of the world. Horses and cattle are in great plenty.

NATURAL CURIOSITIES.] Among these may be enumerated the extensive desert levels called steppes, which extend several hundred miles with no appearance of a mountain and scarcely of a hill. They contain in many places salt lakes, and in others, productive tracts capable of cultivation. The peninsula of Kamtschatka abounds in volcanos, of which however only three have, for several years past, produced eruptions. The same country is likewise said to contain numerous springs of hot-water.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS.] The population of Asiatic Russia, notwithstanding its vast extent, is not estimated at more than three millions and a half, or four millions.

The inhabitants of this part of the Russian empire are composed of many different nations, principally Tartar tribes, some of whom now live in fixed houses and villages, and pay tribute like other subjects. Till lately they were not admitted into the Russian armies, but now they make excellent soldiers. Other Russian Tartars retain their ancient habits, and live a wandering life. Both sides of the Volga are inhabited by Tchernises and Morduars, a peaceable industrious people. The Bashkirs are likewise fixed inhabitants of the tract that reaches from Kazan to the frontiers of Siberia, and have certain privileges of which they are tenacious. The wandering Kalmucs occupy the rest of the tract to Astracan and the frontiers of the Usbees; and in consideration of certain presents which they receive from the sovereigns of Russia, they serve in their armies without pay, but are apt to plunder equally friends and foes.

The character of the Tartars of Kazan may serve for that of all the Mahometan Tartars in their neighbourhood. Very few of them are tall: but they are generally straight and well made, have small faces, with fresh complexions, and a sprightly and agreeable air. They are haughty and jealous of their honour, but of very moderate capacity. They are sober and frugal, dexterous at mechanical trades, and fond of neatness. The Tartarian women are of a wholesome complexion rather than handsome, and of a good constitution: from their earliest infancy they are accustomed to labour, retirement, modesty, and submission. The Tartars of Kazan take great care of the education of their children. They habituate their youth to labour, to sobriety, and to a strict observance of the manners of their ancestors. They are taught to read and write, and are instructed in the Arabic tongue, and the principles of their religion. Even the smallest village has its chapel, school, priest, and schoolmaster; though some of these priests and schoolmasters are not much skilled in the Arabic language. The best Tartarian academies in the Russian empire are those of Kazan, Tobolsk, and Astracan, which are under the direction of the gagouns, or high-priests. It is not uncommon to find small collections of historical anecdotes in manuscript, in the huts of the boors: and their

merchants, besides what those little libraries contain, are pretty extensively acquainted with the history of their own people, and that of the circumjacent states, and with the antiquities of each. Such as choose to make a progress in theology, enter themselves into the schools of Bucharia, which are more complete than the others.

The Tartar citizens of Kazan, Orenberg, and other governments, carry on commerce, exercise several trades, and have some manufactories. Their manner of dealing is chiefly by way of barter; coin is very rarely seen among them, and bills of exchange never. They are not in general very enterprising; but as they extend their connexions by partners and clerks, many of them carry on a great deal of business, which their parsimonious way of life renders very lucrative. At Kazan they make a trade of preparing what is called in England Morocco-leather. The villages of these people comprehend from ten to one hundred farms. Most of them also contain tanners, shoemakers, tailors, dyers, smiths, and carpenters.

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

The *Tchouwasches* dwell along the two sides of the Volga, in the governments of Kazan and Orenberg. They never live in towns, but assemble in small villages of huts, and choose the forests for their habitations. They are very fond of hunting, and procure for that purpose screw-barrel muskets, which they prefer to the bow. One of their marriage-ceremonies is, that on the wedding night the bride is obliged to pull off her husband's boots. The husband exercises a lordly authority over the wife, and she is obliged to obey all his commands without reply.

The *Votiaks*, who are a Finnish race, chiefly inhabit the government of Kazan. Some of the *Votiaks* are Christians, but great part of them are heathens and idolaters, though even these believe the doctrine of a future state of rewards and punishments.

The *Ostiaks*, who are likewise a Finnish race, are one of the most numerous nations of Siberia. Before they were in subjection to Russia, they were governed by princes of their own nation, and their descendants are still reputed noble. These people divide themselves into different stocks or tribes, and they choose their chiefs from the progeny of their ancient rulers. These maintain peace and good order, and superintend the payment of the taxes. They are entirely unacquainted with the use of letters, and are extremely ignorant. It is even said that they cannot reckon farther than ten.

The *Voguls* are rather below the middle stature. Their principal occupation is the chase, in which they discover much eagerness and address; using indiscriminately fire-arms, the bow, and the spear. They are also skilful in contriving traps, snares, and gins, for various kinds of game.

The *Kalmucs* are a courageous tribe, and numerous; for the most part raw-boned and stout. Their visage is so flat, that the skull of a Kalmuc may be easily known from others. They have thick lips, a small nose, and a short chin, the complexion a reddish and yellowish brown. Their clothing is oriental, and their heads are exactly Chinese.

Some of their women wear a large golden ring in their nostrils. Their principal food is animals, tame and wild: and even their chiefs will feed upon cattle that have died of distemper or age, and though the flesh be putrid; so that in every horde the flesh-market has the appearance of a lay-stall of carrion: they eat likewise the roots and plants of their deserts. They are great eaters, but can endure want for a long time without complaint. Both sexes smoke continually: during the summer they remain in the northern, and in the winter in the southern deserts. They sleep upon felt or carpeting, and cover themselves with the same.

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

The *Kamtschadales* have a lively imagination, a strong memory, and a great genius for imitation. Their chief employments are hunting and fishing. The chace furnishes them with sables, foxes, and other game. They are very expert at fishing, and are well acquainted with the proper seasons for it. They eat and drink great quantities; but as what they eat is always cold, their teeth are very fine. Dogs are their only domestic animals, and they put a high value upon them. Some of them travel in small carriages drawn by dogs; and a complete Kamtschadalian equipage, dogs, harness, and all, costs in that country near twenty rubles, or 4l. 10s. The Kamtschadales believed the immortality of the soul, before they were prevailed upon to embrace the Christian religion. They are superstitious to extravagance, and extremely singular and capricious in the different enjoyments of life, particularly their convivial entertainments.

The manners of the Siberians were formerly so barbarous, that Peter the Great thought he could not inflict a greater punishment upon his capital enemies, the Swedes, than by banishing them to Siberia. The effect was, that the Swedish officers and soldiers introduced European usages and manufactures into the country, and thereby acquired a comfortable living. Kamtschatka is now considered as the most horrid place of exile in the vast empire of Russia; and hither some of the greatest criminals are sent.

CITIES, CHIEF TOWNS.] Astracan, situate on an island formed by the river Volga, near its entrance into the Caspian sea, is a large and populous city, containing about 70,000 inhabitants. It is about a league in circumference, and surrounded by a wall. It contains twenty-five Russian churches and two convents, and is the seat of a Greek bishop. The Armenians, Lutherans, and Roman Catholics, have also their places of worship, and even the Hindoos a temple.

Orenburg, the capital of the government of Ufa, was built in 1738, by order of the empress Anne, at the conflux of the Or and Ural: but that situation being found inconvenient, the inhabitants were

removed and the town built lower down on the Ural, in 1740. It is now a place of considerable trade.

Tobolsk, the chief town of the government of the same name, and considered as the capital of all Siberia, is situate at the confluence of the Irtysh and the Tobol. It consists of two towns, called the upper and the lower town, and contains about 15,000 inhabitants. It has a tolerably strong fortress. To this city are sent the Russian state-prisoners who are banished into Siberia.

Irkutsk, the capital of the government of that name, situate on the Angara, near the lake Baikal, contains several churches and other edifices of stone, and about 12,000 inhabitants. It is a place of considerable commerce, the caravans which trade between Russia and China passing through it.

Tomsk, the chief town of the province of that name, in the government of Tobolsk, is a place of considerable trade, and contains about 2000 houses and 8000 inhabitants. Yakutsk, which gives name to a province in the government of Irkutsk, stands on the river Lena; it contains about five or six hundred wooden houses, and is defended by a wooden fort. Ochotsk, which gives name to another province of the same government, is a small town or rather station, situate at the mouth of the river Ochota, on a gulph of the Eastern ocean, called the sea of Ochotsk.

Bolchetskoioströg, which has the title of capital of Kamtschatka, and is the residence of the governor, contains about 500 houses pretty regularly built.

MANUFACTURES, COMMERCE.] There are manufactures of leather and isinglass at Astracan; and a considerable trade is carried on there in salt, produced in great quantities from the salt lakes and marshes in the vicinity of the Caspian sea; as also in fish procured from the same sea. The principal trade of Siberia is in sables and other furs, which are purchased with avidity by the Chinese, who in return bring tea, silk, and other commodities. The trade of the Kirgusses and Bucharians with Orenberg and Omsk has been mentioned in the account of Independent Tartary.

RELIGION.] Some of the Tartars since the Russians have been settled in their country have become converts to Christianity; but the greater part of them still remain attached to their old superstitions.

Tobolsk is a Greek archbishopric; Irkutsk and Nershink are bishops' sees.

ANTIQUITIES.] In the environs of Astracan the ruins of ancient Astracan are very visible; and the rubbish and ramparts of another respectable town still exist near Tzaritzin, on the left shore of the Volga. A little below the mouth of the Kama, which empties itself into the above-mentioned river, are many superb monuments of the ancient city Bulgari, consisting of towers, mosques, houses, and sepulchres, all built of stone or brick. The oldest epitaphs have been there more than eleven centuries, and the most modern at least four hundred years. Not far from hence, on the Tscheremtscham, a little river that runs into the Volga, are found ruins somewhat more injured by the depredations of time: they are those of Boulmer, an ancient and very considerable city of the Bulgarians. The Tartars have erected upon its ruins the small town of Bilyairsk. In the fortress of Kazan is a monument of the ancient Tartarian kingdom of that name. Its lofty walls are so broad, that they serve at present

for ramparts; the turrets of which, as well as the old palace of the khan, are built of hewn stone. Ascending the river Kazanha, we meet with epitaphs, and the strong ramparts of the old city of Kazan. Near the Ufa are cemeteries full of innumerable inscriptions, and several sepulchral vaults. The ramparts of Sibir, the ancient capital of Tartary, are still seen near Tobolsk, upon the Irtysh. The lofty walls of Tontoura appear yet in the Baraba, a little gulph in the river Om; and near the mouth of the Ural are the ditches of the city Saratschik.

In many parts of Siberia, particularly near the river Jenissei, are stone tombs with rude sculptures of human faces, camels, horsemen with lances, &c. In these tombs are found human bones, as also the bones of horses and oxen, fragments of earthenware, and various ornaments and trinkets.

HISTORY.] The Russians, though they had made some incursions into the interior parts of Asia as early as the middle of the fifteenth century, under the reign of John Basilides, or Ivan Vassilievitch, had no fixed establishments there till nearly the middle of the sixteenth; when Trogonoff or Strogonoff, a Russian merchant of Archangel, having found means to open a trade for furs with Siberia, the czar then on the throne, Ivan Vassilievitch II. to whom he disclosed the nature of his connexions, promised him protection, and in 1558 assumed the title of lord of Sibir or Siberia. Soon after, Yermac, a chief of the Don Cossacs, being compelled by the progress of the Russian conquests to submit, or seek some distant place of refuge, retired with a number of his followers into Siberia, where, having defeated the Tartar khan of Sibir, he seized his capital, and made it his residence; but finding himself too weak to preserve his conquests, he applied to Russia for succours and protection, and sent a deputation to do homage to the czar as his sovereign. In the course of two or three years after, almost all the Cossacs were killed in repeated battles, and Yermac himself was drowned in attempting to leap into a boat. The Russians, however, after many conflicts, secured to themselves the possession of this extensive country; and by the middle of the seventeenth century had advanced to the river Amur, where they built some forts, which occasioned hostilities between them and the Chinese, who destroyed the Russian forts. These disputes were terminated by the treaty of Nerstinsk, concluded in 1689, by which the Argoon was made the boundary of the Russian and Chinese territories. The limits of the former were somewhat enlarged in 1727. Kamtschatka was reduced under the power of the Russians about the year 1711.

ISLANDS BELONGING TO RUSSIA, IN ASIA.

THE sea which separates the southern point of the peninsula of Kamtschatka from Japan, contains a number of islands in a position from north-north-east to south-south-west, which are called the **KURILE ISLANDS**. They are upwards of twenty in number, are all mountainous, and in several of them are volcanoes and hot springs. The principal of these islands are inhabited: but some of the little ones are entirely desert and unpeopled. They differ much from each

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other, in respect both to their situation and natural constitution. The forests in the more northern ones are composed of laryx and pines ; those in the southern produce canes, bamboos, vines, &c. In some of them are bears and foxes. The sea-otter appears on the coasts of all these islands, as well as whales, sea-horses, seals, and other amphibious animals. Some of the inhabitants of these islands have a great likeness to the Japanese, in their manners, language, and personal appearance ; others very much resemble the Kamtschadales. The northern islands acknowledge the sovereignty of the empire of Russia ; but those of the south pay homage to Japan. The Kurilians discover much humanity and probity in their conduct, and are courteous and hospitable ; but adversity renders them timid, and prompts them to suicide. They have a particular veneration for old age. They reverence an old man whoever he be, but have an especial affection for those of their respective families. Their language is agreeable to the ear, and they speak and pronounce it slowly. The men are employed in hunting, fishing for sea animals and whales, and catching fowl. Their canoes are made of the wood that their forests produce, or that the sea casts upon their shores. The women have charge of the kitchen, and make clothes. In the northern isles they sew, and make different cloths of the thread of nettles. The southern islanders are more refined and polished than the northern, and carry on a sort of commerce with Japan, whither they export whale-oil, furs, and eagles' feathers to fledge arrows with. In return, they bring Japanese utensils of metal and varnished wood, skillers, sabres, different stuffs, ornaments of luxury and parade, tobacco, all sorts of trinkets, and small wares.

Between the eastern coast of Kamtschatka, and the western coast of America, are several groups of islands, divided by Mr. Muller into four principal groups ; the first two of which are called the ALEUTIAN ISLANDS.* The first group, which is called by some of the islanders Sasignam, comprehends, 1. Beering's Island ; 2. Copper Island ; 3. Otma ; 4. Samyra, or Shemyia ; 5. Anakta. The second group is called Khao, and comprises eight islands, viz. 1. Immak ; 2. Kiska ; 3. Tchetchia ; 4. Ava ; 5. Kavia ; 6. Tschangulek ; 7. Ulagama ; 8. Amtschidga. The third general name is Negho, and comprehends the islands known to the Russians under the name of Andreanoffski Ostrova ; sixteen of which are mentioned under the following names : 1. Amatkinak ; 2. Ulak ; 3. Unalga ; 4. Navotsha ; 5. Uliga ; 6. Anagin ; 7. Kagulak ; 8. Ilask, or Ilak ; 9. Takavanga, upon which is a volcano ; 10. Kanaga, which has also a volcano ; 11. Leg ; 12. Sketsbuna ; 13. Tagaloon ; 14. Gorleoi ; 15. Otchu ;

* Mr. Cove observes, that " the first project for making discoveries in that tempestuous sea which lies between Kamtschatka and America was conceived and planned by Peter I." Voyages with that view were accordingly undertaken at the expense of the crown ; but, when it was discovered that the islands of that sea abounded with valuable furs, private merchants immediately engaged with ardour in similar expeditions ; and within a period of ten years, more important discoveries were made by those individuals, at their own private cost, than had hitherto been effected by all the efforts of the crown. The investigation of useful knowledge has also been greatly encouraged by the late empress of Russia ; and the most distant parts of her vast dominions, and other countries and islands, have been explored, at her expense, by persons of abilities and learning ; in consequence of which, considerable discoveries have been made.

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16. Amla. The fourth group is called Kavalang, and comprehends sixteen islands; which are called by the Russians *Lyssic Ostrova*, or the *Fox Islands*; and which are named, 1. Amuchta; 2. Tschigama; 3. Tschegula; 4. Unistra; 5. Ulaga; 6. Tauagulana; 7. Kagamin; 8. Kigalga; 9. Skelmaga; 10. Umnak; 11. Agun-Alashska; 12. Unimma; 13. Uligan; 14. Anturo Leissume; 15. Semidit; 16. Senagak.

Some of these islands are only inhabited occasionally, and for some months in the year, and others are very thinly peopled; but others have a great number of inhabitants, who constantly reside in them. Copper Island receives its name from the copper which the sea throws up on its coasts. The inhabitants of these islands are in general of a short stature, with strong robust limbs, but free and supple. They have lank black hair and little beard, flattish faces, and fair skins. They are for the most part well made, and of strong constitutions, suitable to the boisterous climate of their isles. The inhabitants of the Aleutian isles live upon the roots which grow wild, and sea animals. They do not employ themselves in catching fish, though the rivers abound with all kinds of salmon, and the sea with turbot. Their clothes are made of the skins of birds, and of sea otters.

The Fox islands are so called from the great number of black, grey, and red foxes with which they abound. The dress of the inhabitants consists of a cap, and a fur coat which reaches down to the knee. Some of them wear common caps of a party-coloured bird-skin, upon which they leave part of the wings and tail. On the fore part of their hunting and fishing caps they place a small board like a skreen, adorned with the jaw-bones of sea-bears, and ornamented with glass beads which they receive in barter from the Russians. At their festivals and dancing parties they use a much more showy sort of caps. They feed upon the flesh of all sorts of sea animals, and generally eat it raw. But if at any time they choose to dress their victuals, they make use of a hollow stone: having placed their fish or flesh therein, they cover it with another, and close the interstices with lime or clay. They then lay it horizontally upon two stones, and light a fire under it. The provision intended for keeping is dried without salt in the open air. Their weapons consist of bows, arrows, and darts, and for defence they use wooden shields.

The most perfect equality reigns among these islanders. They have neither chiefs nor superiors, neither laws nor punishments. They live together in families, and societies of several families united, which form what they call a race, who, in case of an attack, or defence, mutually aid and support each other. The inhabitants of the same island always pretend to be of the same race; and every person looks upon his island as a possession, the property of which is common to all the individuals of the same society. Feasts are very common among them, and more particularly when the inhabitants of one island are visited by those of the others. The men of the village meet their guests beating drums, and preceded by the women, who sing and dance. At the conclusion of the dance, the hosts serve up their best provisions, and invite their guests to partake of the feast. They feed their children when very young with the coarsest flesh, and for the most part raw. If an infant cries, the mother immediately carries it to the sea side, and, whether it be summer or winter, holds it naked in the water until it is quiet. This custom is so far from doing the children any harm, that it hardens them against the cold, and they

accordingly go barefooted through the winter without the least inconvenience. They seldom heat their dwellings; but, when they are desirous of warming themselves, they light a bundle of hay, and stand over it; or else they set fire to train oil, which they pour into a hollow stone. They have a good share of plain natural sense, but are rather slow of understanding. They seem cold and indifferent in most of their actions; but let an injury, or even a suspicion only, rouse them from this phlegmatic state, and they become inflexible and furious, taking the most violent revenge, without any regard to the consequences. The least affliction prompts them to suicide; the apprehension of even an uncertain evil often leads them to despair, and they put an end to their days with great apparent insensibility.

THE INDIAN AND ORIENTAL ISLANDS.

THE JAPAN ISLANDS consist of three large and a great number of small islands, which constitute together what has been called the *empire of JAPAN*. They are situated about 150 miles east of China, between the 30th and 41st degree of north latitude, and between the 130th and 142d of east longitude. The largest of these islands is called by the Japanese, Nippon or Nipon; but by the Chinese, Sippon and Jepuen, whence the European name of Japan. It is about 750 miles in length and 80 in breadth. The islands of which this kingdom consists are divided into seven departments, which again are subdivided into sixty-eight provinces, and these into six hundred and four districts.

The whole country consists almost entirely of mountains, hills, and valleys, and a plain of any extent is scarcely to be seen. One of the highest mountains is named Fusi: its summit reaches above the clouds, and it may be seen at the distance of many leagues. There are several volcanoes in these islands, one of which is constantly in a state of eruption. Gold is found in several parts; but it is prohibited to dig more than a certain stated quantity; nor can any mine of any metal whatever be opened and wrought, without the emperor's express permission. The heat in summer is very great, and would be insupportable, were not the air cooled by the sea breezes. The cold in winter is equally severe: the weather is in general changeable, and a great deal of rain falls in the rainy season, rendering the soil which is most industriously cultivated, exuberantly fertile. There seems to be no peculiar animals in these islands. There are buffaloes, wolves, foxes, and dogs. The horses, cattle, and sheep, are very few for a country so populous. Its population, however, is not known with any degree of certainty; but if, as some accounts have stated, it maintains nearly half a million of men in arms, the number of inhabitants may be conjectured to be between twenty and thirty millions.

The complexions of the Japanese are in general yellowish, although some few, chiefly women, are almost white. Their narrow eyes and eye-brows are like those of the Chinese and Tartars, and their noses are short and thick. Their hair is universally black.

The dress of the Japanese may with more propriety be termed national, than that of any other part of the world; as it not only differs from that of every other nation, but is uniform from the monarch

down to the most inferior subject, similar in both sexes, and (which almost surpasses belief) has been unchanged for the space of 2500 years. It consists of one or more loose gowns, tied about the middle with a sash. People of rank have them made of silk, but the lower class of cotton stuffs. Women generally wear a greater number of them than men, and much longer, and have them more ornamented, often with gold or silver flowers woven into the stuff. Their houses are built with upright posts, crossed and wattled with bamboo, plastered both without and within, and white-washed. They generally have two stories; but the uppermost is low, and seldom inhabited. The roofs are covered with pantiles, large and heavy, but neatly made. The floors are elevated two feet from the ground, and covered with planks, on which mats are laid. The public buildings, such as temples and palaces, are larger, it is true, and more conspicuous, but in the same style of architecture; and the roofs, which are decorated with several towers of a singular appearance, are their greatest ornament.

The towns are sometimes of a considerable size, always secured with gates, and frequently surrounded with walls and fossées, and adorned with towers, especially if a prince or governor of a province keeps his court there. The town of Jeddo, the capital of the island of Nipon, and of the whole country, is said to be twenty-one hours' walk in circumference, or about twenty-one French leagues, and may vie in size with Peking. The streets are straight and wide, and at certain distances divided by gates; and at each gate there is a very high ladder, from the top of which any fire that breaks out may be discovered, an accident that not unfrequently happens there several times in the week.

The furniture of Japan is as simple as the style of building. Neither cupboards, bureaux, sofas, beds, tables, chairs, watches, looking-glasses, nor any thing else of the kind, are to be found in the apartments. To the greater part of these the Japanese are utter strangers. Their soft floor mats serve them for chairs and tables. A small board, about twelve inches square, and four in height, is set down before each person in company at every meal, which is served up one dish only at a time. Mirrors they have, but never fix them up in their houses as ornamental furniture; they are made of a compound metal, and used only at their toilets. Notwithstanding the severity of their winters, which obliges them to warm their houses from November to March, they have neither fire-places nor stoves; instead of these they use large copper pots standing upon legs. These are lined on the inside with loam, on which ashes are laid to some depth, and charcoal lighted upon them, which seems to be prepared in some manner which renders the fumes of it not at all dangerous. The first compliment offered to a stranger, in their houses, is a dish of tea, and a pipe of tobacco. Fans are used by both sexes equally; and are, within or without doors, their inseparable companions. The whole nation are naturally cleanly; every house, whether public or private, has a bath, of which constant and daily use is made by the whole family. Obedience to parents, and respect to superiors, are the characteristics of this nation. Their salutations and conversations between equals abound also with civility and politeness; to this children are early accustomed by the example of their parents. Their penal laws are very severe; but punishments are seldom inflicted. Perhaps there is no country where fewer crimes against society are committed. Commerce and

manufactures flourish here; though as these people have few wants, they are not carried to the extent which we see in Europe.

The islands of Japan are governed by a despotic sovereign called the *Kubo*; besides whom there is a spiritual or ecclesiastical emperor called the *Dairi*. The veneration entertained for the latter is little short of the honours paid to their gods. He seldom goes out of his palace, his person being considered as too sacred to be exposed to the air, the rays of the sun, or the view of the common people. He is brought into the world, lives, and dies, within the precincts of his court; the boundaries of which he never once exceeds during his whole life. His hair, nails, and beard, are accounted so sacred that they are never suffered to be cleansed or cut by day-light; but this must be done by stealth, during the night, whilst he is asleep. His holiness never eats twice off the same plate, nor uses any vessel for his meals a second time: they are immediately broken to pieces after they are used, to prevent their falling into unhallowed hands. He has twelve wives, only one of whom, however, is styled empress. He confers all titles of honour; but the real power of government is exercised by the *kubo*.

The Japanese are gross idolaters, and so irreconcilable to Christianity, that it is commonly said the Dutch, who are the only European nation with whom they now trade, pretend themselves to be no Christians, and humour the Japanese in the most absurd superstitions. But notwithstanding all this compliance, the natives are very shy and rigorous in all their dealings with the Dutch; and Nagasaki, in the island of *Dezima*, is the only port they are suffered to enter. The Japanese trade with no foreign nation but the Dutch and Chinese; and in both cases with companies of privileged merchants. According to Thunberg, however, a late traveller to Japan, the trade of the Dutch to that country, even in time of peace, was become so inconsiderable in 1777, that the company only employed in it two ships. Formerly, as they paid there no duty either on their exports or imports, they were accustomed to send an annual present to the emperor, consisting of cloth, chintzes, cottons, stuffs, and trinkets. The Japanese are excellent workmen in iron and copper; their manufactures of silk and cotton yield to those of no eastern country; the excellence of their lacquered or *japanned* ware is well known; and their porcelain is deemed superior to that of China.

The island of FORMOSA is situate to the east of China, near the province of Fo-kien, and is divided into two parts by a chain of mountains, which runs through the middle, from south-east to north-west. This is a very fine island, and abounds in all the necessaries of life. That part of the island which lies to the west of the mountains belongs to the Chinese, who consider the inhabitants of the eastern parts as savages. The inhabitants of the cultivated parts are Chinese, or at least have adopted their manners and habits.

The Chinese have likewise made themselves masters of several other islands in these seas, among which, that of AINAN is between sixty and seventy leagues long, and between fifty and sixty in breadth. It is distant only twelve miles from the main land of the province of Canton. The original inhabitants are a shy and timid people, and live in the most unhealthy part of the island; the coast and cultivated parts, which are very valuable, being possessed by the Chinese.

The LADRONE islands, of which the chief is Guam (in north latitude 14, east longitude 140) are about twelve in number. Their name

signifies the island of robbers, the natives when they were first discovered by Magellan, or Magalhaens, being, like most other savages, much addicted to pilfering. These islands were then, it is said, very populous; Guam, which is about forty leagues in circuit, having thirty thousand inhabitants. Lord Anson, in his voyage round the world, landed at one of them (Tinian) where he found great refreshment for himself and his crew.

The PHILIPPINES are said to be 1100 in number, lying in the Chinese Sea (part of the Pacific Ocean) 300 miles south-east of China, of which Manilla, or Luconia, the chief, is 400 miles long and 200 broad. The inhabitants consist of Chinese, Ethiopians, Malays, Spaniards, Portuguese, Pintadoes, or painted people, and Mestes, a mixture of all these. The property of the islands belongs to the king of Spain, they having been discovered by Magellan, and afterwards conquered by the Spaniards, in the reign of Philip II. from whom they take their name. Their situation is such, between the eastern and western continents, that the inhabitants trade with Mexico and Peru, as well as with all the islands and ports 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 surprisingly in these islands. If a sprig of an orange or lemon-tree is planted here, it becomes within the year a fruit-bearing tree; so that the verdure and luxuriance of the soil are almost incredible. The tree ammet supplies the natives with water; and there is also a kind of cane, which, if cut, yields clear water enough for a draught: this abounds in the mountains, where water is most wanted.

The city of Manilla contains about 3000 inhabitants; its port is Cavite, lying at the distance of three leagues, and defended by the castle of St. Philip. In the year 1762, Manilla was reduced by the English under general Draper and admiral Cornish, who took it by storm, and humanely suffered the archbishop, who was the Spanish viceroy at the same time, to ransom the place for about a million sterling. The bargain, however, was ungenerously disowned by him and the court of Spain, so that great part of the ransom never was paid. The Spanish government is settled there, but the Indian inhabitants pay a capitation tax. The other islands, particularly Mindanao, the largest next to Manilla, are governed by petty princes of their own, whom they call sultans. The sultan of Mindanao is a Mahomedan.

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 volcanoes.

The MOLUCCAS, commonly called the SPICE OR CLOVE ISLANDS, are not out of sight of each other, and lie all within the compass of twenty-five leagues to the south of the Philippines, in 125 degrees of east longitude, and between one degree south, and two north latitude. They are in number five, viz. Bachian, Machian, Motyr, Ternate, and Tydore. These islands produce neither corn nor

rice, so that the inhabitants live upon bread made of sago. Their chief produce consists of cloves, mace, and nutmegs, in vast quantities; which are monopolised by the Dutch with so much jealousy, that they destroy the plants, lest the natives should sell the supernumerary spices to other nations. These islands, after being subject to various powers, are now governed by three kings, subordinate to the Dutch. Ternate is the largest of them, though not more than thirty miles in circumference. The Dutch have here a fort called Victoria; and another called Fort Orange, in Machian.

The BANDA, or NUTMEG ISLANDS, are situate between 127 and 128 degrees of east longitude, and between four and five south latitude. Banda, or Lantor, is not more than eight miles in length, and five in breadth. The names of the other islands of this group are Rossigen, Nera, Gonong, Way, and Rohn. These islands were all subject to the Dutch, but were taken by the English in 1796, at which time their annual produce was about 163,000 pounds of nutmegs, and 46,000 pounds of mace. The nutmeg-tree grows to the size of a pear-tree, the leaves resembling those of the laurel, and bears fruit from the age of ten to one hundred years. The great nutmeg harvest is in July and August.

AMBOYNA. This island is, in some respects, the most considerable of the Moluccas, which, in fact, it commands. It is situate in the Archipelago of St. Lazarus, between the third and fourth degrees of south latitude, 120 leagues to the eastward of Batavia. It is about 70 miles in circumference. 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. This tragical event happened in 1622. Amboyna was taken by the English, with the other spice islands, in 1796; but they were all restored by the treaty of Amiens in 1802.

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 productions are pepper and opium; and the natives are expert in the study of poisons, with a variety of which nature has furnished them. The Dutch have a fortification on this island; but the internal part of it is governed by three kings, the chief of whom resides in the town of Macassar. In this, and indeed in almost all the oriental islands, the inhabitants live in houses built on large posts, which are accessible only by ladders, which they pull up in the night-time, for their security against venomous animals. They are said to be hospitable and faithful, if not provoked. They carry on a large trade with the Chinese. Their port of Jampoden is the most capacious of any in that part of the world.

GILOLO, situate likewise under the equator, is about 230 miles long and 40 broad, produces rice and sago, but no spices, though it lies so near the spice islands. It is inhabited by a fierce and savage race of people.

CERAM is about 190 miles long and 40 broad. The Dutch have a fort here; and have destroyed almost all the clove-trees on the island, to enhance the value of those of the other islands.

The **SUNDA ISLANDS** are situate in the Indian Ocean, between 93 and 120 degrees of east longitude, and between eight degrees north and eight degrees south latitude, comprehending the islands of Borneo, Sumatra, Java, Ballay, Lamboe, Banca, &c. The three first, from their great extent and importance, require to be separately described.

BORNEO is said to be 800 miles long, and 700 broad, and, till New-Holland was discovered to be an island, was considered as the largest island in the world. The inland part of the country is marshy and unhealthy; and the inhabitants live in towns built upon floats in the middle of the rivers. The soil produces rice, cotton, canes, pepper, camphor, the tropical fruits, gold, and excellent diamonds. The famous ouran-outang is a native of this country, and is thought, of all irrational beings, to resemble a man the most. The original inhabitants live in the mountains, and make use of poisoned darts; but the sea-coast is governed by Mahomedan princes. The chief port of this island is Benjar-Masseen, and carries on a commerce with all trading nations.

SUMATRA has Malacca on the north, Borneo on the east, and Java on the south-east, from which it is separated by the straits of Sunda; it is divided into two equal parts by the equator, extending five degrees and upwards north-west of it, and five on the south-east; and is 1000 miles long, and 100 broad. This island produces so much gold that it has been thought to be the Ophir* mentioned in the scriptures; but Mr. Marsden, in his late history of the island, thinks it was unknown to the ancients.—Its chief trade with the Europeans is 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 Mahomedan 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.

Rain is very frequent here; sometimes very heavy, and almost always attended with thunder and lightning. Earthquakes are not uncommon, and there are several volcanoes on the island. The people who inhabit the coast are Malays, who came hither from the peninsula of Malacca; but the interior parts are inhabited by a very different people, and who have hitherto had no connection with the Europeans. Their language and character differ much from those of the Malays; the latter using the Arabic character. The people between the districts of the English company and those of the Dutch at Palimban, on the other side of the island, write on long narrow slips of the bark of a tree, with a piece of bamboo. They begin at the bottom, and write from the left hand to the right, contrary to the custom of other eastern nations. These inhabitants of the interior parts of Sumatra are a free people, and live in small villages called Doosans, independent of each other, and governed each by its own chief. All of them have laws, some written ones, by which they punish offenders, and terminate disputes. They have almost all of them, and

* There is a mountain in the island which is called Ophir by the Europeans, whose summit, above the level of the sea, is 13,842 feet, exceeding in height the Peak of Teneriffe by 577 feet.

particularly the women, large swellings in the throat, some nearly as large as a man's head, but in general as big as an ostrich's egg, like the goats of the Alps. That part of this island which is called the Cassia country, is well inhabited by a people called Battas, who differ from all the other inhabitants of Sumatra in language, manners, and customs. They have no king, but live in villages independently of each other, and generally at variance with one another. They fortify their villages very strongly with double fences of camphor-plank, pointed, and placed with their points projecting outwards; and between these fences they place pieces of bamboo, hardened by fire, and likewise pointed, which are concealed by the grass, but which will run quite through a man's foot. Such of their enemies whom they take prisoners they put to death and eat; and their skulls they hang up as trophies in the houses where the unmarried men and boys eat and sleep. They allow of polygamy: a man may purchase as many wives as he pleases; but their number seldom exceeds eight. All their wives live in the same house with the husband, and the houses have no partition; but each wife has her separate fire-place. It is in this country that most of the cassia sent to Europe is produced. The cassia-tree grows to fifty or sixty feet in height, with a stem of about two feet in diameter, and a beautiful and regular spreading head. Within about ninety miles of Sumatra is the island of **ENGANHO**, which is very little known, on account of the terrible rocks and breakers which entirely surround it. It is inhabited by naked savages, who are tall and well made, and who generally appear armed with lances and clubs, and speak a different language from the inhabitants of any of the neighbouring islands.

The greatest part of **JAVA** belongs to the Dutch; who have here erected a kind of commercial monarchy, the capital of which is Batavia; a noble and populous city, lying in the latitude of six degrees south, at the mouth of the river Jucata, and furnished with one of the finest harbours in the world. The town itself is built in the manner of those in Holland, and is about a league and a half in circumference, with five gates, and surrounded with 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 splendour superior to that of any European potentate, except upon some solemn occasions. This 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 were computed at 100,000; but about 30,000 of that nation were barbarously massacred, without the smallest offence ever proved upon them, in 1740. This massacre was too unprovoked and detestable to be defended even by the Dutch, who, when the governor arrived in Europe, sent him back to be tried at Batavia; but he never has been heard of since. A Dutch garrison of 3000 men constantly resides at Batavia; and about 15,000 troops are quartered in the island, and the neighbourhood of the city.

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 necessities, for the ships that touch there. They are otherwise too inconsiderable to be mentioned. They are inhabited by a harmless inoffensive people.

CEYLON. This island, though not the largest, is thought to be, by nature, the richest and finest island in the world. It is situated in the Indian Ocean, near Cape Comorin; the southern extremity of the Hither Peninsula of India being separated from the coast of Coromandel by a narrow strait, and is 250 miles long, and 200 broad. The natives call it, with some show of reason, the terrestrial paradise; and it produces, besides excellent fruits of all kinds, long pepper, fine cotton, ivory, silk, tobacco, ebony, musk, crystal, saltpetre, sulphur, lead, iron, steel, copper; besides cinnamon, gold and silver, and all kinds of precious stones, except diamonds. All kinds of fowl and fish abound here. Every part of the island is well wooded and watered; and besides some curious animals peculiar to itself, it has plenty of cows, buffaloes, goats, hogs, deer, hares, dogs, and other quadrupeds. The Ceylon elephant is preferred to all others, especially if spotted; but several noxious animals, such as serpents and ants, are likewise found here. The chief commodity of the island is its cinnamon, which is by far the best in all Asia. Though its trees grow in great profusion, yet the best is found in the neighbourhood of Columbo, late the chief settlement of the Dutch, and Negambo. The middle part of the country is mountainous and woody, so that the rich and beautiful valleys were left in the possession of the Dutch, who had 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 had scarcely any communication with other nations, or any property in the riches of his own dominions. The descendants of the ancient inhabitants are called Cinglasses; who, though idolaters, 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 afterwards monopolised it to themselves. In January 1782, Trincomale, the chief sea-port of the island, was taken by the English, but soon afterwards retaken by the French, and restored to the Dutch by the following treaty of peace. In August, 1795, it was again taken by the English, to whom it was confirmed by the treaty of Amiens, and in whose possession it still remains.

The MALDIVES. These are a vast cluster of small islands or little rocks just above the water, lying between the equator and eight degrees north latitude, near Cape Comorin. They are chiefly resorted to by the Dutch, who carry on a profitable trade with the natives for couries, a kind of small shells, which go, or rather formerly went, for money, upon the coasts of Guinea and other parts of Africa. The cocoa of the Maldives is an excellent commodity in a medical 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."

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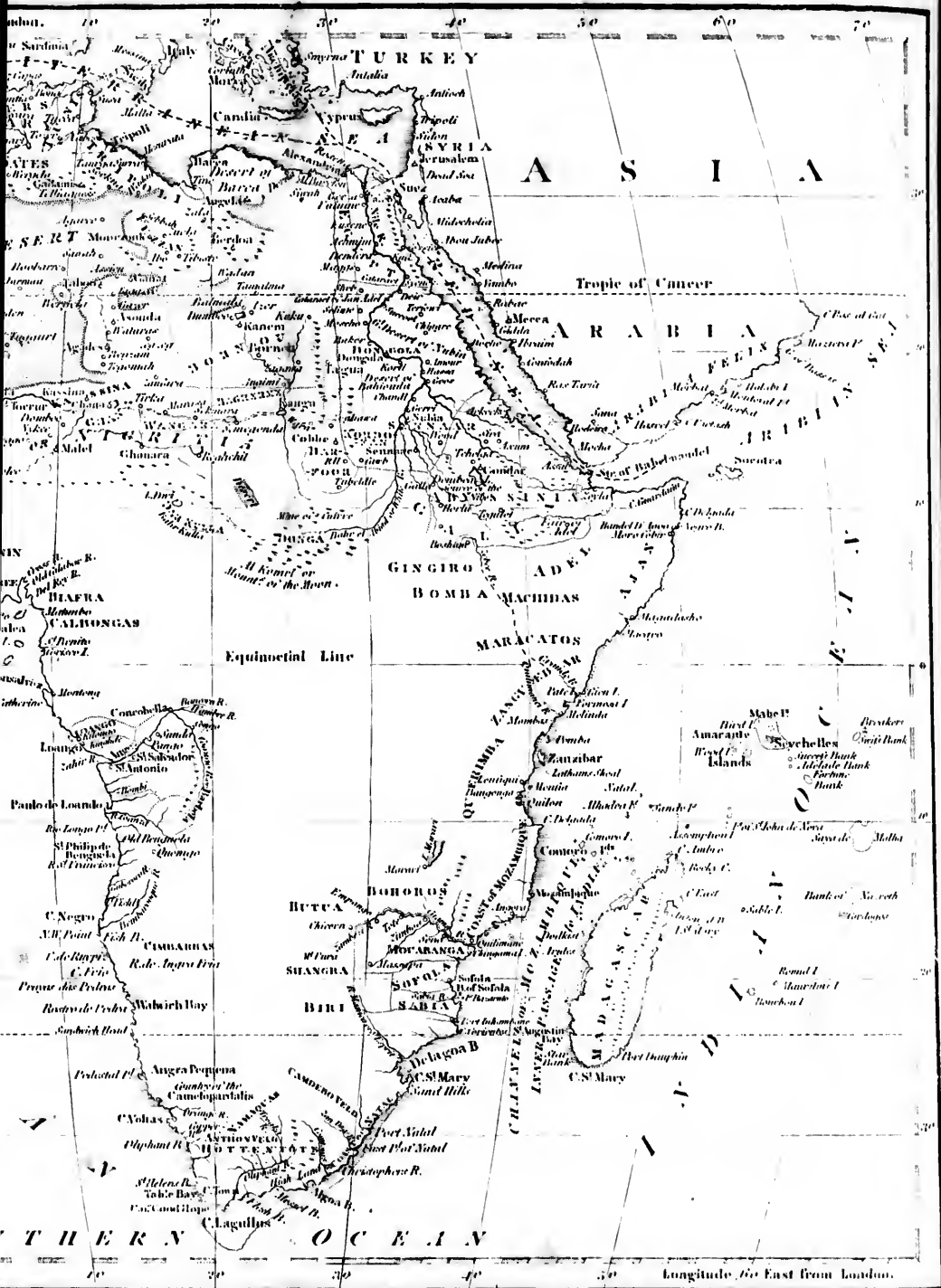
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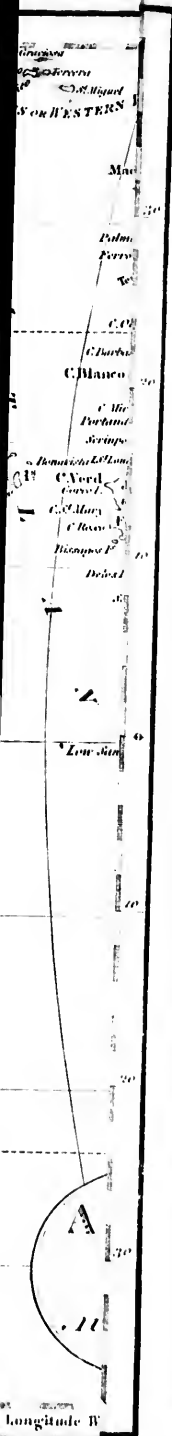
SOUTHERN OCEAN

We have already mentioned BOMBAY, on the Malabar coast, in speaking of Hindoostan. With regard to the language of all the Oriental islands, nothing certain can be said. Each island has a particular tongue; but the Malayan, Chinese, Portuguese, Dutch, and Indian words, are so frequent among them, that it is difficult for an European, who is not very expert in those matters, to know the radical language. The same may be almost said of their religion; for though its original is certainly pagan, yet it is intermixed with many Mahomedan, Jewish, Christian, and other foreign superstitions.

AFRICA.

AFRICA, the third grand division of the globe, in shape bears some resemblance to the form of a pyramid, the base being the northern part of it, which runs along the shores of the Mediterranean; and the point or top of the pyramid, the Cape of Good Hope. Africa is a peninsula of a prodigious extent, joined to Asia only by a neck of land, about sixty miles over, between the Red Sea and the Mediterranean, usually called the Isthmus of Suez; and its utmost length from north to south, from Cape Bona in the Mediterranean, in 37 degrees north, to the Cape of Good Hope in 34-7 south latitude, is 4,900 miles; and the broadest part, from Cape Verd, in 17-20 degrees west longitude, to Cape Guardasui, near the straits of Babel-Mandel, in 51-20 east longitude, is 4,500 miles from east to west. It is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean Sea, which separates it from Europe; on the east by the Isthmus of Suez, the Red Sea, and the Indian Ocean, which divides it from Asia; on the south by the Southern Ocean; and on the west by the great Atlantic Ocean, which separates it from America. As the equator divides this extensive country almost in the middle, and the far greater part of it is within the tropics, the heat is in many places almost insupportable to an European; it being there increased by the rays of the sun, from vast deserts of burning sands. The coasts, however, and banks of rivers, such as the Nile, are generally fertile; and most parts of this region are inhabited, though it is far from being so populous as Europe and 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 Gambia, which falls into the Atlantic or Western Ocean at Cape St. Mary, and is navigable for ships of 150 tons burthen five hundred miles from its source; the Senegal, which rises about a hundred miles east of the Gambia, and falls, likewise, into the Atlantic Ocean, about eighty miles north of Cape Verd, after running a much longer course. The Niger, which rises about ninety miles to the east of the head of the



Senegal, and runs *eastward** by Tombuctoo, Houssa, and Cashna, terminating, as is supposed, in some lakes farther to the eastward; and the Nile, which, dividing Egypt into two parts, discharges itself into the Mediterranean, after a prodigious course from its source in Abyssinia. The most considerable mountains in Africa are the Atlas, a ridge extending from the Western Ocean, to which it gives the name of Atlantic Ocean, as far as Egypt;—it 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 Monomotapa or Mocaranga, and which are still higher than those of Atlas; those of Sierra Leone, or the Mountain of the Lions, which divide Nigritia from Guinea, and extend as far as Ethiopia. These latter were styled by the ancients the Mountains of the God, on account of their being subject to thunder and lightning. The Peak of Teneriffe, which the Dutch make their first meridian, is about two miles high, in the form of a sugar-loaf, and is situated on an island of the same name near the coast. The most noted capes or promontories in this country are Cape Verd, so called because the land is always covered with green trees and mossy ground;—it is the most westerly point of the continent of Africa—and the Cape of Good Hope, so denominated by the Portuguese, when they first went round it in 1489, and discovered the passage to Asia. This is the southern extremity of Africa, in the country of the Hottentots; 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.

* This river has long been an object of research and dispute with respect to its origin and course. According to Mr. Lucas's communications to the African Association, "the rise and the termination of the Niger are unknown, but the course is from *east to west*." He adds, "so great is its rapidity, that no vessel can ascend its stream; and such is the want of skill, or such the absence of commercial inducements, among the nations which inhabit its borders, that, even with the current, neither vessels nor boats are seen to navigate. That the people who live in the neighbourhood of the Niger should refuse to profit by its navigation may justly surprise the traveller; but much greater is his astonishment, when he finds that even the food which the bounty of the stream would give, is uselessly offered to their acceptance; for such is the want of skill, or such the settled dislike of the people to this sort of provision, that the fish, with which the river abounds, are left in undisturbed possession of the waters." (Proceedings of the African Association, p. 183-189.) It was also generally believed, that the Gambia and Senegal were branches of the Niger. All these reports are, however, fully disproved by the late discoveries of Mr. Park, who reached the banks of the Niger, or, as it is called by the natives, the Joliba, at Segou, the capital of Bambarra, where he saw it "flowing *slowly to the eastward*." On the river were numerous canoes; and, proceeding farther, he tells us that he "passed a great many villages, inhabited chiefly by fishermen, who caught great plenty of fish, by means of long cotton nets, which they make themselves, and use nearly in the same manner as nets are used in Europe." Those who would see more concerning this celebrated river, and the different opinions and notices of ancient and modern geographers and travellers, relative to its rise, course, and termination, may consult the ample and ingenious disquisition on that subject, in Major Rennell's *Geographical Illustration of Africa*, subjoined to Mr. Park's Travels.

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 ancient historians. It is, however, the misfortune of Africa, that, though it has 10,000 miles of sea-coast, with noble, large, deep rivers, it should have no navigation, nor receive any benefit from them; and 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, sheltered from the wind, and capable of being made perfectly secure by fortifications; but quite destitute of shipping, trade, and merchants, even where there is plenty of merchandise. In short, Africa, though a full quarter of the globe, stored with an inexhaustible treasure, and capable under proper improvements, of producing so many things, delightful as well as convenient, within itself, seems to be almost entirely neglected, not only by the natives, who are quite unsolicitous of reaping the benefits which nature has provided for them, but also by the more civilised 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 Mauritanians, 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 Mahomedan 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, Mahomedans, and Christians. The first are the more 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 Mahomedans, 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 in the north of Africa, who manage all the little trade that part of the country is possessed of.

Though we are little acquainted with the boundaries, and even with the names, of many of the inland countries of Africa, that continent may be divided according to the following table.

	NATIONS.	Length.	Breadth,	Square Miles.	Chief Cities.	Dist. and bearing fr. Lond.	Diff. of time from London.	Religion.
Barbary.	Morocco, Fasilet, &c. }	500	480	219,400	Fez	1080 S.	0 24 aft.	Mahom.
	Algiers	480	100	143,600	Algiers	920 S.	0 13 bef.	Mahom.
	Tunis	220	170	54,400	Tunis	990 SE.	0 39 bef.	Mahom.
	Tripoli	700	240	75,000	Tripoli	1260 SE.	0 56 bef.	Mahom.
	Barca	400	300	66,400	Polemata	1440 SE.	1 26 bef.	Mahom.
	Egypt	600	250	140,700	Grand Cairo	1920 SE.	2 21 bef.	Mahom.
	Biledulgerid	2500	350	485,000	Dara	1565 S.	0 32 aft.	Pagans.
	Zaara	3400	660	789,200	Tegessa	1800 S.	0 24 aft.	Pagans.
	Negroland	2200	840	1,026,000	Madinga	2500 S.	0 38 aft.	Pagans.
	Guinea	1800	360	510,000	Boain	2700 S.	0 20 bef.	Pagans.
Up. Ethiopia.	Nubia	940	600	264,000	Nubia	2418 SE.	2 12 bef.	M. & Pag.
	Abyssinia	900	800	378,000	Gondar	2880 SE.	2 30 bef.	Christian
	Abex	540	190	160,000	Doncala	3580 SE.	2 36 bef.	Ch. &
	The middle parts, called Lower Ethiopia, are very little known to the Europeans, but are computed at 1,200,000 square miles.							
Lower Guinea.	Loango	410	300	49,400	Loango	3300 S.	0 44 bef.	Ch. & Pa.
	Congo	540	420	172,800	St. Salvador	3480 S.	1 0 bef.	Ch. & Pa.
	Angola	360	250	38,400	Loando	3750 S.	0 58 bef.	Ch. & Pa.
	Benguela	430	180	64,000	Benguela	3900 S.	0 58 bef.	Pagans.
	Mataman	450	240	144,000	No Towns	* * *	* * *	Pagans.
	Ajan	900	500	234,000	Brava	3702 SE.	2 40 bef.	Pagans.
	Zanguebar	1400	550	275,000	Melinda or Mozambiq.	4440 SE.	2 38 bef.	Pagans.
	Monomotapa	960	660	222,500	Monomota	4500 S.	1 18 bef.	Pagans.
	Monenungi	900	660	310,000	Chicova	4260 SE.	1 44 bef.	Pagans.
	Sosola	480	300	97,000	Sosola	4600 SE.	1 18 bef.	Pagans.
	Terra de Nat.	600	350	184,000	No Towns	* * *	* * *	Pagans.
	Calfratta or } Hottentot }	708	660	200,340	Cape of G. Hope	5200 S.	1 4 bef.	Most stupid Pag.

The principal islands of Africa lie in the Indian Seas and Atlantic Oceans; of which the following belong to, or trade with, the Europeans, and serve to refresh their shipping to and from India.

ISLANDS.	Sq. Miles.	Towns.	Trade with or belong to.
Babel-Mandel, at the entrance of the Red Sea	- - -	Babel-Mandel - - -	All Nations
Zocotra, in the Indian Ocean	3,000	Caulasia - - - -	Ditto
The Comora Isles, ditto	1,000	Joanna - - - -	Ditto
Madagascar, ditto	168,000	St. Austin - - - -	Ditto
Mauritius, ditto	1,840	Mauritius - - - -	French
Bourbon, ditto	2,100	Bourbon - - - -	Ditto
St. Helena, in the Atlantic Ocean	- - -	St. Helena - - - -	English
Ascension, ditto	- - -	- - - -	Uninhabited
St. Matthew, ditto	- - -	- - - -	Ditto
St. Thomas, Anaboa, } ditto	- - -	St. Thomas, Anaboa	Portuguese
Prince Island, Fer- nandopo	- - -	- - - -	- - - -
Cape Verd Islands, ditto	2,000	St. Domingo - - -	Ditto
Goree, ditto	- - -	Fort St. Michael -	French
Canaries, ditto	- - -	Palma, St. Christopher	Spanish
Madeiras, ditto	1,500	Santa Cruz, Funchal	Portuguese
The Azores, for Western Isles, lie nearly at an equal distance from Europe, Africa, & America	2,000	Angra, St. Michael	Ditto

We shall now proceed to describe particularly the more considerable countries of Africa, as far as they are known to Europeans, from the accounts of the latest travellers; beginning, as usual, from the west and north, with the States of Barbary.

THE STATES OF BARBARY.

UNDER this head are included the countries of, 1. Morocco and Fez; 2. Algiers; 3. Tunis; 4. Tripoli and Barca.

The empire of Morocco, including Fez, is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean Sea; on the south, by Taflet: and on the east, by Segelmessa and the kingdom of Algiers; being 500 miles in length, and 480 in breadth.

Fez, which is now united to Morocco, is about 125 miles in length, and much the same in breadth. It lies between the kingdom of Algiers to the east, and Morocco on the south, and is surrounded on other parts by the sea.

Algiers, formerly a kingdom, is bounded on the east by the kingdom of Tunis, on the north by the Mediterranean, on the south by Mount Atlas, and on the west by the kingdoms of Morocco and Taflet. According to Dr. Shaw, this country extends in length 480 miles along the coast of the Mediterranean, and is between 40 and 100 miles in breadth.

Tunis is bounded by the Mediterranean on the north and east; by the kingdom of Algiers on the west; and by Tripoli, with part of

Biledulgerid, on the south; being 220 miles in length from north to south, and 170 in breadth from east to west.

Tripoli; including Barca, is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean Sea; on the south, by the country of the Beriberes; on the west, by the kingdom of Tunis, Biledulgerid, and the territory of the Gadamis; and on the east by Egypt; extending about 1100 miles along the sea-coast; and the breadth is from 1 to 300 miles.

Each capital bears the name of the state or kingdom to which it belongs.

The Barbary states form a great political confederacy, however independent each may be as to the exercise of its internal polity; nor is there a greater difference than happens in different provinces of the same kingdom, in the customs and manners of the inhabitants.

CLIMATE, SOIL, PRODUCE.] The air of Morocco is mild, as is that of Algiers, and indeed all the other states, except in the months of July and August. These states, under the Roman empire, were justly denominated the garden of the world; and to have a residence there was considered as the highest state of luxury. The produce of their soil formed those magazines which furnished all Italy, and great part of the Roman empire, with corn, wine, and oil. Though the lands are now uncultivated, through the oppression and barbarity of their government, 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 the Europeans who have lived there for some time, the country abounds with all that can add to the pleasures of life; for the great people find means to evade the sobriety prescribed by the Mahomedan 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.

ANIMALS.] Neither the elephant nor the rhinoceros are to be found in the states of Barbary; but their deserts abound with lions, tigers, leopards, hyænas, and monstrous serpents. The Barbary horses were formerly very valuable, and thought equal to the Arabian. Though their breed is now said to be decayed, yet some very fine ones are occasionally imported into England. Dromedaries, asses, mules, and kumrahs, a most serviceable creature, begot by an ass upon a cow, are their beasts of burden.

But from the services of the camel they derive the greatest advantages. This useful quadruped enables the African to perform his long and toilsome journies across the continent. The camel is, therefore, (says Mr. Bruce) emphatically called the *Ship of the Desert*. He seems to have been created for this very trade, endued with parts and qualities adapted to the office he is employed to discharge. The driest thistle, and the barest thorn, is all the food this useful animal requires; and even these, to save time, he eats while advancing on his journey, without stopping, or occasioning a moment of delay. As it is his lot to cross immense deserts, where no water is found, and countries not even moistened by the dew of heaven, he is endued with the power, at one watering-place, to lay in a store with which he supplies himself for thirty days to come. To contain this enormous quantity of fluid, nature has formed large cisterns within him, from which, once filled, he draws at pleasure the quantity he wants, and

draws it into his stomach with the same effect as if he then drew it from a spring; and with this he travels, patiently and vigorously, all day long, carrying a prodigious load upon him, through countries infected with poisonous winds, and glowing with parching and never-cooling sands.

Their cows are but small and barren of milk. Their sheep yield indifferent fleeces, but are very large, as are their goats. Bears, porcupines, foxes, apes, hares, rabbits, ferrets, weasels, moles, cameleons, and all kinds of reptiles, are found here. Besides vermin, says Dr. Shaw (speaking of his travels through Barbary), the apprehensions we are under, in some parts at least of this country, of being bitten or stung by the scorpion, the viper, or the venomous spider, rarely failed to interrupt our repose; a refreshment so very grateful, and so highly necessary to a weary traveller. Partridges, quails, eagles, hawks, and all kinds of wild-fowl, are found on this coast; and of the smaller birds, the caps-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 were preferred by the ancients to those of Europe.

NATURAL CURIOSITIES.] We know of few or no natural curiosities in these countries, excepting the 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.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS.] Morocco was certainly formerly far more populous than it is now, if, as travellers say, its capital contained 100,000 houses, whereas at present it is thought not to contain above 25,000 inhabitants; nor can we think that the other parts of the country are more populous, if it be true, that their king or emperor has 80,000 horse and foot, of foreign negroes, in his armies.

The city of Algiers is said to contain 100,000 Mahomedans, 15,000 Jews, and 2000 Christian slaves; but no estimate can be formed as to the populousness of its territory. Some travellers report that it is inhabited by a friendly hospitable people, who are very different in their manners and character from those of the metropolis.

Tunis is the most polished republic of all the Barbary states. The capital contains 10,000 families, and above 3000 tradesmen's shops; and its suburbs consist of 1000 houses. The Tunisians are indeed exceptions to the other states of Barbary; for even the most civilised 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 women are 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 complaisant, and a wonderful regularity reigns through all the city.

Tripoli was once the richest, most populous, and opulent of all the states on the coast; but it is now much reduced, and the inhabitants, who are said to amount to between 400,000 and 500,000, have all the vices of the Algerines.

Their manners are much the same with those of the Egyptians already described. The subjects of the Barbary states, in general subsisting by piracy, are allowed to be bold intrepid mariners, and will fight desperately when they meet with a prize at sea; they are, notwithstanding, far inferior to the English, and other European states, both in the construction and management of their vessels. They are, if we except the Tunisians, void of all arts and literature. The misery and poverty of the inhabitants of Morocco, who are not immediately in the emperor's service, are beyond all description; but those who inhabit the inland parts of the country are an hospitable 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.

The dress of these people is a linen shirt, over which they tie a silk or cloth vestment with a sash, and over that a loose coat. Their drawers are made of linen. The arms and legs of the wearer are bare, but they have slippers on their feet; and persons of condition sometimes wear buskins. They never move their turbans, but pull off their slippers when they attend religious duties, or the person of their sovereign. They are fond of striped and fancied silks. The dress of the women is not very different from that of the men, but their drawers are longer, and they wear a sort of cawl on their heads instead of a turban. The chief furniture of their houses consists of carpets and mattresses, on which they sit and lie. In eating, their siovenliness is disgusting. They are prohibited gold and silver vessels; and their meat, which they swallow by handfuls, is boiled or roasted to rags.

CITIES, CHIEF TOWNS, EDIFICES.] Mention has already been made of Morocco, the capital of that kingdom; but now almost in ruins, the court having removed to Mequinez, a city of Fez. Incredible things are recorded of the magnificent palaces in both cities; but by the best accounts the common people live in a very slovenly manner.

The city of Algiers is not above a mile and a half in circuit, though it is computed to contain near 120,000 inhabitants, 15,000 houses, and 107 mosques. The public baths are large, and handsomely paved with marble. The prospect of the country and sea from Algiers is very beautiful, the city being built on the declivity of a mountain; but, though for several ages it has braved some of the greatest powers in Christendom, it 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 Spaniards, however, attacked it, in 1775, by land and by sea, but were repulsed with great loss, though they had nearly 20,000 foot and 2000 horse,

and 47 king's ships, of different rates, and 346 transports. In the years 1783 and 1784, they also renewed their attacks by sea to destroy the city and galleys; but, after spending a quantity of ammunition, bombs, &c. were forced to retire without either its capture or destruction. The mole of the harbour is 500 paces in length, extending from the continent to a small island where there is a castle and large battery.

The kingdom of Tunis, which is naturally the finest of all these States, contains the remains of many noble cities, some of them still in good condition. Tunis, built near the original site of Carthage, has a wall and 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; that of rain, preserved in cisterns, is chiefly used by the inhabitants.

The city of Tripoli consists of an old and new town, the latter being the most flourishing; but great inconveniences attend its situation, particularly the want of sweet water. The city of Oran, lying upon this coast, is about a mile in circumference, and is fortified both by art and nature. It was a place of considerable trade, and the object of many bloody disputes between the Spaniards and the Moors. Constantina was the ancient Cirta, and one of the strongest cities of Numidia, being inaccessible on all sides excepting the south-west.

Besides the above towns and cities, many others, formerly of great renown, lie scattered up and down this immense tract of country. The city of Fez, at present the capital of the kingdom so called, is said to contain near 300,000 inhabitants, besides merchants and foreigners. Its mosques amount to 500; one of them is magnificent beyond description, and about a mile and a half in circumference. Mequinez is esteemed the great emporium of all Barbary. Salée 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 Catherine, consort to 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 misunderstanding between the king and his parliament occasioned him to blow up its fortifications and demolish its harbour; so that, from being one of the finest cities in Africa, it is now little better than a fishing-town. Ceuta, upon the same strait, almost opposite to Gibraltar, is still in the hands of the Spaniards, but often, if not always, besieged or blocked up by the Moors. Tetuan, which lies within twenty miles of Ceuta, is now but an ordinary town, containing about 800 houses: but the inhabitants are said to be rich, and tolerably civilised in their manners.

The provinces of Suz, Taflet, and Gesula, form no part of the states of Barbary, though the king of Morocco pretends to be their sovereign; nor do they contain any thing that is particularly curious. Zaara is a desert country, thinly peopled, and almost destitute both of water and provisions.

[MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.] The lower subjects of these states know very few imaginary wants, and depend partly upon their piracy 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 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 sandarach. The inhabitants of Morocco are likewise said to carry on a considerable trade by caravans to Mecca and Medina, and to the inland parts of Africa, whence they bring back great 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 duties paid by the English in the ports of Morocco, are but half of those paid by other Europeans. It is a general observation, that no nation is fond of trading with these states, not only on account of their capricious despotism, but the villany of their individuals, both natives and Jews, many of whom take all opportunities of cheating, and, when detected, are seldom punished.

[CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] In Morocco, government cannot be said to exist. The emperors have for some ages been parties, judges, and even executioners with their own hands, in all criminal matters: nor is their brutality more incredible than the submission with which their subjects bear it. In the absence of the emperor, every military officer has the power of life and death in his hand, and it is seldom that they regard the form of a judicial proceeding. Some vestiges, however, of the caliphate government still continue; for, in places where no military officer resides, the mufti, or high-priest, is the fountain of all justice, and under him the cadis, or civil officers, who act as our justices of the peace. Though the emperor of Morocco is not immediately subject to the Porte, yet he acknowledges the grand-signor to be his superior, and he pays him a distant allegiance as the chief representative of Mahomed. What has been said of Morocco is applicable to Fez, both kingdoms being now under one emperor.

Though Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli have each of them a Turkish pasha or dey, who governs in the name of the grand-signor, 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 army has a vote in choosing the succeeding dey; and though the election is often attended with bloodshed, yet it is no sooner fixed than he is cheerfully recognised 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 his subjects, who are very tenacious of their property. These deys pay slight annual tributes to the Porte. When the grand-signor 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

amongst the soldiers, against the reigning dey, whom they make no scruple of assassinating, even in council; and the strongest candidate then fills the 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. Those of Algiers have been already mentioned, but they are now said to be exceeded by those of 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 Mahomedan subjects, and six crowns a year from every Jew merchant. He derives likewise considerable profits from 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. A detachment of the army of these states is annually sent into each province to collect the tribute from the Moors and Arabs; and the prizes they take at sea sometimes equal the taxes laid upon the natives.

MILITARY AND MARINE FORCE.] The king of Morocco, it is said, can bring into the field 100,000 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 6500 foot, consisting of Turks and cologlies, or the sons of soldiers. Part of them serve as marines on board their vessels. About 1000 of them do garrison duty, and part are employed in fomenting differences among the neighbouring Arab princes. Besides these, the dey can bring 2000 Moorish horse into the field; but, as they are enemies to the Turks, they are little trusted. Those troops are under excellent discipline, and the deys of all the other Barbary states maintain a force in proportion to their abilities; so that a few years ago they refused to send any tribute to the Turkish emperor, who seems to be satisfied with the shadow of obedience which they pay him.

It is very remarkable, that though the Carthaginians, who inhabited this very country of Barbary, had greater fleets and more extensive commerce than any other nation, or than all the people upon the face of the earth, when that state flourished, the present inhabitants have scarcely any merchant ships belonging to them, nor indeed any other than what Sallee, Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli fit out for piracy; which, though increased since the last attack of the Spaniards, are now but few and small, and some years ago did not exceed six ships, from thirty-six to fifty guns. The admiral's ship belongs to the government; the other captains are appointed by private owners, but subject to military law. With such a contemptible fleet, these infidels not

only harass the nations of Europe, but oblige them to pay a kind of tribute by way of presents.

It has been often thought surprising, that the Christian powers should suffer their marine to be insulted by these 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 the 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 the deserts and mountains, so that the benefit resulting from the conquest must be tedious and precarious.—Indeed, expeditions against Algiers have been undertaken by the Spaniards, but they were ill-conducted and unsuccessful, as before noticed.

RELIGION.] The inhabitants of these states are Mahomedans; but many subjects of Morocco follow the tenets of one Hamed, a modern sectarist, and an enemy to the ancient doctrine of the caliphs. All of them have much respect for idiots; and, in some cases, their protection screens offenders from punishment for the most notorious crimes. The Moors of Barbary, as the inhabitants of these states are now promiscuously called (because the Saracens first entered Europe from Mauritania, the country of the Moors), have in general adopted the very worst parts of the Mahomedan religion, and seem to have retained only as much as countenances their vices. Adultery in the women is punished with death; but though the men are indulged with a plurality of wives and concubines, they commit the most unnatural crimes with impunity. All foreigners are allowed the open profession of their religion.

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 seafaring people are no strangers to that medley of living and dead languages, Italian, French, Spanish, &c. that is so well known, in all the ports of the Mediterranean, by the name of *Lingua Franca*.

ANTIQUITIES.] The reader can scarcely doubt that the countries which contained Carthage, and the pride of the Phœnician, Greek, and Roman works, are replete with the most curious remains of antiquity: but they lie scattered amidst ignorant, barbarous inhabitants. Some memorials of the Mauritanian and Numidian greatness are still to be met with, and many ruins which bear evidence 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 still remaining, particularly at Manuba, a country-house of the bey, four miles from Tunis; but no vestige of its walls. The same is the fate of Utica, famous for the retreat and death of Cato; and many other renowned cities of antiquity; and so over-run is the country with barbarism, that their very sites are not known, even by their ruins, amphitheatres, and other public buildings, which remain 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 caliphs of Bagdad, and the ancient kings of the country, before it was subdued by the Turks, or reduced to its present form of government. Their walls form the principal fortifications in the country, both inland and maritime.

HISTORY.] Under the Roman emperors, the states of Barbary formed the fairest jewels in the imperial diadem. It was not till the seventh century that, after these states had been by turns in possession of the Vandals and the Greek emperors, the caliphs or Saracens of Bagdad conquered them, and from thence became masters of almost all Spain, from whence their posterity was totally driven about the year 1492, when the exiles settled among their friends and countrymen on the Barbary coast. This naturally begot a perpetual war between them and the Spaniards, who pressed them so hard, that they called to their assistance the two famous brothers Barbarossa, who were admirals of the Turkish fleet, and who, after breaking the Spanish yoke, imposed upon the inhabitants of all those states (excepting Morocco) their own. Some attempts were made by the emperor Charles V. to reduce Algiers and Tunis, but were unsuccessful; and as 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 sherifs, and whose powers resembled that of the caliphate of the Saracens. They have been, in general, a set of bloody tyrants; though they have had among them some able princes, particularly Muley Moluc, who defeated and killed Don Sebastian, king of Portugal. They have lived in almost a continual 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.

EGYPT.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length	560	between { 24 and 32 North latitude. } { 29 and 34 East longitude. }	140,700
Breadth	250		

BOUNDARIES.] IT is bounded by the Mediterranean Sea on the 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, on the west.

<i>Divisions.</i>	<i>Subdivisions.</i>	<i>Chief Towns.</i>
Northern division contains	{ Lower Egypt	GRAND CAIRO, E. long. 32. N. lat. 30.
		Bulac Alexandria Rosetta, or Rashid Damietta
Southern division contains	{ Upper Egypt	{ Sayd, or Thebes Cossire

The part of Lower Egypt, between the branches of the Nile and the Mediterranean, was anciently called the *Delta*, from the resemblance of its triangular shape to the Greek letter of that name. It is now called by the Arabs Bahira and Rif.

MOUNTAINS, DESERTS, OASES.] Egypt, to the south of Cairo, is a narrow valley through which the Nile flows, and shut in by mountains, beyond which, on both sides, but especially on the west, are vast sandy deserts. In some parts of these deserts, at the distance of one hundred miles or more to the west of the Nile, are small fertile spots of cultivated land, situated like islands in the midst of an ocean of sand: they are called *Oases*, the name by which they were known to the ancient Greeks, and by the Arabs *Elwah*. Those with which we are now acquainted are in number three; the Great Oasis, in lat. 26 deg. 30 min. N.; the Lesser Oasis, about 40 miles to the north of the former; and the Oasis Siwah, in lat. 29 deg. 12 min. N. lon. 44 deg. 54 min. East. The Great Oasis is said to be twenty-five leagues in length, and four or five in breadth. That of Siwah was visited by Mr. Browne in 1792: it is about six miles long, and four and a half or five wide. A large proportion of this space is filled with date trees; but there are also pomegranates, figs, olives, apricots, and plantains, and the gardens are remarkably flourishing. A considerable quantity of rice is cultivated here. This has been supposed to be the Oasis where the famous temple of Jupiter Ammon anciently stood. Mr. Browne found here the ruins of an edifice which appeared to be the work of the ancient Egyptians, as the figures of Isis and Anubis were conspicuous among the sculptures. Here are also catacombs, or ancient places of sepulture. This Oasis has since been visited by Mr. Horne- man, who travelled under the patronage of the African Society. He observed the ruins which had been discovered by Mr. Browne; and from a comparison of the observations of both these travellers with the accounts of ancient authors, major Rennell seems to entertain no doubt that this is the true situation of that celebrated temple.

RIVERS.] The only river of this country is the celebrated Nile, which is formed by the junction (in the country of Sennaar, between Egypt and Abyssinia) of two great rivers, one of which, called the *bahr el azrek*, or the blue river, rises in Abyssinia, where its source is honoured as the head of the Nile, and will be described in our account of that country. The other river, which, as being the longest and largest stream, is rather to be considered as the true Nile, is called the *bahr el abiad*, or the white river, and rises at a place named Donga, about ten days journey south of Darfur, or the country of Fur, and twenty days journey from the confines of Bornou, among the *gebels el cumri*, or mountains of the moon. Donga, according to Mr. Browne, lies in about 7 degrees of north latitude, and 25 of east longitude.— The whole length of the course of the Nile may be estimated at about 2,000 miles.

LAKES.] In the northern part of Egypt, or Lower Egypt, are several lakes, the largest of which is the lake of Menzala, which is separated from the Mediterranean only by an extremely narrow ridge of land, and communicates with that sea by one or two outlets. It is sixty miles long, and from two to twelve broad. The lake of Berelos, which adjoins in like manner to the Mediterranean, between Damietta and Rosetta, is thirty miles long, and about ten broad. The lake of Kerun, or Birket el Kerun, forty miles to the south-west of Alexan-

dria, is thirty miles in length, and about six in breadth. The ancient lake of Marcotis is now dry.

METALS, MINERALS.] Egypt appears not to be productive of any metals. The mountains contain various kinds of marbles, as porphyry, the celebrated *verde antico*, or green marble, with white and dark spots; and many valuable gems, as the emerald, topaz, chalcidony; onyx, &c.

CLIMATE, AIR.] It is observed by M. Volney, that during eight months in the year (from March to November) the heat is almost insupportable by an European. "During the whole of this season, the air is inflamed, the sky sparkling, and the heat oppressive to all unaccustomed to it."—The other months are more temperate. The southerly winds which sometimes blow in Egypt, are by the natives called *poisonous winds*, or the *hot winds of the desert*. They are of such extreme heat and aridity, that no animated body exposed to them can withstand their fatal influence. During the three days which it generally lasts, the streets are deserted; and woe to the traveller whom this wind surprises remote from shelter: when it exceeds three days, it is insupportable. Very frequently the inhabitants are almost blinded with drifts of sand. These 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. from 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 jubilee, with all sorts of festivities. The banks, or mounds, which confine it, are cut by the Turkish pasha, attended by his grandees; but according to Norden, who was present on the occasion, the spectacle is not very magnificent. When the banks are cut, the water is led into what they call the *khalige*, 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 labour of the 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, plantains, 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 of 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 producing two at a time, and the sheep four lambs a year.

Among the plants of Egypt, should also be mentioned the papyrus, of which the ancients made their paper, though their mode of prepar-

ing it is now unknown; and the lotus, a kind of water-lily, abounding in the Nile. The pith of the papyrus is said to be a nourishing food.

The Egyptian mode of hatching chickens in ovens is very curious, and has been practised in Europe with success. Not less extraordinary and ingenious is the manner of raising and managing bees in that country. When the verdure and flowers fail in one part of Egypt, the proprietors of bees put their hives on board of large boats, each marking his own hive. The boatman then proceeds with them gently up the river, and stops with them wherever he perceives flowery meadows. The bees swarm from their cells at break of day, and collect honey, returning several times loaded with what they have obtained, and in the evening re-enter their hives, without ever mistaking their abode.

ANIMALS.] Egypt abounds in black cattle; and it is said, that the inhabitants employ every day 200,000 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 by the Turks to ride on any other beast. The Egyptian horses are very fine; they never trot, but walk well, and gallop with great speed, turn short, stop in a moment, and are extremely tractable. The hippopotamus, or river-horse, an amphibious animal, resembling an ox in its hinder parts, with the head like a horse, is found in Upper Egypt. Tigers, hyænas, camels, antelopes, apes, with the head like a dog, and the rat called ichneumon, are natives of Egypt. The cameleon, a little animal something resembling a lizard, which occasionally changes colour, especially when irritated, 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 surprises 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 ancient Egyptians for its destroying serpents and pestiferous insects. They were thought to be peculiar to Egypt, but a species of them is said to have been lately discovered in other parts of Africa. Ostriches are common here, and are so strong, that the Arabs sometimes ride upon their backs.

The cerastes, or horned viper, inhabits the greater part of the eastern continent, especially the desert sandy parts of it. It abounds in Syria, in the three Arabias, and in Africa: this is supposed to be the aspic which Cleopatra employed to procure her death. Alexandria, plentifully supplied by water, must then have had fruit of all kinds in its gardens. The baskets of figs must have come from thence, and the aspic, or cerastes, that was hid in them, from the adjoining desert, where there are plenty to this day.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS.] 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. Mr. Browne, who was in Egypt in 1792, estimates its whole population at two millions and a half. 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 what has been said of the populousness of Cairo, as if it contained two millions, is a mere fiction.

The descendants of the original Egyptians are an ill-looking, slovenly people, immersed in indolence, and are distinguished by the name of Copts; 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; but Mahomedanism is the prevailing worship among the natives. Those who inhabit the villages and fields, at any considerable distance from the Nile, consist of Arabs, or their descendants, who are of a deep swarthy complexion: they in general live in tents, tend their flocks, and have no fixed place of abode. The Turks who reside in Egypt, retain all their Ottoman pride and insolence, and the Turkish habit, to distinguish themselves from the Arabs and Copts, who dress very plain, their chief finery being an upper garment of white linen, and linen drawers; but their ordinary dress is of blue linen, with a long cloth coat, either over or under it. The Christians and Arabs of the meaner kind content themselves with a linen or woollen wrapper, which they fold, blanket-like, round their body. The Jews wear blue leather slippers; the other natives of the country wear red, and the foreign Christians yellow. The dress of the women is tawdry and unbecoming; but their clothes are silk, when they can afford it; and such of them as are not exposed to the sun, have delicate complexions and features. The women are not admitted into the society of men, even at table. When the rich are desirous of dining with one of their wives, they give her previous notice, when she accordingly prepares the most delicate dishes, and receives her lord with the greatest attention and respect. The women of the lower class usually remain standing, or seated in a corner of the room, while their husband is at dinner, and present him with water to wash, and help him at the table. The Copts are an acute and ingenious people; they 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 usual in Persia and other Asiatic countries. All Egypt is over-run with jugglers, fortune-tellers, mountebanks, and travelling sleight-of-hand men.

CITIES, CHIEF TOWNS, EDIFICES.] Among the cities of Egypt, Alexandria, as one of the most ancient, commercial, and best known to Europeans, may justly claim to be first mentioned. It is situated on the Mediterranean, in the most westerly part of Egypt, and was once the emporium of the world; and, by means of the Red Sea, furnished Europe, and great part of Asia, with the riches of India. It owes its name to its founder, Alexander the Great. It stands forty miles west from the Nile, and a hundred and twenty north-west of Cairo. It rose upon the ruins of Tyre and Carthage, and is famous for the light-house erected on the opposite island of Pharos, for the direction of mariners, deservedly esteemed one of the wonders of the world. 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 New 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 Raschid, stands twenty-five miles to the north-west of Alexandria, and is recommended for its beautiful situation, and delightful prospects, which command the fine country, or island of Delta, formed by the Nile, near its mouth. It is likewise a place of great trade.

Cairo, Kahira, or, as it is called by the Arabs, Masr, the present capital of Egypt, is a large and populous, but a disagreeable residence, on account of its pestilential air and narrow streets. It cannot, according to Mr. Browne, be estimated to contain less than 300,000 inhabitants. 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 in circumference. This castle is said to have been built by Saladin: at the west end are the remains of very noble apartments, some of which are covered with domes, and adorned with pictures in mosaic work; but these apartments are now only used for weaving embroidery, and preparing the hangings and coverings annually sent to Mecca. The well, called Joseph's well, is a curious piece of mechanism, about 300 feet deep. The memory of that patriarch is still revered in Egypt, where they show granaries, and many other works of public utility, that go under his name. They are certainly of vast antiquity; but it is very questionable whether they were erected by him. One of his granaries is shown in Old Cairo; but Norden suspects it to be a Saracen work; nor does he give us any high idea of the buildings of the city itself. On the banks of the Nile, facing Cairo, lies the village of Giza, which is thought to be the ancient Memphis. Two miles west, is Bulac, called the port of Cairo. The Christians of Cairo practise a holy cheat, during the Easter holidays, by pretending that the limbs and bodies of the dead arise from their graves, to which they return peaceably. The streets of Cairo are pestered with the jugglers and fortune-tellers already mentioned. One of their favourite exhibitions is their dancing-camels, which, when young, they place upon a large heated floor; the intense heat makes the poor creatures caper, and being plied all the time with the sound of drums, the noise of that instrument sets them a dancing whenever they hear it.

The other towns of note in Egypt are, Damietta, supposed to be the ancient Pelusium; Seyd, on the west bank of the Nile, 200 miles south of Cairo, said to be the ancient Egyptian Thebes; by the few who have visited it, it is reported to be the most capital antique curiosity that is now extant; and Cossire, on the west coast of the Red Sea. 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 town, and gives name to the isthmus that joins Africa with Asia.

[MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.] The Egyptians export great quantities of manufactured as well as prepared flax, thread, cotton, and leather of all sorts, calicoes, yellow wax, sal ammoniac, saffron, sugar, sena, and cassia. They trade with the Arabs for coffee, drugs,

spices, calicoes, and other merchandises, which are landed at Suez, from whence they send them to Europe. Several European states have consuls resident in Egypt, but the customs of the Turkish government are managed by Jews. 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 Mahomedan traders.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The government of Egypt, before the late invasion by the French, was both monarchical and republican. The monarchical was executed by the pasha, and the republican by the Mamalukes or sangiacs. The pasha was appointed by the grand-signor, as his viceroy. The republican, or rather the aristocratical part of the government of Egypt, consisted of a divan, composed of twenty-four sangiacs, beys, or lords. The head of them was called the sheik-bellet, who was chosen by the divan, and confirmed by the pasha. Every one of these sangiacs was arbitrary in his own territory, and exercised sovereign power: the major part of them resided at Cairo. If the grand-signor's pasha acted in opposition to the sense of the divan, or attempted to violate their privileges, they would not suffer him to continue in his post; and they had an authentic grant of privileges, dated in the year 1517, in which year sultan Selim conquered Egypt from the Mamalukes. At present, though the French have been driven out of Egypt by the British arms, and the country restored to the Turks, it is in a state of the greatest confusion, and can scarcely be said to have any settled form of government.

REVENUES.] These are very inconsiderable, when compared to the natural riches of the country, and the despotism of the government. Some say that they amount to a million sterling, but that two-thirds of the whole is spent in the country.

MILITARY FORCE.] This consists in the Mamalukes, some bodies of whom are cantoned in the villages, to exact tribute, and support authority. The greater part are assembled at Cairo. They amount to about 8,000 men, attached to the different beys, whom they enable to contend with each other; and to set the Turks at defiance.

RELIGION.] To what has been already said concerning the religion of Egypt, it is proper to add, that the bulk of the Mahomedans 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. The Copts profess themselves to be Christians of the Greek church, but they embrace transubstantiation; in which, and other points, the catholics of Cairo think they approach their faith nearer than the Greeks. They have, however, adopted, from the Mahomedans, the custom of frequent prostrations during divine service, ablutions, and other ceremonies. In religious, and indeed many civil matters, they are under the jurisdiction of the patriarch of Alexandria, who, by the dint of money, generally purchases a protection at the Ottoman court.

LITERATURE.] Though it cannot be doubted that the Greeks derived all their knowledge from the ancient Egyptians, yet scarcely a vestige of it remains among their descendents. This is owing to the bigotry and ignorance of their Mahomedan masters; but here it is proper to make one observation, which is of general use. The caliphs, or Saracens, who subdued Egypt, were of three kinds. The first, who were the immediate successors of Mahomed, made war, from

conscience and principle, upon all kinds of literature, excepting the Koran; and hence it was, that when they took possession of Alexandria, which contained the most magnificent library the world ever beheld, its valuable manuscripts were applied for some months in cooking their victuals, and warming their baths. The same fate attended the other magnificent Egyptian libraries. The caliphs of the second race were men of taste and learning, but of a peculiar character. They bought up all the manuscripts that survived the general conflagration, relating to astronomy, medicine, and some useless parts of philosophy; but they had no taste for the Greek arts of architecture, sculpture, painting, or poetry, and learning was confined to their own courts and colleges, without ever finding its way back to Egypt. The lower race of caliphs, especially those who called themselves caliphs of Egypt, disgraced human nature; and the Turks have riveted the chains of barbarous ignorance which they imposed.

All the learning, therefore, possessed by the modern Egyptians consists in arithmetical calculation for the dispatch of business, the jargon of astrology, a few nostrums in medicine, and some knowledge of the Mahomedan religion.

[LANGUAGE.] The Coptic is the ancient language of Egypt. This was succeeded by the Greek, about the time of Alexander the Great; and that by the Arabic, upon the commencement of the caliphate, when the Arabs dispossessed the Greeks of Egypt. The Arabic, or Arabesque, as it is called, is the current language; the Coptic (says Mr. Browne) may be considered as extinct: numerous and minute researches have enabled me to ascertain this fact. In Upper Egypt, however, they unknowingly retain some Coptic words.

[ANTIQUITIES.] Egypt abounds more with these 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 bases of the largest covers eleven acres of ground, and its perpendicular height is 500 feet, but if measured obliquely to the terminating point, 700 feet. It contains a room thirty-four feet long, and seventeen broad, in which is a marble chest, but without either cover or contents, supposed to have been designed for the tomb of the founder. In short, the pyramids of Egypt are the most stupendous, and, to appearance, the most useless structures that ever were raised by the hands of men.

The catacombs, or mummy-pits, so called from their containing the mummies, or embalmed bodies of the ancient Egyptians, are subterraneous vaults of a prodigious extent; but the art of preparing the mummies is now lost. It is said, that some of the bodies thus embalmed are perfect and distinct at this day, though buried 3000 years ago. The labyrinth in Upper-Egypt is a curiosity, thought to be more wonderful than the pyramids themselves. It is partly under ground, and cut out of a marble rock, consisting, it is said, anciently, of twelve palaces or halls, and 3000 chambers, the intricacies of which occasion its name. The lake Moeris was dug by the order of an Egyptian king, to correct the irregularities of the Nile, and to communicate with that river, by canals and ditches, which still subsist, and are evidences of the utility as well as grandeur of the work. Wonderful grottos and excavations, mostly artificial, abound in Egypt. The whole country towards Grand Cairo is a continued scene of antiquities, of which the oldest are the most stupendous, but the more modern the most beautiful. Cleopatra's needle, and its

sculptures, are admirable. Pompey's pillar is a fine regular column of the Corinthian order, the shaft of which is one stone, being eighty-eight feet nine inches in height, or ten diameters of the column; the whole height is 114 feet, including the capital and the pedestal. The Sphinx, as it is called, is no more than the head and part of the shoulders of a woman, hewn out of the rock, and about thirty feet high, near one of the pyramids. 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.

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 Cambyses, king of Persia, conquered the Egyptians, 520 years before the birth of Christ; and that in the reign of these princes, those wonderous 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 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 300 years before Christ. His successors, who sometimes extended their dominion over great part of Syria, ever after retained the name of Ptolemies, and in 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 Marc Antony, Egypt became a Roman province, and thus remained till the reign of Omar, the second caliph of the successors of Mahomed, who expelled the Romans after it had been in their hands 700 years. The famous library of Alexandria, said to consist of 700,000 volumes, was collected by Ptolemy Philadelphus, son of the first Ptolemy: and the same prince caused the Old Testament to be translated into Greek; which translation is known by the name of the Septuagint. About the time of the crusades, between the year 1150 and 1190, Egypt was governed by Nouredin, whose son, the famous Saladin, proved so formidable to the 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 flourished under those illustrious usurpers, and made a noble stand against the prevailing power of the Turks, till the time of 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 deserts 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 very difficult 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 Gypsies.

An attempt was made a few years since, to deprive the Ottoman

Porte of its authority over Egypt, by Ali Bey, whose father was a priest of the Greek church. Ali having turned Mahomedan, and being a man of abilities and address, rendered himself extremely popular in Egypt. A false accusation having been made against him to the grand-signor, his head was ordered to be sent to Constantinople; but, being apprised of the design, he seized and put to death the messengers who brought this order, and soon found means to put himself at the head of an army. Being also assisted by the dangerous situation to which the Turkish empire was reduced, in consequence of the war with Russia, he boldly mounted the throne of the ancient sultans of Egypt. But not content with the kingdom of Egypt, he also laid claim to Syria, Palestine, and that part of Arabia which had belonged to the ancient sultans. He marched at the head of his troops to support these pretensions, and actually subdued some of the neighbouring provinces, both of Arabia and Syria. At the same time that he was engaged in these great enterprises, he was not less attentive to the establishing of a regular form of government, and the introducing of order into a country that had been long the seat of anarchy and confusion. His views were equally extended to commerce; for which purpose he gave great encouragement to the Christian traders, and took off some shameful restraints and indignities to which they were subjected in that barbarous country. He also wrote a letter to the republic of Venice, with the greatest assurances of his friendship, and that their merchants should meet with the utmost protection and safety. His great design was said to be, to make himself master of the Red Sea; to open the port of Suez to all nations, but particularly to the Europeans, and to make Egypt once more the great centre of commerce. The conduct and views of Ali Bey showed an extent of thought and ability that indicated nothing of the barbarian, and bespoke a mind equal to the founding of an empire. He assumed the titles and state of the ancient sultans of Egypt, and was ably supported by Sheik Daher, and some other Arabian princes, who warmly espoused his interests. He also succeeded in almost all his enterprises against the neighbouring Asiatic governors and pashas, whom he repeatedly defeated: but he was afterwards deprived of the kingdom of Egypt, by the base and ungrateful conduct of his brother-in-law, Mahomed Bey Abudahab; his troops being totally defeated on the 7th of March, 1773. He was also himself wounded and taken prisoner; and, dying of his wounds, was buried honourably at Grand Cairo. Abudahab afterwards governed Egypt, as Sheik-Bellet, and marched into Palestine to subdue Sheik Daher. After behaving with great cruelty to the inhabitants of the places he took, he was found dead in his bed one morning at Acre, supposed to be strangled. Sheik Daher accepted the Porte's full amnesty; and, trusting to their assurances, embraced the captain pacha's invitation to dine on board his ship; when the captain produced his orders, and the brave Daher, Ali Bey's ally, had his head cut off in the 85th year of his age.

A civil war now commenced between the adherents of Ali, and other beys or princes who rose on his ruins. Of these the principal were Murad and Ibrahim, who, having driven their enemies into banishment, began to quarrel among themselves; till, at length, after having alternately expelled each other from Cairo, they agreed to a kind of compromise in March, 1785.

From this time nothing of importance occurred till the invasion of Egypt by the French, of which some account has already been given in our summary of the affairs of France. The French made themselves masters of Cairo, and the whole of the Delta, forcing Murad Bey and the Mamalukes to take refuge in Upper Egypt; but, after the departure of Bonaparte, general Kleber, who was left at the head of the army, concluded a treaty with the grand vizier, who had been sent against him with a powerful army; by which the French troops were to be permitted to evacuate Egypt without molestation. But the British government having, at the same time, sent orders to the English admirals in the Mediterranean to prevent the return of the French to Europe, general Kleber, having received notice of these orders, immediately attacked the Turks, and defeated them with great slaughter. Kleber was, some time after, assassinated, and Menou took the command of the French.

In the latter end of the year 1800, a strong force was sent out by the British government, to expel the French from Egypt. Admiral Keith commanded the fleet, and that gallant and experienced officer, Sir Ralph Abercrombie, the land forces. After many unexpected delays the fleet arrived off Alexandria on the 1st of March, 1801. The troops made good their landing on the 7th and 8th of that month, and on the 13th gained a victory over the French, though, with the loss of above 2000 men in killed, wounded, and missing. On the 21st, a more decisive battle was fought, which ended in a complete victory on the part of the English, who, however, suffered a loss much to be lamented, in the death of the brave general Abercrombie, who was mortally wounded in this action, and died on the 28th. General Moore was also dangerously wounded. On the part of the enemy, the French general Roize was left dead on the field, and generals Lanusse and Rodet afterwards died of their wounds.

After the death of general Abercrombie, general (now lord) Hutchinson took the chief command of the British forces. The town and castle of Rosetta was taken by a division of the English army, under colonel Spencer, aided by a body of Turks; and early in May a force was detached to reduce Cairo. The French were defeated at Rhamanieh by the Turks, assisted by the British; and about the middle of June, the city of Cairo was invested on every side by the English forces, and those of the grand vizier. On the 22d of that month, the garrison of Cairo sent a flag of truce to the English general, and after a negociation of several days, a convention was agreed to, by which the French army at Cairo, and its dependencies, were to be conveyed in ships of the allied powers, and at their expense, together with their baggage, arms, ammunition, and effects, to the nearest French ports in the Mediterranean. The complete conquest of Egypt soon followed, by general Menou accepting the conditions of the convention of Cairo, for himself and the rest of the army under his command.

After the evacuation of Egypt by the French, the English endeavoured to effect a reconciliation between the Mamalukes and the Turks, to restore the former government of the country; but the Turks treacherously assassinating a number of the beys, the remainder fled into Upper Egypt, and the Porte being unable to subdue them, at length concluded a treaty with them, by which they yielded to them possession of that part of the country. In consequence, how-

ever, of mutinies and intestine contentions among the Turkish troops, the Mamalukes have again returned into Lower Egypt, and the country is at present a scene of confusion and anarchy, alternately ravaged by the different contending parties.

ABYSSINIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 800 } Breadth 680 }	between { 6 and 18 North latitude. } 33 and 43 East longitude. }	373,000

BOUNDARIES, DIVISIONS.] IT is bounded on the north by the kingdom of Sennaar, or Nubia; on the east by the Red Sea and the country of Adel; on the south by the kingdom of Gingiro and Alaba; and on the west by Kordofan and Gorham.

It contains (according to Mr. Bruce, from whom the following account is chiefly taken) the following provinces, viz.

1. Masuah; 2. Tigre; 3. Samen; 4. Begemder; 5. Amhara; 6. Walaka; 7. Gojam; 8. Damot; 9. Maitsha; 10. Dembea; 11. Kuara; 12. Nara.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, MOUNTAINS.] The surface of this country is generally rugged and mountainous; it abounds with forests and morasses, and it is also interspersed with many fertile vallies and plains that are adapted both to pasture and tillage. About the centre of the kingdom are the mountains of Lamalmon, and those of Amhara and Sameno, which latter are said to be the loftiest in the country, and in them numerous rivers arise and flow in all directions.

LAKES.] The lake of Tzana or Dembea (not to mention those of Gooderoo and Court Ohha) is by much the largest expanse of water known in this country. Its extent, however, has been greatly exaggerated. Its greatest breadth is thirty-five miles, and its extent in length is forty-nine. The Nile, by a current always visible, crosses the end of it. In the dry months, from October to March, the lake shrinks greatly in size; but after that all these rivers are full which are on every side of it, and fall into the lake, like radii drawn to a centre, it then swells, and extends itself into the plain country, and has of course a much larger surface.

There are about eleven inhabited islands in the lake. All these islands were formerly used as prisons for the great people, or for a voluntary retreat on account of some disgust or great misfortune, or as places of security to deposit their valuable effects during troublesome times.

RIVERS.] The chief river is the Nile, or that branch of it named the *bahr el-azrek*, or the Blue River, called by the Abyssinians Abawi. Besides this there are the Tacaze, the Kibbee, or, as the Portuguese call it, the Zibbee, the Mareb, and the Hawash, which falls into the Tacaze; and a great number of other smaller rivers.

METALS, MINERALS.] Some gold is found among the sands of the rivers, and there are mines of fossil salt. The Abyssinians, in lieu of small money, frequently make use of pieces of rock salt, which are as

white as snow and hard as stone. According to some accounts this country produces emeralds estimated at a high value.

CLIMATE, SEASONS, SOIL, PRODUCE.] The rainy season continues for six months of the year, from April to September, which is succeeded, without interval, by a cloudless sky and vertical sun: and cold nights, which as immediately follow these scorching days. The earth, notwithstanding the heat of these days, is yet perpetually cold, so as to feel disagreeably to the soles of the feet; partly owing to the six months' rain, when no sun appears, and partly to the perpetual equality of nights and days.

The soil, though in many places thinly spread, is rendered fertile and productive by the rains and rivers. Wherever it can be tilled and well watered, it yields very large crops of wheat, barley, millet, and other grain. The inhabitants have two, and often three harvests in the year: and, where they have a supply of water, they may sow in all seasons; many of their trees and plants retain their verdure, and yield fruit and flowers throughout the year: the west side of a tree blossoms first, and bears fruit; then the south side; next the north side; and last of all the east side goes through the same process, towards the beginning of the rainy season.

VEGETABLES.] The *Papyrus*, which is a plant well known in Egypt, appears to have been early brought thither from Ethiopia. It is also found in Abyssinia. *Balassar*, *Balm*, or *Balsam*, is also a native of Abyssinia. The great value set upon this drug in the East, remounts to very early ages. We know from scripture, the oldest history extant, as well as the most infallible, that the Ishmaelites, or Arabian carriers and merchants trafficking with the India commodities into Egypt, brought with them balm as a part of the cargo.—The *Eastie* is an herbaceous plant, which grows and comes to great perfection at Gondar; but it mostly abounds in that part of Maitsha and Goutto west of the Nile, where there are large plantations of it, and is there, almost exclusive of every thing else, the food of the Galla inhabiting that province. When soft, like the turnep well boiled, if eaten with milk or butter, it is the best of food, wholesome, nourishing, and easily digested.—The *Teff* is a grain commonly sown all over Abyssinia, where it seems to thrive equally on all sorts of ground; from it is made the bread which is commonly used throughout this country. The Abyssinians indeed have plenty of wheat, and some of it of an excellent quality. They likewise make as fine wheaten bread as any in the world, both for colour and taste; but the use of wheat-bread is chiefly confined to people of the first rank. The acacia-tree is very common in Abyssinia, as are several other curious productions of the vegetable world.

ANIMALS.] There is no country in the world which produces a greater number or variety of quadrupeds, whether tame or wild, than Abyssinia. Of the tame or cow-kind, great abundance present themselves every where, differing in size, some having horns of various dimensions, some without horns at all; differing also in the colour and length of their hair.

Among the wild animals are prodigious numbers of the gazel or antelope kind; the bohur, sassa, feeho, and madequa, and many others. The hyæna is still more numerous. There are few varieties of the dog or fox kind. Of these the most numerous is the deep, or, as he is called, the jackal; this is precisely the same in all respects as the deep of Barbary and Syria, who are heard hunting in great num-

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bers, and howling in the evening and morning. The wild boar, smaller and smoother in the hair than that of Barbary or Europe, but differing in nothing else, is met frequently in swamps or banks of rivers covered with wood.

The elephant, rhinoceros, giraffa, or camelopardalis, are inhabitants of the low hot country; nor is the lion, leopard, or saadh, which is the panther, seen in the high and cultivated country. The hippopotamus and crocodile abound in all the rivers, not only of Abyssinia, but as low down as Nubia and Egypt. There are many of the ass kind in the low country towards the frontiers of Atbara, but no zebras; these are the inhabitants of Fazuelo and Narea.

But of all the other quadrupeds, there is none exceeds the hyana for its merciless ferocity. They were a plague, says our author, speaking of these animals, in Abyssinia, in every situation, both in the city and the field, and I think surpassed the sheep in number. Gondar was full of them from the time it turned dark to the dawn of day, seeking the different pieces of slaughtered carcasses which this cruel and unclean people expose in the streets without burial.

It is a constant observation in Numidia, that the lion avoids and flies from the face of man, till by some accident they have been brought to engage, and the beast has prevailed against him; then that feeling of superiority imprinted by the Creator in the heart of all animals for man's preservation, seems to forsake him. The lion, having once tasted human blood, relinquishes the pursuit after the flock. He repairs to some highway or frequented path, and has been known, in the kingdom of Tunis, to interrupt the road to a market for several weeks; and in this he persists till hunters or soldiers are sent out to destroy him.

The number of birds in Abyssinia exceeds that of other animals beyond proportion. The high and low countries are equally stored with them: the first kind are the carnivorous birds. Many species of the eagle and hawk, many more still of the vulture kind, as it were, over-stock all parts of the country. That species of glede called hadgdaya, so frequent in Egypt, comes very punctually into Ethiopia, at the return of the sun, after the tropical rains. The nissar, or golden eagle, is not only the largest of the eagle kind, but one of the largest birds that flies. From wing to wing he is eight feet four inches. The black eagle, rachamah, erkoom, moroc, sheregrig, and waalia, are particularly described by the historian of Abyssinia, to whose celebrated work we refer the reader who is desirous of information concerning them.

There is no great plenty of water-fowl in Abyssinia, especially of the web-footed kind. Vast variety of storks cover the plains in May, when the rains become constant. All the deep and grassy bogs have snipes in them; and there are swallows of many kinds unknown in Europe; those that are common in Europe appear in passage at the very season when they take their flight from thence. There are few owls in Abyssinia, but those are of an immense size and beauty. There are no geese, wild or tame, excepting what is called the Golden Goose, Goose of the Nile, or Goose of the Cape, common in all the south of Africa: these build their nests upon trees, and, when not in water, generally sit upon them.

From the class of insects, we shall select the most remarkable, viz. the tsaltsalya, or fly, which is an insect that furnishes a striking proof how fallacious it is to judge by appearances. If we consider its small

size, its weakness, want of variety or beauty, nothing in the creation is more contemptible or insignificant; yet passing from these to his history, and to the account of his powers, we must confess the very great injustice we do him from want of consideration. We are obliged, with the greatest surprise, to acknowledge, that those huge animals, the elephant, the rhinoceros, the lion, and tiger, inhabiting the same woods, are still vastly his inferiors, and that the appearance of this small insect, nay, his very sound, though he is not seen, occasions more trepidation, movement, and disorder, both in the human and brute creation, than would whole herds of these monstrous animals collected together, though their number was in a ten-fold proportion greater than it really is.

This insect has not been described by any naturalist. It is in size very little larger than a bee, of a thicker proportion. As soon as this plague appears, and their buzzing is heard, all the cattle forsake their food, and run wildly about the plain, till they die, worn out with fatigue, fright, and hunger. No remedy remains but to leave the black earth, and hasten down to the sands of Atbara; and there they remain while the rains last, this cruel enemy never daring to pursue them farther. Though the size of the camel is immense, his strength vast, and his body covered with a thick skin, defended with strong hair, yet still he is not capable to sustain the violent punctures the fly makes with his pointed proboscis. He must lose no time in removing to the sands of Atbara; for, when once attacked by this fly, his body, head, and legs break out into large bosses, which swell, break, and putrefy, to the certain destruction of the creature.

[NATURAL CURIOSITIES.] Of these the principal are the spring which the Abyssinians consider as the source of the Nile, and the cataracts of that river.

The Agows (a people of a certain district) of Damot, pay divine honours to the Nile; they worship the river, and thousands of cattle have been offered, and still are offered, to the spirit supposed to reside at the sources. The village of Geesh, though not farther distant than 600 yards, is not in sight of the sources of the Nile. In the middle of a marsh near the bottom of the mountain of Geesh, arises a hillock of a circular form, about three feet from the surface of the marsh itself, though apparently founded much deeper in it. The diameter of this is something short of twelve feet; it is surrounded by a shallow trench, which collects the water, and voids it eastward; it is firmly built with sod or earthen turf, brought from the sides, and constantly kept in repair, and this is the altar upon which all their religious ceremonies are performed. In the middle of this altar is a hole, obviously made, or at least enlarged, by the hand of man. It is kept clear of grass or other aquatic plants, and the water in it is perfectly clear and limpid, but has no ebullition or motion of any kind discernible upon its surface. This mouth or opening of the source is some parts of an inch less than three feet in diameter, and the water stood about two inches from the lip or brim. The spring is about six feet six inches deep.

Ten feet distant from the first of these springs, is the sacred fountain, about eleven inches in diameter; but this is eight feet three inches deep: and about twenty feet distant from the first, is the third source, its mouth being something more than two feet large, and it is five feet eight inches deep. With a brass quadrant of three feet radius, Mr. Bruce found the exact latitude of the principal foun-

tain of the Nile to be $10^{\circ} 59' 25''$, though the Jesuits have supposed it 12° N. by a random guess. The longitude he ascertained to be $36^{\circ} 55' 30''$ east of the meridian of Greenwich.

The great cataract of Alata (for we shall omit describing those of inferior note) Mr. Bruce tells us was the most magnificent sight he had ever beheld. The height has been rather exaggerated. The missionaries say the fall is about sixteen ells, or fifty feet. The measuring is, indeed, very difficult; but, by the position of long sticks, and poles of different lengths, at different heights of the rock from the water's edge, Mr. Bruce thinks he may venture to say that it is nearer forty feet than any other measure. The river had been considerably increased by rains, and fell in one sheet of water, without any interval, above half an English mile in breadth, with a force and a noise that was truly terrible, and which stunned, and made him for a time perfectly dizzy. A thick fume or haze covered the fall all round, and hung over the course of the stream, both above and below, marking its track, though the water is not seen. The river, though swelled with rain, preserved its natural clearness, and fell, as far as he could discern, into a deep pool, or basin, in the solid rock, which was full, and in twenty different eddies to the very foot of the precipice; the stream, when it fell, seeming part of it to run back with great fury upon the rock, as well as forward in the line of its course, raising a wave, or violent ebullition, by chasing against each other.

We shall here subjoin a summary of the account our author gives of the causes of the inundation of the Nile.

The sun being nearly stationary for some days in the tropic of Capricorn, the air there becomes so much rarefied, that the heavier winds, charged with watery particles, rush in upon it from the Atlantic on the west, and from the Indian Ocean on the east. Having thus gathered such a quantity of vapours as it were to a focus, the sun now puts them in motion, and drawing them after it in its rapid progress northward, on the 7th of January, for two years together, seemed to have extended its power to the atmosphere of Gondar, when, for the first time, there appeared in the sky, white, dappled, thin clouds, the sun being then distant 34° from the zenith, without any one cloudy or dark speck having been seen for several months before. Advancing to the line with increased velocity, and describing larger spirals, the sun brings on a few drops of rain at Gondar the 1st of March, being then distant 5° from the zenith; these are greedily absorbed by the thirsty soil; and this seems to be the farthest extent of the sun's influence capable of causing rain, which then only falls in large drops, and lasts but a few minutes: the rainy season, however, begins most seriously upon its arrival at the zenith of every place, and these rains continue constant and increasing after he has passed it, in his progress northward.

In April, all the rivers in Amhara, Begemder, and Lasta, are first discoloured, and then, beginning to swell, join the Nile in the several parts of its course nearest them; the river then, from the height of its angle of inclination, forces itself through the stagnant lake without mixing with it. In the beginning of May, hundreds of streams pour themselves from Gojam, Damot, Maitsha, and Dembea, into the lake Tzana, which had become low by intense evaporation, but now begins to fill insensibly, and contributes a large quantity of water to the Nile, before it falls down the cataract of Alata. In the beginning of June, the sun having now passed all Abyssinia, the rivers there are

all full ; and then is the time of the greatest rains in Abyssinia, while it is for some days, as it were, stationary in the tropic of Cancer.

Immediately after the sun has passed the line, he begins the rainy season to the southward, still as he approaches the zenith of each place; but the situation and necessities of this country being varied, the manner of promoting the inundation is changed. A high chain of mountains runs from above 6° south all along the middle of the continent towards the Cape of Good Hope, and intersects the southern parts of the peninsula, nearly in the same manner that the river Nile does the northern. A strong wind from the south, stopping the progress of the condensed vapours, dashes them against the cold summits of this ridge of mountains, and forms many rivers, which escape in the direction either east or west as the level presents itself. If this is towards the west, they fall down the sides of the mountains into the Atlantic, and if on the east, into the Indian Ocean.

INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS.] The Abyssinians are in general tall and well made. They are of a dark olive complexion ; their features are proportionate ; their eyes large, black, and sparkling ; their noses rather high than flat : their lips small ; and their teeth extremely white and handsome. With respect to their disposition, they are mild and docile, and in their general conduct sober and temperate.

The dress of persons of quality is a long fine vest, either of silk or cotton, tied about the middle with a rich scarf. The common people have only a pair of cotton drawers, and a kind of scarf, or piece of the same linen with which they cover the rest of the body. The habit of women of the superior class consists of the richest silks, ornamented, according to their rank, with trinkets and jewels, images, and relics of various kinds. Women in general are allowed to appear in public, and to converse freely with the men, without any of those restrictions to which the Turkish women are commonly subject. The women of superior condition are not very guarded in their conduct, but those of inferior rank are more faithful to their husbands; and they also willingly submit to the meaner and more laborious offices of domestic life. It is their business to grind corn for the family, which they perform daily by means of hand-mills.

Although we read in the accounts of the Jesuits, says Mr. Bruce, a great deal about marriage and polygamy, yet there is nothing which may be averred more truly than that there is no such thing as marriage in Abyssinia, unless it be that which is contracted by mutual consent, without other form, subsisting only till it is dissolved by dissent of one or the other, and to be renewed or repeated as often as it is agreeable to both parties. There is no such distinction as legitimate and illegitimate children, from the king to the beggar. Their funerals are attended with many superstitious ceremonies : the relations, friends, and a number of hired mourners bewail the dead for many days together, with loud shrieks and lamentations ; and the women make wounds in their faces with their nails.

The Abyssinians neither eat nor drink with strangers ; and they break or purify every vessel which has been used by them. They eat raw flesh, and even cut it from the living animal, according to Mr. Bruce, who tells us that, in the neighbourhood of Axum, he met with some travellers who were driving a cow before them. He afterwards found that they cut steaks from the higher part of the buttock : they then closed the wound by drawing the skin over it, and applied to it

a cataplasm of clay. They then drove the animal before them, in order to supply them and their companions with another meal. At their feasts, according to the same traveller, they have a bull or cow, one or more, according to the number of guests, which are tied at the door of the house in which they are assembled. From these animals square pieces of flesh are cut and served up on round cakes of unleavened bread, made of teff. As no person of any fashion feeds himself, or touches his own meat, the women take the steak, while the motion of the fibres is distinctly seen, cut it into small pieces, well pepper them, and wrap them up in the teff-bread like so many cartridges. In this form they are put into the mouths of the guests, who, like birds fed by their dam, are opening their mouths to receive the morsels that are ready, as fast as they can be prepared for them. The females, after having thus supplied the male guests, eat till they are satisfied, and then all drink together. The victim is still bleeding, writhing, and roaring at the door. When the animal has bled to death, the cannibals tear the remaining flesh from the thighs with their teeth, like dogs.—Such is Mr. Bruce's description of an Abyssinian feast.

The offering of meat and drink in Abyssinia is an assurance of safety to the person to whom it is offered. Many of the customs of this country resemble those of the ancient Persians and Egyptians.

CITIES, CHIEF TOWNS.] Gondar, the metropolis of Abyssinia, is situated upon a hill of considerable height, the top of it nearly plain, on which the town is placed. It consists of about ten thousand families in time of peace; the houses are chiefly of clay, the roofs thatched in the form of cones, which is always the construction within the tropical rains. On the west of the town is the king's house, formerly a structure of considerable consequence. It was a square building flanked with square towers. It was formerly four stories high, and from the top of it had a magnificent view of all the country southward to the lake Tzana. Great part of this house is now in ruins, having been burnt at different times; but there is still ample lodging in the two lowest floors of it, the audience-chamber being above one hundred and twenty feet long.

The palace and all its contiguous buildings are surrounded by a substantial stone wall thirty feet high, with battlements upon the outer wall, and a parapet roof between the outer and inner, by which you can go along the whole, and look into the street. There appear to have been never any embrasures for cannon, and the four sides of the walls are above an English mile and a half in length. Gondar, by a number of observations of the sun and stars, is in N. lat. $12^{\circ} 34' 30''$; its longitude is $37^{\circ} 33'$ east from Greenwich.

Dixan is the first town in Abyssinia, on the side of Taranta. It is built on the top of a hill perfectly in form of a sugar-loaf; a deep valley surrounds it every where like a trench, and the road winds spirally up the hill till it ends among the houses. It is true of Dixan, as of most frontier towns, that the bad people of both contiguous countries resort thither. The town consists of Moors and Christians, and is very well peopled; yet the only trade of either of these sects is a very extraordinary one, that of selling children. The Christians bring such as they have stolen in Abyssinia to Dixan as to a sure deposit; and the Moors receive them there, and carry them to a certain market at Masuah, whence they are sent over to Arabia or India. The priests of the province of Tigré, especially those near the rock

Damo, are openly concerned in this infamous practice. Dixan is in lat. $14^{\circ} 57' 55''$ north, and long. $40^{\circ} 7' 30''$ east of the meridian of Greenwich.

Axum is supposed to have been once the capital of Abyssinia, and its ruins are now very extensive; but, like the cities of ancient times, consist altogether of public buildings. In one square, which seems to have been the centre of the town, there are forty obelisks, none of which have any hieroglyphics upon them. They are all of one piece of granite, and, on the top of that which is standing, there is a *palera*, exceedingly well carved, in the Greek taste. Axum is watered by a small stream, which flows all the year from a fountain in the narrow valley where stand the rows of obelisks. The spring is received into a magnificent bason 150 feet square, and thence it is carried at pleasure, to water the neighbouring gardens, where there is little fruit excepting pomegranates, neither are these very excellent. The latitude of this town is $14^{\circ} 6' 36''$ north.

Masuah. The houses of this town, which is situated upon an island bearing the same name, on the Abyssinian shore of the Red Sea, are in general built of poles and bent grass, as in the towns of Arabia; but besides these, there are about twenty of stone, six or eight of which are two stories each. N. lat. $15^{\circ} 35' 5''$. E. long. $39^{\circ} 36' 30''$.

TRADE.] There is a considerable deal of trade carried on at Masuah, narrow and confined as the island is, and violent and unjust as is the government. But it is all done in a slovenly manner, and for articles in which a small capital is invested. Property here is too precarious to risk a venture in valuable commodities, where the hand of power enters into every transaction.

Gondar, and all the neighbouring country, depend for the necessaries of life, cattle, honey, butter, wheat, hides, wax, and a number of such articles, upon the Agows, who inhabit a province in which the sources of the Nile are found, and which province is no where sixty miles in length, nor half that in breadth. These Agows come constantly in succession, a thousand or fifteen hundred at a time, loaded with these commodities, to the capital.

It may naturally occur, that, in a long carriage, such as that of a hundred miles in such a climate, butter must melt, and be in a state of fusion, consequently very near putrefaction: this is prevented by the root of an herb, called Moc-moco, yellow in colour, and in shape nearly resembling a carrot: this they bruise and mix with their butter, and a very small quantity preserves it fresh for a considerable time.

GOVERNMENT.] The government of Abyssinia has always been monarchical and despotic; the sovereign exercising absolute dominion over the lives, liberties, and fortunes of his subjects, and possessing uncontrollable authority in all matters ecclesiastical as well as civil. His will is the universal law, there neither being, nor ever having been, any written laws to restrain the royal power, or to secure the property or privileges of the subject. The monarchs of Abyssinia claim descent from Menilek, the son of Solomon, as they pretend, by the queen of Sheba. The crown is hereditary in this family, but elective as to the person. A peculiar custom formerly prevailed of confining all the princes of the blood royal in a palace on a high mountain, during their lives, or till they were called to the throne; but this practice, it appears, has now fallen into disuse.

REVENUE.] This arises from different imposts on the trade of the country; the sale of the great places of the kingdom; and a tenth, levied every third year, on all the cattle in the empire. The whole amount of these is not easily estimated, but it appears that it falls very short of what might be expected from a country of which the sovereign is the sole proprietor and disposer.

ARMY.] The military force of this country, according to Mr. Bruce, has been greatly exaggerated: that traveller does not suppose that any king of Abyssinia ever commanded 40,000 effective men, at any time, or on any occasion, exclusive of his own household troops, which are about 8000 infantry.

ROYAL TITLE, ARMS.] The Abyssinian monarchs assume the title of *Nagush* or *Neguz*, and are always addressed either by that or *Nagu-ha Nagasbt* king of kings; or by that of *Natzebe*, which is equivalent to the French *Sire*. Those who approach them prostrate themselves before them; and when they are seated in council, they are concealed from view.

The device of these sovereigns is a lion passant proper in a field gules, with this motto, *Mo Abava am Nizilet Solomon am Negade Jude*—"The lion of the race of Solomon and tribe of Judah, hath overcome."

RELIGION.] The inhabitants of Abyssinia consist of Christians, Jews, Mahometans, and Pagans: about one-third part are Mahometans, who are every where intermixed with the Christians. The pagans are chiefly the Gallas, besides some others who are dispersed through several of the provinces of the Abyssinian empire.

Mr. Bruce informs us, from the annals of Abyssinia, that in the time of Solomon all this country was converted to Judaism, and the government of the church and state modelled according to what was then in use at Jerusalem.

Some ecclesiastical writers, rather from attachment to particular systems, than from any conviction that the opinion they espouse is truth, would persuade us, that the conversion of Abyssinia to Christianity happened in the days of the apostles; but it appears that this was effected by the labours of Frumentius (the apostle of the Abyssinians) in the year of Christ 333, according to our account.

Their first bishop, Frumentius, being ordained about the year 333, and instructed in the religion of the Greeks of the church of Alexandria, by St. Athanasius, then sitting in the chair of St. Mark; it follows that the true religion of the Abyssinians, which they received on their conversion to Christianity, is that of the Greek church. They receive the holy sacrament in both kinds, in unleavened bread, and in the grape bruised with the husk together as it grows, so that it is a kind of marmalade, and is given in a flat spoon. They observe also circumcision.

The Abyssinian church is governed by a bishop or metropolitan, styled *Abuna* (our father); and sometimes, though improperly, patriarch, sent them by the Coptic patriarch of Alexandria, residing at Cairo, who is the only person that ordains priests.

LITERATURE.] With respect to arts and sciences, the Abyssinians are very uninformed, and will probably long continue so, both from the form of their government, and their natural indolence, and from the little intercourse they have with any nations in which knowledge is cultivated.

LANGUAGE.] A variety of languages are spoken in this country. The Jews speak a dialect of the Hebrew: the Moors an impure Arabic; the Gallas have likewise a language of their own. The dialect of the court is that of Amhara; that of Tigré, however, approaches nearest to the old Ethiopic, which has a considerable affinity to the Arabic, and is called *leshone gees*, or the learned language; and is still used not only in all their literary and religious books, but also in their public instruments and records.

HISTORY.] As the accounts of kings and princes of remote ages are not always entertaining, and as the history of so barbarous and uncivilised a people will, we presume, afford but small amusement to our readers, whatever satisfaction they may have received from surveying the manners and customs of the people, and the natural history of the country; we shall, therefore, make no farther apology for omitting the account of the annals of Abyssinia, but refer those who have any desire of information upon this subject, to the second volume of the Travels of our adventurous author, where they will find a very ample detail through more than 700 pages of a ponderous quarto.

INTERIOR COUNTRIES OF AFRICA;

FEZZAN, BORNOU, CASHNA, TOMBUCTOO, HOUSSA,
DAR-FUR, &c.

IT having been long a subject of complaint that Europeans know very little, if any thing, of the *interior districts* of Africa, a number of learned and opulent individuals formed themselves into a society for the purpose of exploring them. The association was formed on the 9th of June, in the year 1788; and on the same day a committee of its members, viz. *Lord Rawdon, the Bishop of Landaff, Sir Joseph Banks, Mr. Beaufoy, and Mr. Stuart*, were invested with the direction of its funds, the management of the correspondence, and the choice of the persons to whom the geographical mission was to be assigned. Persuaded of the importance of the object which the association had in view, their committee lost no time in executing the plan which it had formed. Two gentlemen were recommended to them; and, appearing to be eminently qualified for making the projected researches, they were chosen. One was *Mr. Ledyard*; the other a *Mr. Luvas*.

‘ Mr. Ledyard undertook, at his own desire, the difficult and perilous task of traversing from east to west, in the latitude attributed to the Niger, the widest part of the continent of Africa. On this bold adventure he left London, June 30, 1788, and arrived at Cairo on the 19th of August.

‘ Hence he transmitted such accounts to his employers as manifest him to have been a traveller who observed, reflected, and compared; and such was the information which he collected here from the travelling slave-merchants, and from others, respecting the interior districts of Africa, that he was impatient to explore them. He wrote to the committee, that his next communication would be from Senaar (six hundred miles to the south of Cairo): but death, attributed

to various causes, arrested him at the commencement of his researches, and disappointed the hopes which were entertained of his projected journey.

‘ Mr. Lucas embarked for Tripoli, October 18, 1788, with instructions to proceed over the desert of Zahara to Fezzan, to collect, and to transmit, by way of Tripoli, whatever intelligence the people of Fezzan, or the traders thither, might be able to afford respecting the interior of the continent; and to return by the way of Gambia, or the coast of Guinea.

‘ Instructions to undertake great enterprises are more easily given than executed. So Mr. Lucas found; only a part of the plan was this geographical missionary able to carry into execution. He set out, indeed, mounted on a handsome mule, presented to him by the bey, the pasha’s eldest son, in company with shereefs, for the kingdom of Fezzan, intending to penetrate from Tripoli even to Gambia: but his peregrinations, which began February 1, 1798, terminated at Mesurata on February 7.

‘ Deprived of visiting Fezzan, and the other inland districts of Africa, Mr. Lucas solicited the information of his fellow travellers, and transmitted to the society the result of his conferences with a shereef Imhammed, who described the kingdom of Fezzan to be a small circular domain, placed in a vast wilderness, as an island in the midst of the ocean, containing near a hundred towns and villages, of which Mourzook is the capital, distant, south from Mesurata, about three hundred and ninety miles. In this kingdom are to be seen some venerable remains of ancient magnificence, some districts of remarkable fertility, and numerous smoking lakes, producing a species of fossil alkali called *trona*.’—We shall presently give a more circumstantial and authentic account of this country, from the description of it by Mr. Horneman, a later traveller under the patronage of the African society, who was at Mourzook, and resided there several months in the years 1798 and 1799.

‘ The narrative proceeds to state, that south-east of Mourzook, at the distance of one hundred and fifty miles, is a sandy desert, two hundred miles wide; beyond which are the mountains of Tibesti, inhabited by ferocious savages, tributary to Fezzan. The valleys between the mountains are said to be fertilised by innumerable springs, to abound with corn, and to be celebrated for their breed of camels. The tribute of the Tibestins to the king of Fezzan is twenty camel-loads of senna.

‘ This kingdom is inconsiderable, when compared with the two great empires of Bornou and Cashna, or Kassina, which lie south of Fezzan, occupying that vast region which spreads itself from the river of the Antelopes for twelve hundred miles westward, and includes a great part of the Niger’s course. Cashna, or Kassina, we are informed, contains a thousand towns and villages; and in Bornou, which is still more considerable, thirty languages are said to be spoken. The latter is represented as a fertile and beautiful country; its capital being situated within a day’s journey of the river *Wod-el-Gazel*, which is lost in the sandy wastes of the vast desert of Bilma, and is inhabited by herdsmen, dwelling, like the old patriarchs, in tents; and whose wealth consists in their cattle*. (Bornou, or Ber-

* Horses and horned cattle, goats, sheep, and camels, are the common animals of the country.

noa, is a word signifying the land of Noah; for the Arabs conceive, that, on the retiring of the deluge, its mountains received the ark.) Though they cultivate various sorts of grain, the use of the plough is unknown; and the hoe is the only instrument of husbandry. Here grapes, apricots, and pomegranates, together with limes and lemons, and two species of melons, the water and the musk, are produced in large abundance; but one of the most valuable of its vegetables is a tree called kedeyna, which in form and height resembles the olive, is like the lemon in its leaf, and bears a nut, of which the kernel and the shell are both in great estimation, the first as a fruit, the last on account of the oil which it furnishes when bruised, and which supplies the lamps of the people of Bornou with a substitute for the oil of olives, p. 139. Bees, it is added, are so numerous, that the wax is often thrown away as an article of no value in the market. Many other particulars are added, for which we must refer to the work. The population is described by the expression, *a countless multitude*. We shall pass over the nature of their religion, which is Mahomedan; of their government, which is an elective monarchy; and the singular mode of their electing a new king from among the children of the deceased sovereign: but the account of the present sultan, his wives and his children (p. 227), is too curious not to be exhibited.

‘The present sultan, whose name is Ali, is a man of an unostentatious, plain appearance; for he seldom wears any other dress than the common blue shirt of cotton or silk, and the silk or muslin turban, which form the usual dress of the country. Such, however, is the magnificence of his seraglio, that the ladies who inhabit it are said to be five hundred in number, and he himself is described as the reputed father of three hundred and fifty children, of whom three hundred are males; a disproportion which naturally suggests the idea that the mother, preferring to the gratification of natural affection the joy of seeing herself the supposed parent of a future candidate for the empire, sometimes exchanges her female child for the male offspring of a stranger.

‘We are told that fire-arms, though not unknown to the people of Bornou, are not possessed by them.

‘South-east from Bornou lies the extensive kingdom of Begarmee; and beyond this kingdom are said to be several tribes of negroes, idolaters, and feeders on human flesh. These, we are told, are annually invaded by the Begarmeese; and when they have taken as many prisoners as their purpose may require, they drive the captives, like cattle, to Begarmee. It is farther said, that if any of them, exhausted by fatigue, happen to linger in their pace, one of the horsemen seizes on the oldest, and, cutting off his arm, uses it as a club to drive on the rest.

‘We are not much disposed to give credit to this relation. That the negroes, who are sold for slaves, are different from the other Africans, is not probable; and that they should be driven along with the mangled limbs of their associates, utterly exceeds belief.

‘The empire of Cashna bears a great resemblance to that of Bornou.

‘After perusing what is here related of the extent, population, fertility, manufactures and commerce of these regions, we may be permitted to wonder at their having remained altogether unknown to Europeans. We cannot but suspect considerable exaggerations. That the interior parts of Africa are peopled, the caravans which go from

Cairo and Tripoli, and which are often absent three years, sufficiently evince; but that they are divided into regular and civilised states, may be a question. *A thousand towns and villages* in one empire, and *thirty different languages* spoken in the other, manifest a disposition in the shereef Imhammed to enlargement, or, at least, to retail loose reports. That they should be acquainted with, yet not possess fire-arms, nor make any attempt to navigate the Niger, nor even to take the fish that abound in its waters, but little accords with the history of their commerce, and of their progress in manufactures.⁹

Under the patronage of the same society for making discoveries in the interior countries of Africa, Mr. Mungo Park has since performed a journey eastward, from the mouth of the Gambia to Silla, on the river Niger, above a thousand miles from the Atlantic; and, to use the words of major Rennell, brought to our knowledge more important facts respecting the geography of western Africa, both moral and physical, than have been collected by any former traveller.

Mr. Park set out from Pisania (a British factory on the banks of the Gambia) on the 2d of December 1795, and took his route through the kingdoms of Woolli, Bondou, Kayaaga, Kasson, Kaarta, and Ludamar, to Bambarra. The country of Woolli, he tells us, every where rises into gentle acclivities, which are generally covered with extensive woods, and the towns are situate in the intermediate valleys; the chief productions are cotton, tobacco, and different kinds of corn. Medina, the capital of this kingdom, is a place of considerable extent, and may contain from eight hundred to a thousand houses. The country of Bondou, like that of Woolli, is very generally covered with woods; but in native fertility, in the opinion of our traveller, is not surpassed by any part of Africa. The name of the capital of this country is Fatteconda. The inhabitants are of the tribe of the Foulahs, who are in general of a tawny complexion, with small features, and soft silky hair. The Foulahs of Bondou are naturally of a mild and gentle disposition; but they evidently consider all the negro natives as their inferiors; and, when talking of different nations, always rank themselves among the white people. In Kayaaga, the next kingdom, the air and climate are more pure and salubrious than at any of the settlements towards the coast; the face of the country is every where interspersed with a pleasing variety of hills and valleys; and the windings of the Senegal river, which descends from the rocky hills of the interior, make the scenery on its banks very picturesque and beautiful. The inhabitants are called Serawoollies, or, as the French write it, Seracolets. Their complexion is a jet black; their government is a despotic monarchy; and they are habitually a trading people. In the kingdom of Kasson, of which Kooniakarry is the capital, from the top of a high hill Mr. Park had an enchanting prospect of the country. The number of towns and villages, and the extensive cultivation around them, surpassed every thing he had yet seen in Africa. A gross calculation may be formed of the number of inhabitants in this delightful plain, from the fact, that the king of Kasson can raise four thousand fighting men by the sound of his war-drum. At Kemmoo, the capital of Kaarta, Mr. Park had an audience of the king, who advised him to return to Kasson; telling him it was not in his power at present to afford him much assistance, for that all kind of communication between Kaarta and Bambarra had been interrupted for some time past, in consequence of a war between the two kingdoms. Our traveller, however, resolved to con-

tinued his journey, and proceeded to Jarra, a town in the kingdom of Ludamar, whence he sent presents to Ali, the sovereign, then encamped at Benowm, requesting permission to pass through his territories. Several days afterwards, one of Ali's slaves arrived with instructions, as he pretended, to conduct him as far as Goomba, on the farther frontier; but, before he arrived there, he was seized by a party of Moors, who conveyed him to Ali at Benowm, who detained him a prisoner more than three months. He, however, at length found means to make his escape, in the confusion which ensued in consequence of the success of the army of the king of Kaarta, who had invaded the country. His joy at his escape, he tells us, it is impossible to describe; but he soon found that his real situation was distressful in the extreme: he was in the midst of a barren wilderness; and, after travelling a long time, exposed to the burning heat of the sun, reflected with double violence from the hot sand, his suffering from thirst became so intolerable, that he fainted on the sand, and expected the immediate approach of death. Nature, however, at length resumed its functions; and, on recovering his senses, he found the sun just sinking behind the trees, and the evening become somewhat cool. It soon after rained plentifully for more than an hour, and he quenched his thirst by wringing and sucking his clothes, by which he was sufficiently relieved to enable him to pursue his journey; and, after travelling several days more, he at length came in sight of one of the principal objects pointed out for his research—the river Niger. “I saw,” says he, “with infinite pleasure, the great object of my mission—the long-sought for, majestic Niger, glittering to the morning sun, as broad as the Thames at Westminster, and flowing slowly to the eastward. I hastened to the brink, and, having drunk of the water, lifted up my fervent thanks in prayer to the Great Ruler of all things, for having thus far crowned my endeavours with success.”

He had now reached Sego, the capital of Bambarra, which he thus describes:—“Sego, properly speaking, consists of four distinct towns; two on the northern bank of the Niger, and two on the southern. They are all surrounded with high mud walls; the houses are built of clay, of a square form, with flat roofs; some of them have two stories, and many of them are white-washed. Besides these buildings, Moorish mosques are seen in every quarter; and the streets, though narrow, are broad enough for every useful purpose, in a country where wheel-carriages are entirely unknown. From the best inquiries I could make, I have reason to believe that Sego contains, altogether, about thirty thousand inhabitants. The view of this extensive city, the numerous canoes upon the river, the crowded population, and the cultivated state of the surrounding country, formed altogether a prospect of civilization and magnificence which I little expected to find in the bosom of Africa.—Sego is situate, as nearly as can be ascertained, in north lat. 14 deg. 10 min.: west lon. 2 deg. 26 min.”

From Sego, Mr. Park continued his journey along the banks of the Niger to Silla, a large town about eighty miles to the east of Sego; and here, the tropical rains being set in, his finances expended, and various other difficulties concurring to render his farther progress extremely dangerous, if not impracticable, he terminated his travels to the eastward “at a point (says Major Rennell) somewhat more than sixteen degrees east of Cape Verd, and precisely in the

same parallel. The line of distance arising from this difference of longitude, is about 941 geographical miles, or 1090 British, within the western extremity of Africa; a point which, although short by two hundred miles of the desired station, Tombuctoo, the attainment of which would unquestionably have been attended with great *clat*, was yet far beyond what any other European, whose travels have been communicated to the European world, had ever reached."

Mr. Park gives the following account of Tombuctoo and Houssa, from the information he was able to collect concerning those cities, at Segou, and in the course of his journey:

"To the north-east of Masina (a kingdom on the northern bank of the Niger, at a short distance from Silla) is situate the kingdom of Tombuctoo, the great object of European research; the capital of this kingdom being one of the principal marts for that extensive commerce which the Moors carry on with the Negroes. The hopes of acquiring wealth in this pursuit, and zeal for propagating their religion, have filled this extensive city with Moors and Mahomedan converts; the king himself, and all the chief officers of state, are Moors; and they are said to be more severe and intolerant in their principles than any other of the Moorish tribes in this part of Africa. I was informed by a venerable old negro, that when he first visited Tombuctoo, he took up his lodging at a sort of public inn, the landlord of which, when he conducted him into his hut, spread a mat on the floor, and laid a rope upon it, saying 'If you are a Mussulman, you are my friend; sit down: but if you are a Kafir (infidel), you are my slave, and with this rope I will lead you to market.' The present king of Tombuctoo is named Abu Abraham. He is reported to possess immense riches. His wives and concubines are said to be clothed in silk, and the chief officers of state live in considerable splendour. The whole expence of his government is defrayed, as I was told, by a tax upon merchandise, which is collected at the gates of the city.

"The city of Houssa (the capital of a large kingdom to the eastward of Tombuctoo) is another great mart for Moorish commerce. I conversed with many merchants who had visited that city, and they all agreed that it is larger and more populous than Tombuctoo. The trade, police, and government, are nearly the same in both; but, in Houssa, the Negroes are in greater proportion to the Moors, and have some share in the government."

Mr. Park was likewise told by a shercef who resided at Walet, the capital of the kingdom of Beeroo, to the northward of Segou, and who had visited Houssa, and lived some years at Tombuctoo, "that Houssa was the largest town he had ever seen: that Walet was larger than Tombuctoo: but being remote from the Niger, and its trade consisting chiefly of salt, it was not so much resorted to by strangers: that between Benowm and Walet was ten days' journey, but the road did not lead through any remarkable towns, and travellers supported themselves by purchasing milk from the Arabs, who keep their herds by the watering-places: two of the days' journey was over a sandy country without water. From Walet to Tombuctoo was eleven days more: but water was more plentiful, and the journey was usually performed upon bullocks. He said there were many Jews at Tombuctoo; but they all spoke Arabic, and used the same prayers as the Moors."

The city of Tombuctoo is placed by major Rennell, from a com-

parison of all the accounts received of it, in north latitude $16^{\circ} 30'$; east longitude $1^{\circ} 33'$.

According to the report of Mr. Park the interior parts of Africa are inhabited by three distinct races of men;—the Mandingoes, or proper negroes; the Foulahs, or white Ethiopians of Ptolemy and Pliny, who have neither the crisped hair, nor jetty blackness of the Mandingoes; and the Moors, natives of Arabia, who in their persons and complexions exactly resemble the Mulattoes of the West Indies, and who are bigotted Mahometans, and of a disposition most perfidious and sanguinary. Of these three nations, though they are frequently intermixed, the negroes, whether Mandingoes or Foulahs, are generally found to the south of the Moors. The negroes, for the most part, cultivate the grounds; the Moors, like the Arabians, from whom they are descended, are roving shepherds, or travelling merchants, who seem, from the earliest times, to have overspread the great African desert and the Oases, or fertile islands, thinly scattered through that sandy ocean. Hence they extended their arms southwards, and made themselves masters of several of the negro kingdoms on the Niger; so that their dominions form a narrow belt running from west to east, on the skirts of the desert, from the coasts of the Atlantic to the mountains of Abyssinia.

We shall now give some account of the travels of Mr. Horneman, whom we have mentioned above, and who in like manner travelled under the directions and patronage of the African society.

On the 6th of September, 1798, Mr. Horneman set out from Cairo with the Fezzan caravan, for the purpose of making discoveries in the interior of Africa. The caravan proceeded by Ummesogier, a small village containing but few inhabitants, to the Oasis of Siwah, which is only twenty hours journey from Ummesogier. At Siwah, Mr. Horneman saw the ruins which had before been discovered by Mr. Browne, whose observations he confirms. From Siwah the caravan proceeded by Augila, a town known to Herodotus, who places it at ten days journey from the city of the Ammonians, to Temissa, in the territory of Fezzan; thence to Zuila, in the same territory; and thence to Mourzook, the capital, where it arrived on the 17th of November.

The cultivated part of the kingdom of Fezzan, according to Mr. Horneman, is about 300 English miles in length from north to south, and 200 miles from east to west; but the mountainous region of Harutsch, to the east, and other districts to the south and west, are reckoned within its territory. The borderers on the north are Arabs, dependent, though rather nominally than really, on Tripoli: To the east the country is bounded by the mountains called the black and the white Harutsch, and by deserts. To the south and south-east is the country of the Tibboes; to the south-west that of the wandering Tuaricks; and to the west are Arabs. The climate is at no season temperate or agreeable. During the summer the heat is intense; and when the wind blows from the south is scarcely supportable even by the natives. The winter would be moderate were it not that a bleak and penetrating north wind frequently prevails. It rains but seldom, and then but little in quantity; but violent winds are frequent. Dates may be considered as the natural and staple produce of the country; some senna is likewise grown in the western parts; and the climate and soil suit wheat and barley; but from the indolence of the people, their inacquaintance with the arts of agriculture, and the oppressions of

the government, there is not sufficient corn grown for the consumption of the inhabitants, who rely for subsistence on importations from the Arab countries to the north. There are but few horses or cattle in Fezzan; the principal domestic animal is the goat. Camels are extremely dear, and only kept by the principal persons, and more wealthy merchants.

The population of the country is estimated by Mr. Horneman at 70 or 75,000 souls. He says it contains a hundred and one towns and villages, the names of the principal of which, next in order to Mourzook, the capital, and imperial residence, are Sockna, Sibba, Hun, and Wadon, to the north; Gatron to the south; Yerma to the west; and Zuila to the east.

The complexion of the Fezzaners is a deep brown; their hair is black and short; their form of face such as may be termed regular, and their nose less flattened than that of the negro. They are but of an ordinary stature, and their limbs are by no means muscular. Their mien, walk, and every motion and gesture denote a want of energy either of mind or body. Their dress consists of a shirt or frock, made of a coarse linen or cotton cloth brought from Cairo, and coarse woollen cloth of their own manufacture, called *abbe*. The middling classes wear frocks made at Soudan of dyed blue cloth. The richer people and the Mamelukes of the sultan are clothed in the Tripolitan habit; over which they wear a Soudan shirt of variegated pattern and colours, and likewise the *abbe*. The ornamental distinctions of dress are chiefly confined to the head-dress, and to rings on the arms and legs. The women of distinction divide their hair into curls or tresses, to which they fix pieces of coral and amber, and little silver bells. They also fasten to the top of the head silver cords on which are strung a number of silver rings, which hang on each side pendent to the shoulder. The meaner women wear merely a string of glass beads, and curl their hair above the forehead into large ringlets, into which severally is stuffed a paste made of lavender, caraway seeds, cloves, pepper, mastich, and laurel leaves, mixed up with oil. The women of Fezzan generally have a great fondness for dancing, and the wanton manners and public freedoms which, although Mahometans, they are permitted, astonishes the Mahometan traveller. The men are much addicted to drunkenness. Their beverage is the fresh juice of the date-tree called *luzibi*, or a drink called *basa*, which is prepared from dates, and is very intoxicating.

The commerce of Fezzan is considerable, but consists merely of foreign merchandise. From October to February, Mourzook is the great market and place of resort for various caravans from Cairo, Tripoli, Soudan, and companies of Tibboe and Arab traders. The caravans from the south and west bring to Mourzook slaves of both sexes, ostrich feathers, tiger skins, and gold, partly in dust and partly in native grains, to be manufactured into rings and other ornaments for the people of Interior Africa. From Bornou copper is imported in great quantities; from Cairo silks and woollen cloths; and from Tripoli fire-arms, sabres, knives, &c.

Fezzan is governed by a sultan descended from the family of the shereefs. His power over his own dominions is unlimited, but he holds them tributary to the pasha of Tripoli. The tribute was formerly 6000 dollars, but it is now reduced to 4000; and an officer from Tripoli comes annually to Mourzook, to receive this sum, or its value in gold, senné, or slaves. The throne is hereditary; but the

and the people of higher rank cover them with a kind of plaster, and colour them white, red, and black. The disposition of the people of Dar-Fúr is more cheerful than that of the Egyptians. Dancing is practised by the men as well as the women, and they often dance promiscuously. But the vices of thieving, lying, and cheating in bargains, are here almost universal. No property, whether considerable or trifling, is safe out of the sight of the owner. Their religion is the Mahomedan, but they allow polygamy without limitation; and they are little addicted to jealousy. To the women are assigned the most laborious employments: they till the ground, gather in the corn, make the bread, and even build the houses. The government is despotic; though the monarch can do nothing contrary to the koran. He speaks of the soil and productions as his personal property, and of the people as his slaves. His revenues arise from the tenth of all merchandise imported; the tribute of the Arabs who breed oxen, horses, camels, and sheep; and some other duties: the sultan is besides the chief merchant in the country, and dispatches with every caravan to Egypt a great quantity of his own merchandise. The name of the present sultan is Abd-el-rachman. When Mr. Browne was in the country, he was admitted to a great public audience given by the sultan. He found him seated on his throne, under a lofty canopy, attended by his guards. The space in front was filled with suitors and spectators to the number of more than fifteen hundred. A kind of hired encomiast stood on the monarch's left hand, crying out, with all his strength, during the whole ceremony—'See the buffaloe, the offspring of a buffaloe, a bull of bulls, the elephant of superior strength, the powerful sultan, Abd-el-rachman-el-rashid!—May God prolong thy life!—O Master! may God assist thee and render thee victorious!' Abd-el-rachman usurped the throne from his nephew, whom he conquered in battle in the year 1787."

WESTERN COAST OF AFRICA.

ON the western coast of Africa, proceeding southwards from the empire of Morocco, we pass the country of Zahara, inhabited by Moorish and Arab tribes, called the Monselemines, Mongearts, Wadelims, and Trasarts, who extend nearly to the mouth of the river Senegal, where the French had a fort and factory, and were entire masters of the gum-trade. It is called Fort Louis, was taken by the English in 1758, and confirmed to them by the peace of 1763; but in 1783 it was restored to France. Near Cape Verd is the island of Goree, considered as one of the safest, pleasantest, and most important settlements in all Africa. It was subject to France, but has been lately taken by the English. To the southward of Cape Verd, in latitude 8 deg. 12 min. north, and about 12 deg. lon. west, is the settlement of Sierra Leone, formed from the purest motives of humanity, under the patronage of a very respectable society of gentlemen in London, in the year 1791. The benevolent purposes for which it was intended are, to introduce the light of knowledge and the comforts of civilisation into Africa, and to cement and perpetuate

the most confidential union between the European colony and the natives of that country.

A settlement of a similar nature was formed upon the island of Bulam, or the same coast, to the eastward of the island of Bisgos. But this is now entirely relinquished. A great part of the colonists were massacred by the natives of the shore at the mouth of the river Gambia, who were accustomed to make annual plantations of rice in Bulam. The surviving colonists took refuge among their countrymen at Sierra Leone.

In the latter end of September 1794, a French squadron attacked this settlement, carried off or destroyed all the stores and whatever they could find belonging to the company, and burned all the public buildings and houses of the Europeans, and several likewise (as they said, by mistake) of those of the negro colonists. The colony, however, has not been abandoned, but the directors have taken such measures as have repaired their losses, and will no doubt tend still more to increase the trade and cultivation of the settlement. The colonists are on the happiest terms of friendship with the natives, and make great progress in clearing and improving the lands allotted them.

The country or coast of Guinea (or Upper Guinea) extends from 12 deg. west lon. to 8 deg. east, nearly in the parallel of 6 deg. north lat. It comprehends the grain coast, the tooth coast, the gold coast, the slave coast, (which includes Whidah and Ardrah, now subject to Dahomy) and Benin. The principal kingdom on these coasts is Dahomy, the monarch of which subdued and annexed to his dominions Whidah and Ardrah between the years 1724 and 1727. The country of Dahomy, as known at present (according to the history of it by Mr. Dalzel, governor of Cape Coast Castle), is supposed to reach from the sea-coast about 150 or 200 miles inland, though no European has penetrated above half that distance; the capital, Abomey, lies in about 8 deg. north lat. and 3 deg. 20 min. east lon. The soil is a deep rich clay of a reddish colour, with a little sand on the surface. In some places it is a little light and gravelly; but there is not a stone so big as an egg in the whole country, so far as it has been visited by the Europeans. It plentifully produces, according to the quantity of culture, maize and millet, or Guinea-corn of different sorts, a kind of beans, or rather kidney-beans, called calavances, and also a species of beans, called ground-beans. The Dahomans likewise cultivate yams, potatoes of two sorts, the cassada or manioka: the plaintain and the banana, pine-apples, melons, oranges, limes, guavas, and other tropical fruits also abound in this fertile country. Nor is it destitute of productions adapted for commerce and manufactures; such as indigo, cotton, the sugar-cane, tobacco, palm-oil, together with a variety of spices, particularly a species of pepper very similar in flavour, and indeed scarcely distinguishable from the black pepper of the East Indies. Dahomy abounds with buffaloes, deer, sheep, goats, hogs both wild and domestic, poultry of various kinds, particularly pintadas, or Guinea hens, and Muscovy ducks. The elephant, though its flesh be coarse, is made use of as food by the natives; and dogs are reared for the same purpose. The dress of the men in Dahomy consists of a pair of striped or white cotton drawers of the manufacture of the country, over which they wear a large square cloth of the same, or of European manufacture. This cloth is about the size of a common counterpane for the middling class, but much larger for the grandees. It is wrapped about the loins, and tied on

the left side by two of the corners, the other hanging down and sometimes trailing on the ground. A piece of silk or velvet of sixteen or eighteen yards makes a cloth for a grandee. The head is usually covered with a beaver or felt hat, according to the quality of the wearer. The king, as well as some of his ministers, often wears a gold and silver laced hat and feather. The arms and upper part of the body are usually naked; and the feet are always bare, none but the sovereign being permitted to wear sandals. The dress of the women, though simple, consists of a greater number of articles than that of the men. They use several cloths and handkerchiefs; some to wrap round the loins, and others to cover occasionally the breasts and upper part of the body. They adorn the neck, arms, and ankles with beads and cowries, and wear rings of silver or baser metals on their fingers: girls, before the age of puberty, wear nothing but a string of beads or shells round their loins, and young women usually expose the breasts to view. The general character of the Dahomans is marked by a mixture of ferocity and politeness. The former appears in the treatment of their enemies: the latter they possess far above the African nations with whom we have hitherto had any intercourse; this being the country where strangers are least exposed to insults, and where it is easy to reside in security and tranquillity. The language is that which the Portuguese call *Lingua Geral*, or General Tongue, and is spoken not only in Dahomy Proper, but in Whidah, and the other dependent states; and likewise in Mahee, and several neighbouring places. With respect to the Dahoman religion, it consists of a jumble of superstitious ceremonies, of which it is impossible to convey any satisfactory idea. The government is, perhaps, the most perfect despotism on the earth; the policy of the country admits of no intermediate degree of subordination between king and slave, at least in the royal presence, where the prime minister is obliged to prostrate himself with as much abject submission as the meanest subject. A minister of state, on his entrance, crawls towards the apartment of audience on his hands and knees, till he arrives in the royal presence, where he lays himself flat on his belly, rubbing his head in the dust, and uttering the most humiliating expressions. Being desired to advance, he receives the king's commands, or communicates any particular business, still continuing prostrate; for no person is permitted to sit, even on the floor, in the royal presence, except the women, and even they must kiss the ground when they receive or deliver the king's message. The king of Dahomy maintains a considerable standing army, commanded by an agaow or general, with several other subordinate military officers, who must hold themselves in readiness to take the field upon all occasions, at the command of the sovereign. The payment of these troops chiefly depends on the success of the expeditions in which they are engaged. On extraordinary occasions, all the males able to bear arms are obliged to repair to the general's standard; every caboceer, or grandee, marching at the head of his own people. Sometimes the king takes the field at the head of his troops; and, on very great emergencies, at the head of his women. Within the walls of the different royal palaces in Dahomy are immured not less than three thousand women, several hundreds of whom are trained to arms under a female general, and subordinate officers appointed by the king, in the same manner as those under the agaow. These warriors are regularly exercised, and go through their evolutions with as much expertness as the male soldiers. They have their large umbrellas,

their flags, their drums, trumpets, flutes, and other musical instruments. The singularity of this institution never fails to attract particularly the attention of Europeans, when among other uncommon exhibitions they are presented with the unusual spectacle of a review of female troops.

Benin is a country to the east of Dahomy, and extending from about 9 deg. north latitude to 1 deg. south. The climate is said to be extremely unwholesome and noxious. The animals are elephants, tigers, leopards, apes and ostriches, and in the rivers are a great number of crocodiles. The dress of the natives is neat and ornamental. The rich wear white calico or cotton petticoats, but the upper part of the body is commonly naked. The women use great art in dressing their hair, which they adjust in a variety of forms. Polygamy is common, and the king is said to have six hundred wives. Though jealous of each other, they are not so of Europeans, as they think it impossible that the taste of the women can be so depraved as to grant any liberties to a white man. Their religion is paganism. The king exercises an absolute authority: three great officers, distinguished by a string of coral, continually attend upon him to consult, instruct, and decide in his name. He can bring into the field an army of 100,000 men. Benin, the capital, situated on the river Benin or Formosa, was formerly a very closely built and populous city. In the streets, which are long and broad, are many shops filled with European merchandise, as well as with the commodities of the country. A principal part of the town is occupied by the royal palace, which is of vast extent, but neither elegant nor commodious.

To the south of Benin is the country of Loango, which is about 250 miles in length, and 180 in breadth. The climate of this kingdom is nearly as hot as any under the torrid zone, and much hotter than those of Congo and Angola. Loango was formerly subject to, and made a part of, the kingdom of Congo.

Congo (or Lower Guinea) is the name frequently given to the whole tract of country on the coast from the equator to 18 degrees of south latitude, including the kingdoms of Loango, Congo, Angola, and Benguela; but Congo Proper is only 150 miles broad along the coast, though it extends, it is said, 370 inland. It is bounded on the north by Loango, on the south by Angola, and on the east by an unknown country, the name of which is said to be Metamba. The climate is extremely hot in summer; but the winters are as mild as the finest springs of Italy. The animals it produces are elephants of a monstrous size, lions, leopards, tigers, wolves, zebras, buffaloes, &c. The country is likewise infested with a vast variety of serpents, some of them of a monstrous length and thickness; rattle-snakes, vipers, scorpions, and venomous insects of various kinds, both flying and reptile; the most pernicious and dangerous of which is the ant or pismire, which will not only destroy the fruits of the earth, but in the night surround even beasts and men in prodigious swarms, and devour them in a few hours, leaving only the bones. The character, manners, religion, and government of the natives of Congo, nearly resemble those of the negro kingdoms on this coast. The Portuguese have several settlements in this country.

To the south of Congo is the country of Angola, which is said to be divided among a number of petty princes. The Portuguese have several settlements on the coast; but the English and Dutch traffic with the natives, and purchase a great number of slaves.

Between Angola and the country of the Hottentots are the countries of Benguela and Mataman; but these are very little known to Europeans, and the latter is almost entirely desert.

COLONY OF THE CAPE OF GOOD HOPE.

THIS territory is the Dutch settlement at the most southern extremity of Africa, extending about 550 miles in length, from west to east, and 315 in breadth from south to north. It lies between 30 and 34 and a half degrees of south latitude, and 18 and 28 of east longitude, and is divided into four districts: the Cape district; that of Stellenbosch and Drakensteen; that of Zwellendam, and that of Graaf Reynet.

“Of this extensive territory,” says Mr. Barrow,* “a very great portion may be considered as an unprofitable waste, unfit for any sort of culture, or even to be employed as pasture for the support of cattle. Level plains, consisting of a hard impenetrable surface of clay, thinly sprinkled over with crystalized sand, condemned to perpetual drought, and producing only a few straggling tufts of acrid, saline, and succulent plants, and chains of vast mountains that are either totally naked, or clothed in parts with sour grasses only, or such plants as are noxious to animal life, compose at least one-half of the colony of the Cape. Two of these chains of mountains, called the *Zwarte Berg*, or Black Mountain, and the *Neuwelti Gebergte*, inclose together the great Karroo, or dry desert, extending nearly 300 miles in length, and 80 in breadth, and uninhabited by any human creature. Behind the town called Cape-town, are the mountains called the Table Mountain, the Devil’s Mountain, the Lion’s Head, and the Lion’s Back. The Table Mountain is a stupendous mass of naked rock, the north front of which, directly facing the town, is a horizontal line, or very nearly so, about two miles in length. The bold face that rises almost at right angles to meet this line has the appearance of the ruined walls of some gigantic fortress; and these walls rise above the level of Table Bay to the height of 3582 feet. The Devil’s Mountain on the one side, and the Lion’s Head on the other, make, in fact, with the Table, but one mountain: the height of the former is 3315, and that of the latter 2160 feet. The Devil’s Mountain is broken into irregular points, but the upper part of the Lion’s Head is a solid mass of stone, rounded and fashioned like a work of art, and resembling very much, from some points of view, the dome of St. Paul’s placed upon a high cone-shaped hill. From these mountains descend several rivulets which fall into Table Bay, and False Bay; but the principal rivers of the colony are the Berg or Mountain river, the Breede or Broad river, called also the Orange river, which has its periodical inundations like the Nile, and its cataracts; the Sunday river, and the Great Fish river, which is the boundary of the colony to the east.

The climate of the Cape appears to be in general free from the extremes of either heat or cold, and not in reality unhealthy. It has

* Travels into the Interior of Southern Africa, in 1797 and 1798.

been usual with the Dutch to consider the year as consisting of two periods, called the good and the bad monsoon; but "as these," Mr. Barrow observes, "are neither regular in their returns, nor certain in their continuance, the division into four seasons, as in Europe, appears to be more proper. The spring, reckoned from the beginning of September to that of December, is the most agreeable season; the summer, from December to March, is the hottest; the autumn, from March to June, is variable weather, generally fine, and the latter part very pleasant; the winter, from June to September, though in general pleasant, is frequently very stormy, rainy, and cold. The two most powerful winds are the north-east, and south-west; the first generally commences towards the end of May, and blows occasionally till the end of August, and sometimes through the month of September. The south-east predominates the rest of the year, and when the cloud shews itself on the mountain, sometimes blows in squalls with great violence." The kind of corn generally cultivated in this country is wheat, which richly repays the labour of the husbandman. Barley and rye are likewise grown, the former of which is preferred to oats for feeding horses. "The natural productions of the Cape," says Mr. Barrow, "are perhaps more numerous, varied, and elegant, than on any other spot of equal extent in the whole world. Few countries can boast of so great a variety of bulbous rooted plants as Southern Africa. Most of the European, and several of the tropical fruits have been introduced into the colony, and cultivated with success. In every month of the year the table may be furnished with at least ten different sorts of fruit, green and dry. The market is likewise tolerably well supplied with most of the European vegetables for the table, from the farms that lie scattered about the eastern side of the colony, in number about forty or fifty. On some of these farms are vineyards also of considerable extent, producing, besides the supply of the market with green and ripe grapes, and prepared raisins, about seven hundred leaguers or pipes of wine a year, each containing 154 gallons. Of these, from fifty to a hundred consist of a sweet luscious wine, well known in England by the name of Constantia, the produce of two farms lying close under the mountains, about mid-way between the two bays. The grape is the muscatel, and the rich quality of the wine is in part owing to the situation and soil, and partly to the care taken in the manufacture. No fruit but such as is full ripe, no stalks are suffered to go under the press: precautions seldom taken by the other farmers of the Cape."

The principal wild animals to be met with near the Cape, are wolves, hyenas, and various kinds of antelopes, among which are those called by the Dutch the spring-bok, the gemsboke, and the greisboke, the former of which is remarkable for its agility, whence it derives its name: according to the accounts of the peasants they sometimes go in herds to the amount of ten thousand in number. More inland are lions, tygers, buffaloes, elephants, and in the rivers hippopotami, called by the Dutch sea-cows. The horses of the Cape are not indigenous, but were first introduced from Java, and since that, at different times, from various parts of the world. The heavy draught work of the colony is chiefly performed by oxen. The Cape ox is distinguished by his long legs, high shoulders, and large horns. The larger kinds of birds which hover round the summit of the Tablemountain, are eagles, vultures, kites, and crows, Mr. Barrow wounded a condor, whose wings extended ten feet and an inch.

The general character of the Dutch at the Cape is a phlegmatic dullness, and an eager desire of gain. The minds of every class seem to be wholly bent on trade, yet none are opulent, though many are in easy circumstances. There are no beggars in the whole colony, and but a few who are the objects of public charity. The ladies of the Cape, it has been remarked by most travellers, are pretty, lively, and good-humoured; possessing little of that phlegmatic temper which so distinguishes the other sex. They are expert at the needle, at all kinds of lace knotting and tambour work; and in general make up their own dresses, following the prevailing fashions of England, brought from time to time by the female passengers bound to India. The Dutch planters or farmers farther up the country, are remarkable for their indolence and sensuality, and too many of them for their moroseness, and the severity and cruelty with which they treat the Hottentots, their slaves. They, however, possess one virtue, that of hospitality to strangers, in an eminent degree, and in general are, or affect to be, very religious.

Cape-town, the capital of this colony, and indeed the only assemblage of houses which deserves the name of a town, is pleasantly situate at the head of Table-bay, on a sloping plain that rises with an easy ascent to the feet of the Devil's-hill, the Table-mountain, and the Lion's-head before-mentioned. The town, consisting of about 1100 houses, built with regularity, and kept in neat order, is disposed into straight and parallel streets, intersecting each other at right angles. Many of the streets are open and airy, with canals of water running through them, walled in, and planted on each side with oaks; others are narrow and ill-paved. Three or four squares give an openness to the town. In one is held the public market; another is the common resort of the peasantry with their waggons; and a third, near the shore of the bay, and between the town and the castle, serves as a parade for exercising the troops. The barracks, originally intended for an hospital, for corn magazines, and wine cellars, is a large, well designed, regular building, which, with its two wings, occupies part of one of the sides of the great square. The upper part of this building is sufficiently spacious to contain 4000 men. The castle affords barracks for 1000 men, and lodgings for all the officers of one regiment; magazines for artillery, stores and ammunition; and most of the public officers of government are within its walls. The other public buildings are a Calvinist and a Lutheran church; a guard-house, in which the burgher-senate, or the council of burghers, meet for transacting business relative to the interior police of the town; a large building in which the government slaves, to the number of 330, are lodged; and the court of justice, where civil and criminal causes are heard and determined. The population of the town is estimated at about 6000 whites, inclusive of the military, and 12,000 slaves:—that of the whole colony, exclusive of the town, is estimated at only 15,000 whites. Between the town and Table-mountain are scattered over the plain a number of neat houses surrounded by plantations and gardens. Of these the largest and nearest to the town is that in which the government-house is erected. It is in length near 1000 yards, and contains about 40 acres of rich land, divided into almost as many squares by oak hedges.*

The government of the Cape is administered by a Dutch governor

* Barrow.

and lieutenant-governor, assisted by a council. Over each of the four districts there is a civil magistrate, called the *landrost*, who with six *hemraadn*, or a council of country burghers, is vested with powers to regulate the police of his district, superintend the affairs of government, adjust litigations, and determine petty causes. Their decisions, however, are subject to an appeal to the court of justice in Cape-town, in which the basis of the proceedings is the Roman or civil law.

The southern extremity of Africa was discovered by the Portuguese navigator Bartholomew Diaz, in 1493, who gave it the name of *Cabo Tormentoso*, or the cape of storms, from the boisterous weather which he met with near it; but Emanuel, king of Portugal, on the return of Diaz, changed its name to that of the Cape of Good Hope, from the hope he entertained of finding beyond it a passage to India. This hope was fulfilled by Vasco de Gama, who, having doubled this cape on the 20th of November, 1497, proceeded to India, and landed at Calicut on the 22d of May, 1498. The Portuguese, however, made no settlement in this part of Africa, nearer to the Cape than the banks of the Rio Infante, now the Great Fish River, which is 600 miles distant from it. In 1600 the Dutch first visited it, but for many years only touched at it in their voyages to and from the East Indies, to supply themselves with water and fresh provisions. At length, in 1650, a surgeon of one of their India ships, named Van Riebeck, pointed out to the directors of the Dutch East India company the great advantages which would be derived from establishing a settlement at this place. The company adopted his plan, and sent out four ships under his command to commence the settlement he had advised. With some presents of brass, toys, beads, tobacco, and brandy, he purchased of the natives permission to build a fort and form a settlement in their country; and from that time the Cape remained in the undisturbed possession of the Dutch, during the space of nearly 150 years, till it surrendered by capitulation to the British arms, under general Alured Clark, and admiral sir George Keith Elphinstone, on the 16th of September, 1795. It was, however, restored by the treaty of Amiens, and is now again in the possession of the Dutch.

COUNTRY OF THE HOTTENTOTS.

THE country of the Hottentots is a large region in the southern extremity of Africa, extending north by west from the Cape of Good Hope, beyond the mouth of Orange-river, and from the Cape in an east-north-east direction to the mouth of the Great Fish-river.

The Hottentots of the colony of the Cape, formerly the possessors of the country, are now almost to a man the slaves of the Dutch. "This weak people," says Mr. Bartow, "the most helpless, and in their present condition, perhaps the most wretched of the human race, duped out of their possessions, their country, and finally out of their liberty, have entailed upon their miserable offspring a state of existence to which that of slavery might bear the comparison of happiness. It is a condition, however, not likely to continue to a very remote posterity. The name of Hottentot will be forgotten, or remembered only as that of a deceased person of little note. Their numbers of

late years have rapidly declined." There are still, however, several tribes to which the general name of Hottentot* is given, as the Namaquas, the Bosjesmans, and the Gonaquas, who still preserve their independence. The former vary but little in their persons and dress from the Hottentots of the Cape and the Gonaquas, though their language is widely different. The Bosjesmen, or *men of the bushes*, so called from their lying in ambush in their predatory expeditions against the farmers of the colony, "are," says Mr. Barrow, "an extraordinary race of people. In their persons they are extremely diminutive: the tallest of the men measured only four feet nine inches, and the tallest woman only four feet four inches. One of these, who had several children, measured only three feet nine inches. Their colour, their hair, and the general turn of their features, evidently denote a common origin with the other tribes of Hottentots, though the latter, in point of personal appearance, have greatly the advantage. The Bosjesmen indeed are amongst the ugliest of all human beings. The flat nose, high cheek-bones, prominent chin, and concave visage partake much of the apeish character, which their keen eye, always in motion, tends not to diminish. Their bellies are uncommonly protuberant, and their backs hollow; but their limbs seem to be in general well turned and well proportioned. Their activity is incredibly great. The klip-springing antelope can scarcely excel them in leaping from rock to rock, and they are said to be so swift that on rough ground, or up the sides of mountains, horsemen have no chance with them. The Bosjesman, however, though in every respect a Hottentot, yet in his turn of mind differs very widely from those who live in the colony. In his disposition he is lively and cheerful, and in his person active. His talents are far above mediocrity; and averse to idleness, he is seldom without employment. Confined generally to their hovels by day, for fear of being surprised and taken by the farmers, they sometimes dance on moon-light nights from the setting to the rising of the sun. This cheerfulness is the more extraordinary as the morsel they procure to support existence is earned with danger and fatigue. The Bosjesmen neither cultivate the ground nor breed cattle, and their country yields few natural productions that serve for food. The bulbs of the iris, a few roots of a bitter and pungent taste, and the larvæ of ants and locusts are all it furnishes; and when these fail they are driven to the necessity of hazarding a toilsome and dangerous expedition into the colony.

Of the Gonaquas, and Hottentots in general, we shall give an account from M. Vaillant, a late French traveller:—"During the thirty-six hours which I spent (says M. Vaillant) with the Gonaqua Hottentots, I had time to make several observations concerning them. I remarked that they made a clapping noise with their tongue, like the rest of the Hottentots. When they accost any one, they stretch forth the hand, saying *Tabé!* I salute you. This word and ceremony, which are employed by the Caffres, or Kaffers, are not used by the Hottentots properly so called.

"This affinity of customs, manners, and even conformation; their being so near Great Caffraria, and the accounts I afterwards received,

* This name, according to Mr. Barrow, is unknown to the Hottentots, except as they have received it from the Dutch, and has no place or meaning in their language. The general name which they bear among themselves, in every part of the country, is *Quaiqua*.

convinced me that these hordes of Gonaquas, who equally resemble the Caffres and the Hottentots, must be a mixed breed produced by these two nations. The dress of the men, arranged with more symmetry, has the same shape as that of the Hottentots; but as the Gonaquas are a little taller, they make their mantles of calves' instead of sheeps' skins; they are both called kross. Several of them wear, hanging from their necks, a bit of ivory, or very white sheep bone; and this contrast of the two colours produces a good effect, and is very becoming.

“ When the weather is excessively hot, the men lay aside every part of their dress that is superfluous, and retain only what they name their jackals. This is a piece of skin of the animal so called, with which they cover what nature bids them conceal, and which is fastened to their girdle. This veil, however, negligently arranged, may be considered as an useless appendage, and is of very little service to their modesty. The women, much fonder of dress than the men, employ more care in adorning their persons. They wear a kross like the latter, but the apron which conceals their sex is larger than that of the Hottentots. During the great heats they retain only this apron, with a skin which descends behind from their girdle to the calf of the leg: young girls below the age of nine years go perfectly naked; when they attain to that age, they wear nothing but a small apron.

“ Whatever may be the extent of the deserts of Africa, we must not form any calculation respecting its population from those innumerable swarms of blacks which are found on the west, and which border all the coast of the ocean from the Canary isles to the environs of the Cape of Good Hope. There is certainly no proportion to enable us to hazard even a conjecture; since by a trade approved by a few, and held in detestation by the greater number, the barbarous navigators of Europe have induced these negroes, by the most villainous attractions, to give up their prisoners, or those who are inferior to them in strength. As their wants increased, they have become inhuman and perfidious beings: the prince has sold his subjects; the mother has sold her son; and nature, as an accomplice, has rendered her prolific.

“ This disgusting and execrable traffic is, however, still unknown in the interior parts of the continent. The desert is really a desert; and it is only at certain distances that we meet with a few hordes, that are not numerous, and who live on the fruits of the earth, and the produce of their cattle. After finding one horde, we must travel a great way to find another. The heat of the climate, the dryness of the sands, the barrenness of the earth, a scarcity of water, rugged and rocky mountains, ferocious animals; and, besides these, the humour of the Hottentots, a little phlegmatic, and their cold temperament—are all obstacles to propagation. When a father has six children, it is accounted a phenomenon.

“ The country of the Gonaquas, into which I penetrated, did not therefore contain three thousand people in an extent of thirty or forty leagues. These people did not resemble those degenerated and miserable Hottentots, who pine in the heart of the Dutch colonies, contemptible and despised inhabitants, who bear no marks of their ancient origin but an empty name; and who enjoy, at the expense of their liberty, only a little peace, purchased at a dear rate, by the excessive labour to which they are subjected on the plantations, and by the despotism of their chiefs, who are always sold to government.

I had here an opportunity of admiring a free and brave people, valuing nothing but independence, and never obeying any impulse foreign to nature.

“ Their huts, constructed like those of the Hottentots in the colonies, were eight or nine feet in diameter, and were covered with ox or sheep skins, but more commonly with mats. They had only one opening, very narrow and low; and it was in the middle of their hut that the family kindled their fire. The thick smoke with which these kennels were filled, and which had no other vent but the door, added to the stench which they always retain, would have stifled any European who might have had the courage to remain in them two minutes: custom, however, renders all this supportable to these savages.

“ The two colours for which they show the greatest fondness are red and black. The first is composed of a kind of ochrey earth, which is found in several places of the country, and which they mix and dilute with grease; this earth has a great resemblance to brick-dust, or tiles reduced to powder. Their black is nothing else than soot, or the charcoal of tender wood. Some women, indeed, are contented with painting only the prominence of the cheeks; but in general they daub over their whole body, in compartments, varied with a certain degree of symmetry: and this part of their dress requires no small length of time. These two colours, so much admired by the Hottentots, are always perfumed with the powder of the boughou, which is not very agreeable to the smell of an European. A Hottentot would, perhaps, find our odours and essences no less insupportable; but the boughou has over our rouge and pastes the advantage of not being pernicious to the skin, of not attacking and injuring the lungs; and the female Hottentot, who is acquainted with neither amber, musk, nor benzoin, never knows what it is to be oppressed by vapours, spasms, and the head-ache. The men never paint their faces, but they use a preparation made of both colours mixed to paint the upper lip as far as the nostrils; by which they enjoy the advantage of continually inhaling the odour of the substance employed for this purpose. Young girls sometimes favour their lovers so far as to apply this paint for them under the nose; and on this point they show a kind of coquetry, which has a very powerful influence over the heart of a Hottentot novice. The reader, however, must not infer that the Hottentot women pay so much attention to dress as to neglect those daily and useful occupations to which nature and their usages call them. Separated from Europe by an immensity of sea, and from the Dutch colonies by desert mountains and impassable rocks, too much communication with these people has not yet led them to the excesses of our depravation. On the contrary, when they have the happiness of becoming mothers, Nature addresses them in a different language; they assume, more than in any other country, a spirit suitable to their state, and readily give themselves up to those cares which she imperiously requires of them.

“ They are remarkably fond of hunting, and in this exercise they display great dexterity. Besides gins and snares, which they place at convenient spots to catch large animals, they lie in wait for them also, attack them as soon as they appear, and kill them with their poisoned arrows, or their assagays, which are a kind of lances. On the first view of their arrows, one would not suspect how destructive weapons they are: their smallness renders them so much the more

dangerous, as it is impossible to perceive and follow them with the eye, and consequently to avoid them. The slightest wound which they make always proves mortal, if the poison reaches the blood, and if the flesh be torn. The surest remedy is to amputate the wounded part, if it be a limb; but if the wound be in the body death is unavoidable. The assegai is generally a very feeble weapon in the hands of a Hottentot; but, besides this, its length renders it not dangerous, for as it may be seen cleaving the air, it is not difficult to avoid it.

“The Hottentots have not the least notion of the elements of agriculture; they neither sow nor plant, nor do they even reap any crop. When they choose to give themselves the trouble, they make an intoxicating liquor composed of honey and a certain root, which they suffer to ferment in a sufficient quantity of water. This liquor, which is a kind of hydromel, is not their usual beverage, nor do they ever keep a stock of it by them. Whatever they have, they drink all at once, and frequently regale themselves in this manner at certain periods. They smoke the leaves of a plant which they name *dugba*, and not *daka*, as some authors have written. This plant is not indigenous: it is the hemp of Europe. There are some of the savages who prefer these leaves to tobacco; but the greatest part of them are fond of mixing both together. They set less value on the pipes brought from Europe, than on those which they fabricate themselves; the former appear to them to be too small.

“Though they rear abundance of sheep and oxen, they seldom kill the latter, unless some accident happens to them, or old age has rendered them unfit for service. Their principal nourishment, therefore, is the milk of their ewes and cows, besides which they have the produce of their hunting excursions, and from time to time they kill a sheep. To fatten their animals, they employ a process, which though not practised in Europe is no less efficacious, and has this peculiar advantage, that it requires no care. They bruise, between two flat stones, those parts which we deprive them of by the knife; and when thus compressed, they acquire in time a prodigious bulk, and become a most delicate morsel when they have resolved to sacrifice the animal.

“Those oxen which they intend for carrying burdens must be broke and trained very early to the service, otherwise they would become absolutely untractable. On this account, when the animal is still young, they pierce the cartilage which separates the nostrils, and thrust through the hole a piece of stick about eight or ten inches in length, and almost an inch in diameter. The task of milking the cows and the ewes belongs to the women: and, as they never beat or torment them, they are surprisingly tractable.

“Of their sheep and kine each village has one common herd; every inhabitant taking it in his turn to be herdsman. This charge requires many precautions very different from those which are taken by our herdsmen, beasts of prey being much more numerous and fierce in the southern parts of Africa than in Europe. Lions, indeed, are not very common; but there are elephants, rhinoceroses, leopards, tigers, hyenas, and several kinds of wolves more destructive than ours, together with many other furious animals that abound in the forests, and occasionally make excursions towards the Cape, and destroy the tame cattle. To prevent these misfortunes, it is the business of the herdsman to go or send every day round his district, in order to dis-

cover if any beast of prey be lurking in that quarter. In which case he assembles the whole village together, and makes his report; when a party of the stoutest among them arm themselves with javelins and poisoned arrows, and follow the person who may have discovered the beast, to the cave or covert where he is lodged. Here they arrange themselves in two lines; the herdsman entering the cave, and endeavouring to provoke the beast to follow him out, when he is inevitably destroyed.

“ These savages measure the year by the seasons of drought and rainy weather. This division is common to all the inhabitants of the tropical regions, and it is subdivided into moons; but they never count the days if they exceed ten, that is to say, the number of their fingers. Beyond that, they mark the day of the time by some remarkable occurrence: for example, an extraordinary storm, an elephant killed, an infectious disorder among the cattle, an emigration, &c. The different parts of the day they distinguish by the course of the sun; and they will tell you, pointing with their finger, He was *there* when I departed, and *here* when I arrived.

“ A sense of delicacy induces the Hottentots to keep themselves separate from others when they are sick. They are then seldom seen, and it would appear that they are ashamed of having lost their health.

“ When a Hottentot dies, he is buried in his worst kross, and the limbs are disposed in such a manner that the whole body is covered. The relations then carry it to a certain distance from the horde, and disposing it in a pit dug for this purpose, and which is never deep, cover it with earth, and then with stones, if any are to be found in the neighbourhood. Such a mausoleum proves but a very weak defence against the attacks of the jackal and the hyæna: the body indeed is soon dug up and devoured. However badly this last duty may be discharged, the Hottentots are not much to be blamed, when we call to mind the funeral ceremonies of the ancient and celebrated Persis, still attached to the custom of exposing their dead on the tops of high towers, or in open cemeteries, in order that the crows and the vultures may feed upon them and carry them away in morsels. The children, and, failing them, the nearest relations of the deceased, take possession of whatever is left; but the quality of a chief is not hereditary. He is always appointed by the horde, and his power is limited. In their councils his advice prevails, if it be judged good; if not, no regard is paid to it. When they are about to go to war, they know neither rank nor divisions; each attacks or defends after his own manner; the most intrepid march in the van: and when victory declares itself, they do not bestow upon one man the honour of an action which has proved successful by the courage of all: it is the whole nation that triumphs.

“ Of all the people whom I ever saw, (observes our author,) the Gonaquas are the only nation that can be considered as free; but they will perhaps be soon obliged to remove to a greater distance, or receive laws from the Dutch government. All the land to the east being in general good, the planters endeavour to extend their possessions in that quarter as much as they can, and their avarice doubtless will some day succeed. Misery must then be the portion of these happy and peaceable people; and every trace of their liberty will be destroyed by massacres and invasions. Thus have all those hordes mentioned by old authors been treated; and, by being often dismem-

bered and weakened, they are now reduced to a state of absolute dependence on the Dutch. The existence of the Hottentots, their names, and their history, will therefore in time be accounted fabulous, unless some traveller, who may possess curiosity enough to induce him to discover their remains, should have the courage to penetrate into the remote deserts inhabited by the great Nimiquas, where rocks more and more hardened by time, and old and barren mountains, do not produce a single plant worthy to engage the attention of the speculative botanist.

“A physiognomist, or, if the reader pleases, a modern wit, would entertain his company by assigning to the Hottentot, in the scale of beings, a place between a man and the ouran-outang. I cannot, however, consent to this systematic arrangement; the qualities which I esteem in him will never suffer him to be degraded so far; and I have found his figure sufficiently beautiful, because I experienced the goodness of his heart. It must indeed be allowed, that there is something peculiar in his features, which in a certain degree separates him from the generality of mankind. His cheek-bones are exceedingly prominent; so that his face being very broad in that part, and the jaw-bones, on the contrary, extremely narrow, his visage continues still decreasing even to the point of the chin. This configuration gives him an air of lankness, which makes his head appear very much disproportioned, and too small for his full and plump body. His flat nose rises scarcely half an inch at its greatest elevation; and his nostrils, which are excessively wide, often exceed in height the ridge of his nose. His mouth is large, and furnished with small teeth well enamelled and perfectly white: his eyes, very beautiful and open, incline a little towards the nose, like those of the Chinese: and to the sight and touch his hair has the resemblance of wool; it is very short, curls naturally, and in colour is as black as ebony. He has very little hair, yet he employs no small care to pull out by the roots part of what he has; but the natural thinness of his eye-brows saves him from this trouble in that part. Though he has no beard but upon the upper lip, below the nose, and at the extremity of the chin, he never fails to pluck it out as soon it appears. This gives him an effeminate look; which, joined to the natural mildness of his character, destroys that commanding fierceness usual among savages. The women, with more delicacy of features, exhibit the same characteristic marks in their figure: they are equally well made. Their breasts, admirably placed, have a most beautiful form while in the bloom of youth: and their hands are small, and their feet exceedingly well shaped, though they never wear sandals. The sound of their voice is soft; and their idiom, passing through the throat, is not destitute of harmony. When they speak, they employ a great many gestures, which give power and gracefulness to their arms.”

The Hottentots are naturally timid; their phlegmatic coolness, and their serious looks, give them an air of reserve, which they never lay aside, even at the most joyful moments; while, on the contrary, all other black or tawny nations give themselves up to pleasure with the liveliest joy, and without any restraint.

A profound indifference to the affairs of life inclines them very much to inactivity and indolence: the keeping of their flocks, and the care of procuring a subsistence, are the only objects that occupy their thoughts. They never follow hunting as sportsmen, but like people oppressed and tormented by hunger. In short, forgetting the past,

and being under no uneasiness for the future, they are struck only with the present; and it is that which alone engages their attention.

They are, however, (observes M. Vaillant) the best, the kindest, and the most hospitable of people. Whoever travels among them may be assured of finding food and lodging; and though they will receive presents, yet they never ask for any thing. If the traveller has a long journey to accomplish, and if they learn from the information he requires that there are no hopes of his soon meeting with other hordes, that which he is going to quit supply him with provisions as far as their circumstances will allow, and with every thing else necessary for his continuing his journey, and reaching the place of his destination. Such are these people, or at least such did they appear to me, in all the innocence of manners and of a pastoral life. They excite the idea of mankind in a state of infancy.

This favourable character of the Hottentots in general is confirmed by Mr. Barrow, who says of them "Low as they are sunk in the scale of humanity, their character seems to have been much traduced and misrepresented. It is true there is nothing prepossessing in the appearance of a Hottentot, but infinitely less so in the many ridiculous and false relations by which the public have been abused. They are a mild, quiet and timid people; perfectly harmless, honest, faithful; and though extremely phlegmatic, they are kind and affectionate to each other, and not incapable of strong attachments. A Hottentot would share his last morsel with his companions. They have little of that kind of art or cunning that savages generally possess. If accused of crimes of which they have been guilty, they generally divulge the truth. They seldom quarrel among themselves, or make use of provoking language. Though naturally of a fearful and cowardly disposition, they will run into the face of danger, if led on by their superiors; and they suffer pain with great patience. They are by no means deficient in talent, but they possess little exertion to call into action; the want of which has been the principal cause of their ruin."

CAFFRARIA.

THE country known by the general denomination of Caffaria is a very extensive region, bounded on the north by Negroland and Abyssinia; on the west by part of Guinea, Congo, and the sea; on the south by the Cape of Good Hope; and on the east by the sea. It is divided into several territories and kingdoms, of which little is known, and is computed to be 700 miles long, and 660 broad.

The men among the Caffres (or Kaffers,) says lieutenant Paterson, are from five feet ten inches to six feet high, and well proportioned, and in general evince great courage in attacking lions or any beasts of prey.

The colour of the Caffres is a jet black, their teeth white as ivory, and their eyes large. The clothing of both sexes is nearly the same, consisting entirely of the hides of oxen, which are as pliant as cloth.

The men wear tails of different animals tied round their thighs; pieces of brass in their hair, and large ivory rings on their arms: they are also adorned with the hair of lions, and feathers fastened on their heads, with many other fantastical ornaments.

They are extremely fond of dogs, which they exchange for cattle; and to such a height do they carry this passion, that, if one particularly pleases them, they will give two bullocks in exchange for it. Their whole exercise through the day is hunting, fighting, or dancing. They are expert in throwing their lances; and in time of war use shields made of the hides of oxen.

The women are employed in the cultivation of their gardens and corn. They cultivate several vegetables, which are not indigenous to their country; such as tobacco, water-melons, a sort of kidney-beans, and hemp. The women also make baskets, and the mats, which they sleep on. The men have great pride in their cattle; they cut their horns in such a way as to be able to turn them into any shape they please; and they teach them to answer a whistle. When they wish their cattle to return home, they go a little way from the house, and blow this small instrument, which is made of ivory or bone, and so constructed as to be heard at a great distance, and in this manner bring all their cattle home without any difficulty.

The soil of this country is a blackish loamy ground, and so extremely fertile, that every vegetable substance, whether sown or planted, grows here with great luxuriance. There are great variations in the climate; but I had no thermometer to observe the degrees of heat. It seldom rains except in the summer season, when it is accompanied with thunder and lightning. The country, however, is extremely well supplied with water, not only from the high land towards the north, which furnishes abundance throughout the year, but from many fountains of excellent water, which are found in the woods. From what I observed in this country, I am induced to believe, that it is greatly superior to any other known part of Africa. The woods produce a variety of arboreous plants, and some of a great size; they are inhabited by elephants, buffaloes, &c. There were also varieties of beautiful birds and butterflies; but they were so shy, that I was able only to preserve two birds of that country.

To judge of the Caffres by those I had seen, says M. Vaillant, they are taller than the Hottentots of the colonies, or even than the Gonaquas, though they greatly resemble the latter, but are more robust, and possess a greater degree of pride and courage. The features of the Caffres are likewise more agreeable, none of their faces contracting towards the bottom, nor do the cheek-bones of these people project in the uncouth manner of the Hottentots; neither have they large flat faces and thick lips like their neighbours, the negroes of Mosambique, but a well formed contour, an agreeable nose, with eyes sparkling and expressive: so that, setting aside our prejudice with regard to colour, there are many women among them who might be thought handsome by the side of an European lady. They do not disfigure themselves by daubing their eye-brows, like the Hottentots, but are very much tattooed, particularly about the face.

The hair of the Caffres, which is strong and curling, is never greased, but they anoint the rest of their bodies, with a view of making themselves active and strong. The men are more particular in decorations than the women, being very fond of beads and brass

rings. They are seldom seen without bracelets on their legs and arms, made of the tusks of an elephant, which they saw to a convenient thickness, and then polish and round. As these rings cannot be opened, it is necessary to make them big enough to pass the hand through, so that they fall or rise according to the motion of the arm: sometimes they place small rings on the arms of their children, whose growth soon fills up the space, and fixes the ornament; a circumstance which is particularly pleasing to them.

They likewise make necklaces of the bones of animals, which they polish and whiten in the most perfect manner. Some content themselves with the leg-bone of a sheep hanging on the breast. In the warm season the Caffres only wear their ornaments; when the weather is cold they make use of krosses made of the skins of calves or oxen, which reach to the feet. One particularity which deserves attention, and does not exist elsewhere, is, that the Caffre women care little for ornaments. Indeed, they are well made, and pretty, when compared to other savages; and never use the uncouth profusion of Hottentot coquetry, not even wearing copper bracelets. Their aprons, like those of the Gonaquas, are bordered with small rows of beads; which is the only vanity they exhibit.

The skin that the female Hottentot ties about the loins, the Caffre woman wears as high as her shoulders, tying it over the bosom, which it covers. They have, like the men, a kross, or cloak, of calf or ox skin, divested of the hair; but it is only in the cold or rainy season that either sex wear it. These skins are as soft and pliant as the finest stuffs. Let the weather or season prove ever so bad, neither men nor women cover their heads. Sometimes, indeed, I have seen the head of a Caffre adorned with a feather stuck in the hair; but this sight is by no means common.

One part of the daily occupation of the women is making earthenware, which they fashion as dexterously as their husbands; they likewise make a curious kind of baskets, of a texture so compact as to contain milk; and they also prepare the fields for seed, scratching the earth, rather than digging it, with wooden pick-axes.

The huts of the Caffres are higher and more commodious than those of the Hottentots: they form perfect hemispheres, and are composed of wooden work, very strong and compact, covered both within and without of a mixture of earth, clay, and cow-dung. The opening, or door-way, is so low, that to enter the dwelling you must crawl on your hands and knees; which makes it easier to defend themselves against animals, or the sudden attacks of an enemy. The hearth, or fire-place, is in the centre, surrounded by a circular rim which rises two or three inches.

The lands of Caffraria, either from their situation or the number of small rivers that refresh them, are more fertile than those of the Hottentots. The Caffres practise agriculture; which proves they are not naturally wanderers.

I have remarked, continues M. Vaillant, that, notwithstanding the beautiful forests that adorn Caffraria, and delightful pastures which spring up and almost cover the animals which feed on them; notwithstanding those rivers and streams which cross each other in a thousand different directions, to render them rich and fertile; their oxen, their cows, and almost all their animals, are much smaller than those of the Hottentots;—a difference which undoubtedly arises from the nature of the sap, and a certain flavour predominant in

every kind of grass. I have made the observation both on domestic and wild animals, which never acquire the size of those bred in the dry barren countries I have passed through.

Industry is a leading trait in the character of the Caffres. Some arts, taught indeed by necessity, a love of agriculture, with a few religious dogmas, distinguish them as a more civilised people than those towards the south.

Circumcision, which is generally practised among them, proves that they either owe their origin to an ancient people, or have simply imitated the inhabitants of some neighbouring country, of whom they have no longer any remembrance; they do not use it (as they say) in any religious or mystical sense.

They acknowledge a Supreme Being, and believe in a future state, where the good will be rewarded, and the wicked punished; but have no idea of the creation, thinking the world had no beginning, and will ever continue in its present state. They have no sacred ceremonies. They instruct their own children, having no priests; but, instead of them, a kind of sorcerers or conjurors, whom they greatly distinguish and revere.

The Caffres are governed by a chief or king, whose power is very limited, receiving no tax, having no troops at his command, but being the father of a free people; neither attended nor feared, but respected and beloved, and frequently poorer than many of his subjects. Being permitted to take as many wives as he pleases, who think it an honour to belong to him, it is necessary that he should have a larger portion of land to cultivate, and a greater number of cattle to tend and feed: these being his only resources for the maintenance of his numerous family, he is frequently in danger of being ruined. His cabin is neither higher nor better decorated than the rest; his whole family and seraglio live round him, composing a group of a dozen or fifteen huts: the adjoining lands are generally of his own cultivation.

It is a custom among the Caffres, for each to gather his own grain, which is their favourite nourishment, and which they grind or crush between two stones; for which reason, the families living separately, each surrounded by his own plantation of corn, occasions a small horde sometimes to occupy a league square of ground; a circumstance never seen among the Hottentots.

The distance of the different hordes makes it necessary that they should have chiefs, who are appointed by the king. When there is any thing to communicate, he sends for and gives them orders, or rather information, which the chiefs bear to their several hordes.

The principal weapon of the Caffre is the lance, or assaygay; which shows his disposition to be at once intrepid and noble, despising, as below his courage, the envenomed dart, so much in use among his neighbours; seeking his enemy face to face, and never throwing his lance but openly. In war he carries a shield, of about three feet in height, made of the thickest part of the hide of a buffaloe; this defends him from the arrow, or assaygay, but is not proof against a musquet-ball. The Caffre also manages with great skill a club of about two feet and a half long, made of a solid piece of wood, three or four inches thick in the largest part, and gradually diminishing towards one of the ends. When in a close engagement, they strike with this weapon, or frequently throw it to the distance of fifteen or twenty paces; in which case it seldom fails of the intended effect.

The sovereignty here is hereditary, the eldest son always succeeding. In default of male heirs, it is not the king's brother that succeeds, but the eldest nephew; and in case the king should have neither children nor nephews, the chiefs of the different hordes elect a king. Upon these occasions a spirit of party sometimes prevails, which gives rise to factions and intrigues that generally end in bloodshed.

Polygamy is customary among the Caffres; their marriages are even more simple than those of the Hottentots, the parents of the bridegroom being always content with his choice; the friends of the bride are rather more difficult, but seldom refuse their consent; after which they rejoice, drink, and dance, for weeks together, according to the wealth of the families; but these feasts are never held but on the first espousals. They have no musical instruments, but such as are used by the Hottentots. As for their dances, the step is not unlike the English.

At the death of the father, the sons and the mother divide the property he has left between them. The daughters, claiming nothing, remain at home with their mother or brother, unless it pleases some man to take them; and if this circumstance takes place during the life of the parents, they receive cattle in proportion to the wealth of their father. The dead are seldom buried, but carried away from the kraal, by their family, and deposited in a deep trench common to the whole horde on such occasions, where the wild beasts repair at leisure; which preserves the air from those noxious vapours which otherwise the putrefaction would occasion. The honours of burial are due only to the king or chief of a horde; they cover these bodies with piles of stones in the form of a dome.

EASTERN COAST OF AFRICA.

ON the Eastern coast of Africa, proceeding northwards from the Cape of Good Hope, we find the country of Sofala, where the Portuguese have a settlement of great importance for their trade to the East-Indies, which is protected by a fort built on a small island near the mouth of a river. The natives of Sofala are for the most part black, with short curled hair, there being but very few tawny or brown among them. Those on the coast speak the Arabic language, for they are not the original natives, but descendants of Arabs who settled on this coast. Sofala, according to the report of the Portuguese settlers, contains some gold mines of considerable value.

To the northward of Sofala is Monomotapa or Mocaranga, a country lying between the 15th and 20th degrees of south latitude. The climate is temperate, and the soil fertile in rice and sugar-canes, which last grow without cultivation. There are here vast herds of elephants, and great numbers of ostriches. This country possesses mines of gold and silver. The inhabitants are negroes. Like most of the other nations of Africa, they admit of unlimited polygamy; and the king is said to have above a thousand wives, most of them the daughters of petty chiefs. The army of the king consists only of foot, for there are no horses in the country. The Portuguese had a settlement here in 1560, but they were all murdered or forced away.

Beyond Mocaranga, still proceeding northward, stretches the extensive country of Zanguebar, containing the kingdoms of Mosambique, Melinda, and several others. Mosambique consists of three islands, on the west side of a channel of the same name. The principal, which is not more than three miles in length, and half as much in breadth, is about two miles from the continent. It was seized by the Portuguese in 1497, and they have kept possession of it ever since. —The capital of this island, named likewise Mosambique, is large and well fortified, having a strong citadel to defend the harbour. The Portuguese generally keep a strong garrison here; and trade with the natives for gold, elephants teeth, and slaves. They have built several churches and monasteries, and a large hospital for sick sailors. Their ships always call here in going to the East Indies, and the harbour is so commodious that whole fleets may anchor and provide themselves with all necessaries. Mosambique is situated in lat. 15 deg. 5 min. south, lon. 40 deg. 10 min. east.

The kingdom of Melinda produces gold, elephants' teeth, ostrich feathers, wax, aloes, senna, and other drugs; also plenty of rice, sugar, cocoa-nuts, and other tropical fruits. The natives are some of them black, and some tawny: the women are mostly of an olive complexion. Their dress, among the higher classes, is remarkably elegant; for they never appear abroad but in fine silks girt with rich gold or silver girdles, collars and bracelets of the same, or something more valuable, and their heads covered with veils. The men wear a kind of turban; in other respects their dress consists of a piece of cotton wrapped about the middle, and descending a little below the knees; their legs, feet, and the rest of the body are quite bare. The meaner sort, and those who live farther from the coast, wear little else than a piece of cloth round the middle, if we except their shield and weapons, which are the bow and arrows, the scymetar and javelin. Their government is monarchical; and in such veneration is the king held by his subjects, that, whenever he stirs out from his palace, he is carried in a sedan on the shoulders of four or more of the greatest nobles of the kingdom; and incense and other perfumes are burned before him, as he goes through the streets of any city, by a great number of ladies, who sing songs in his praise, accompanied by various kinds of musical instruments. The population of the kingdom is estimated at about 200,000 persons. With respect to religion, the generality are Pagans, some are Mahomedans, and some Christians, converted by the Portuguese, who have in the capital (likewise named Melinda) seventeen churches, nine convents, and warehouses well provided with European goods. The city is surrounded by fine gardens, and has a good harbour defended by a fort; but the entrance is dangerous, on account of the great number of shoals and rocks under water.

The country of Ajan is the boundary of Zanguebar towards the north. It lies between lat. 2 deg. and 12 deg. north, extending from the river Magadoxo to Cape Gardafui, and contains several states or kingdoms; the principal of which are Adel or Zeila, and Magadoxo, the inhabitants of both which are Mahomedans. All the eastern coast of Ajan is said to be sandy and barren, but to the north the country is more fertile. The kings of Ajan are frequently at war with the emperor of Abyssinia, and sell the prisoners which they take: they trade likewise in ivory, gold, and horses of an excellent breed.

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 situate in east long. 55; north lat. 12. thirty leagues east of Cape Guardafui, on the continent of Africa: it is eighty miles long, and fifty-four broad, and has two good harbours, where the European ships used formerly to put in when they lost their passage to India. It is a populous, plentiful country, yielding most of the fruits and plants that are usually found within the tropics, together with frankincense, gum-tragacanth, and aloes. The inhabitants are Mahomedans of Arab extraction, and are under the government of a prince, or sheik, who is probably tributary to the Porte.

BABELMANDEL. The island of Babelmandel gives name to the strait at the entrance of the Red Sea, where it is situate in east long. 44. 30. north lat. 12; about four miles both from the Arabian and Abyssinian shores. The Abyssinians, or Ethiopians, and the Arabians, formerly contended with great fury for the possession of this island, as it commands the entrance into the Red Sea, and preserves a communication with the ocean. This strait was formerly the only passage through 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 five; Joanna, Mayotta, Mobilla, Angazei, and Comora, situate between 41 and 46 east long. and between 10 and 14 south lat. at an equal distance from Madagascar and the continent of Africa. Joanna, or Hinznan, the chief, and which exacts tribute from the others, 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 Mahomedan religion, and entertain our seamen with great humanity.

MADAGASCAR. This is the largest of the African islands, and is situate between 43 and 51 deg. east long. and between 12 and 26 south lat. 300 miles south-east of the continent of Africa; it being nearly 1000 miles in length from north to south, and generally between 200 and 300 miles broad. The sea rolls with great rapidity, and is extremely 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, valleys, woods, and champagne; 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 Mahomedans, some Pagans. The whites and those of a tawny complexion, who inhabit the coasts, are descended from the Arabs, as is evident from their language and their religious rites; but here are no mosques, temples, nor any stated worship, except that they offer sacrifices of beasts on particular occasions; as when sick, when they plant yams, or rice, when they hold their assemblies, circumcise their children, declare war, enter into new-built houses, or bury their dead. Some of their ceremonies and practices resemble the Jewish, whence it is conjectured they are descended from Jews who formerly settled here, though none knows how, or when. This island was discovered by the Portuguese, and the French took possession of it in 1641; but the people disliking the government, they were driven out in 1652; since which the natives have had the sole possession of the island, under a number of petty princes, who make war upon each other for slaves and plunder.

MAURITIUS, or Maurice, was so called by the Dutch, who first touched here in 1598, in honour of prince Maurice their stadtholder. It is situate in east long. 56, south lat. 20, about 400 miles east of Madagascar. It is of an oval form, about 150 miles in circumference, with a fine harbour, capable of holding fifty large ships, secure against any wind that blows, and 100 fathoms deep at the entrance. The climate is extremely healthy and pleasant. The mountains, of which there are many, and some so high that their tops are covered with snow, produce the best ebony in the world, besides various other kinds of valuable wood, two of which greatly resemble ebony in quality; one red, the other yellow as wax. The island is watered with several pleasant rivers, well stocked with fish, and, though the soil is none of the most fruitful, yields plenty of tobacco, rice, fruit, and feeds a great number of cattle, deer, goats, and sheep. It was formerly subject to the Dutch, but is now in the possession of the French.

BOURBON. The isle of Bourbon is situate in east long. 54, south lat. 21, about 300 miles east of Madagascar, and is about 90 miles round. There are many good roads for shipping round Bourbon, particularly on the north and south sides; but hardly a single harbour where ships can ride secure against those hurricanes which blow during the monsoons. Indeed the coast is so surrounded with blind rocks, sunk a few feet below the water, that coasting along shore is at all times dangerous. On the southern extremity is a volcano, which continually throws out flames and smoke, with a hideous roaring noise. The climate here, though extremely hot, is healthy, being refreshed with cooling gales, that blow morning and evening from the sea and land: sometimes, however, terrible hurricanes shake the whole island almost to its foundation; but generally without any other bad consequence than frightening the inhabitants. The island abounds in brooks and springs, and in fruits, grass, and cattle, with excellent tobacco (which the French have planted there), aloes, white pepper, ebony, palm, and other kinds of wood and fruit-trees. Many of the trees yield odoriferous gums and resins, particularly benzoin of an excellent sort, in great plenty. The rivers are well stocked with fish, the coast with land and sea tortoises, and every part of the country with horned cattle, as well as hogs and goats. Ambergris, coral, and the most beautiful shells, are found

upon the shore. The woods are full of turtle-dove, paroquets, pigeons, and a great variety of other birds, beautiful to the eye and pleasant to the palate. The French first settled here in the year 1672, after they were driven from the island of Madagascar. They have now some considerable towns in the island, with a governor. Since the revolution they have given it the name of *Reunion*.

There are a great many more small islands about Madagascar and on the eastern coast of Africa, laid down in maps, but no where described.

Leaving therefore the eastern world and the Indies, we now turn round the Cape of Good Hope, which opens to our view the Atlantic, an immense ocean lying between the two grand divisions of the globe, having Europe, Asia, and Africa, or the old world, on the east; and America, or the new world, on the west; towards which division we now steer our course, touching in our way at the following islands upon the African coast, that have not yet been described, viz. St. Helena, Ascension, St. Matthew, St. Thomas, &c. Goree, Cape Verd, the Canary and Madeira islands.

St. HELENA. The first island on this side the Cape is St. Helena, situate in west long. 5. 49. south lat. 15. 55, being 1200 miles west of the continent of Africa, and 1800 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 end 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 there. There is no other anchorage about the island but at Chapel Valley Bay; and as the wind always blows from the south-east, if a ship overshoots 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 devoured by 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 vegetables. 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 calico, silks, muslin, arrack, sugar, &c.

St. Helena is said to have been first discovered by the Portuguese in 1502, 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 surprise. 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 200 families in the island, most of them descended from English parents. The East India ships take in water and fresh provisions here in their way home; but the island is so small, and the wind so much against them, outward-bound, that they then very seldom see it.

The company's affairs are here managed by a governor, deputy-governor, and store-keeper, who have standing salaries allowed by the company, besides a public table, well furnished, to which all commanders, masters of ships, and principal passengers, are welcome.

ASCENSION. This island is situate in 7 deg. 57 min. south lat. and 13 deg. 59 min. west long. 600 miles north-west of St. Helena: it received its name from its being discovered by the Portuguese on Ascension-day, and is a mountainous barren island, about twenty miles round, and uninhabited; but it has a safe convenient harbour, where the East India ships generally touch to furnish themselves with turtle or tortoises, which are very plentiful here, and vastly large, some of them weighing above 100 pounds each. The sailors going ashore in the night-time frequently turn two or three hundred of them on their backs before morning; and are sometimes so cruel as to turn many more than they use, leaving them to die on the shore.

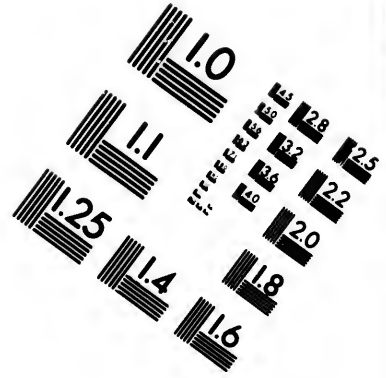
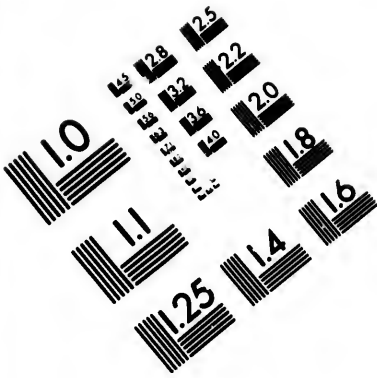
St. MATTHEW. This is a small island lying in 6.1 west long. and 1. 30 south lat. 300 miles to the north east of Ascension, and was also discovered by the Portuguese; who planted and kept possession of it for some time, but afterwards deserted it. This island now remains uninhabited, having little to invite other nations to settle there, except a small lake of fresh water.

The four following islands, viz. **St. THOMAS, ANABOA, PRINCE'S ISLAND,** and **FERNANDOPO,** are situate in the gulf of Guinea, between Congo and Benin: all of them were first 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.

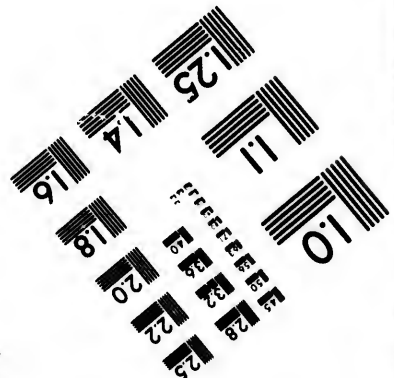
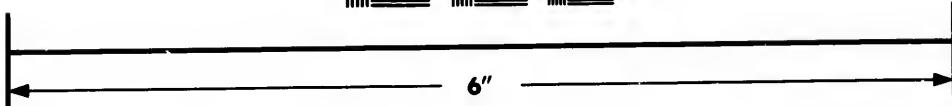
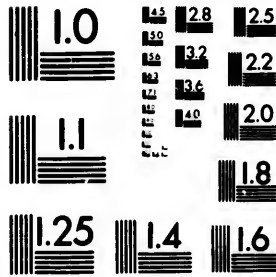
CAPE VERD ISLANDS. These islands are so called from a cape of that name on the African coast, near the river Gambia, over against which they lie, at the distance of 300 miles, between 23 and 26 deg. west long. and 14 and 18 deg. north lat. They were first discovered in the year 1460, by the Portuguese, and are about twenty in number; but some of them being only barren uninhabited rocks, are not worth notice. **St. Jago, Bravo, Fogo, Mayo, Bonavista, 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 150 miles in circumference; yet it is mountainous, and has much barren land in it. Its produce is sugar, cotton, some wine, Indian corn, cocoa-nuts, oranges, and other tropical fruits, plenty of roots, and garden vegetables; but the plant of most consequence to them is the madder, which grows in abundance among the cliffs. Here is also plenty of hogs and poultry, and some of the prettiest green monkeys, with black faces, that are to be met with any where. **Baya, or Praya,** (famous for an action between an English and French squadron,) is situate 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.





**IMAGE EVALUATION
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23 WEST MAIN STREET
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In the island of MAYO, or MAY, immense quantities of salt are made by the heat of the sun from the sea-water, which at spring tides is received into a sort of pan formed by a sand-bank, which runs along the coast for two or three miles. Here the English carry on 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 clear on this coast, that an English sailor who dropped his watch perceived it at the bottom, though many fathoms deep, and had it brought up by one of the natives, who are in general expert at diving.

The island of FOGO is remarkable for being a volcano, continually sending up sulphureous exhalations; and sometimes the flame breaks forth like *Ætna*, in a terrible manner, throwing out pumice-stones that annoy all the adjacent parts.

GOREE is situate within cannon-shot of Cape Verd, in N. lat. 14. 43, W. long. 17. 20, and was so called by the Dutch from an island and town of the same name in Holland. It is a small spot not exceeding two miles in circumference; but its importance arises from its situation for trade so near Cape Verd, and it has been therefore an object of contention between European nations. It was first possessed by the Dutch, from whom, in 1663, it was taken by the English; but in 1665 it was retaken by the Dutch, and in 1667 subdued by the French, in whose possession it remained till the year 1759, when the British arms, every where triumphant, again reduced it; but it was restored to the French at the treaty of peace in 1763. It was retaken by the English in the American war, but given up again by the peace of 1783.

CANARIES. The Canaries, anciently called the Fortunate Islands, are seven in number, and situate between 12 and 19 deg. west long. and between 27 and 29 deg. north lat. about 150 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 Canary, of which the greatest part is exported to England, to the amount, it is computed, in time of peace, of 10,000 hogsheads annually. The Canaries produce those little beautiful birds that bear their name, and are now so common and so much admired in Europe.

Grand Canary, which communicates its name to the whole, is about 150 miles in circumference, and so extremely fertile as to produce two harvests in a year. Teneriffe, the largest of these islands next to that of the Grand Canary, is about 120 miles round: a fertile country, abounding in corn, wine, and oil, though it is pretty much encumbered with mountains, particularly the Peak. Captain Glass observes, that in coming in with this island, in clear weather, the Peak may be easily discerned at 120 miles distance,

and in sailing from it at 150. 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, nearly three miles perpendicular; but lately ascertained to be only 13,265 feet. This mountain is a volcano, and sometimes throws out such quantities of sulphur and melted ore, as to convert the richest lands into barren deserts.

These islands were first discovered and planted by the Carthaginians; but the Romans destroying that state, put a stop to the navigation on the west coast of Africa, and the Canaries lay concealed from the rest of the world, until they were again discovered by the Spaniards in the year 1405, to whom they still belong. It is remarkable, that though the natives resemble 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 in a fine climate, in 32-27 north lat. and from 18-30 to 19-30 west long. about 100 miles north of the Canaries, and as many west of Saltee, in Morocco. The largest, from which the rest derive the general name of Madeiras, on account of its being formerly almost covered with wood, is about seventy-five miles long, sixty broad, and 180 in circumference. It is composed of one continued hill of a considerable height, extending from east to west; the declivity of which, on the south side, is cultivated, and interspersed with vineyards; and in the midst of this slope the merchants have fixed their country-seats, which form a very agreeable prospect. There is but one considerable town in the whole island, which is named Funchal, seated on the south part of the island, at the bottom of a large bay; towards the sea it is defended by a high wall, with a battery of cannon, and is the only place where it is possible for a boat to land; and even here the beach is covered with large stones, and a violent surf continually beats upon it.

Though this island seems to have been known to the ancients, yet it lay concealed for many ages, and was at length discovered by the Portuguese in 1519; but others assert that it was first discovered by an Englishman in the year 1344. Be that as it may, the Portuguese took possession of it, and are still almost the only people who inhabit it. The Portuguese, at their first landing, finding it little better than a thick forest, rendered the ground capable of cultivation, by setting fire to this wood; and it is now very fertile, producing, in great abundance, the richest wine, sugar, the most delicious 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 dragon's blood, mastic, and other gums. The inhabitants of this isle make the best sweetmeats in the world, and succeed wonderfully in preserving citrons and oranges, and in making marmalade and perfumed pastes, which exceed those of Genoa. The sugar they make is extremely beautiful, and smells naturally of violets. This indeed is said to be the first place in the west where that manufacture was

set on foot, and from thence was carried to the Brasils in America. The Portuguese, not finding it so profitable as at first, have rooted 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. Not less than 20,000 hogsheads 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 called Porto Santo, which lies at a small distance from Madeira, is about eight miles in compass, and extremely fertile. It has very good harbours, where ships may ride with safety against all winds except the southwest, and is frequented by Indiamen outward and homeward-bound. The other island is an inconsiderable barren rock.

AZORES. Leaving the Madeiras, with which we close the account of Africa, we continue our course westward, through this immense ocean, which brings us to the Azores, or, as they are called, the Western Islands, situate between 25 and 32 deg. west long. and between 37 and 40 north lat. 900 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 in the middle of the fifteenth century, by Joshua Vander Berg, a merchant of Bruges in Flanders, who, in a voyage to Lisbon, was, by stress of weather, driven to these islands, which he found destitute of inhabitants, and called them the Flemish islands. On his arrival at Lisbon, he boasted of this discovery; on which the Portuguese set sail immediately and took possession of them, which they still retain. They 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 inundations of the surrounding waves. They are, however, extremely fertile in corn, wine, and a variety of fruits; they also abound in cattle, fowls, &c. It is said that no poisonous or noxious animal breeds on the Azores, and that, if carried thither, they will expire in a few hours:

St. Michael, which is the largest, being near 100 miles in circumference, and containing 50,000 inhabitants, was twice invaded and plundered by the English in the reign of queen Elizabeth. Tercera is the most important of these islands, on account of its harbour, which is spacious and has good anchorage; but it 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 of the bishop.

A M E R I C A .

ITS DISCOVERY AND CONQUEST.

WE are now to treat of a country of vast extent and fertility, and which, though 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 15th 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 entirely carried on through the inland parts of Asia, or by the way of Egypt and the Red Sea. In this state of affairs, Christoval, or Christopher, Colon, more generally known by his Latinized name 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 route, 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, and 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 idea of venturing boldly into the open sea. 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 intent on his design the more difficulty he found in accomplishing it, and 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, and chiefly through the interest of queen Isabella. 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 formidable was the variation of the compass, then first observed, and which seemed to threaten that the laws of nature were altered in an unknown ocean, and that the only guide he had left was ready to forsake him. His sailors, al-

ways 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 33 days, put an end to the commotion. Columbus first landed on one of the Bahama islands; but here, to his surprise 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 which he called Hispaniola, or St. Domingo, 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, the 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 the great sea which divides North and South America; but he had no idea that there was an ocean between him and China. The countries which he had discovered were considered as a part of India. Even after the error which gave rise to this opinion was detected, and the true position of the new world was ascertained, the name has remained, and the appellation of the *West Indies* is given by all the people of Europe to the country, and that of *Indians* to its inhabitants. 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; 1500 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 deserves 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 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 situations most advantageous for securing the dependence of the natives. Having spent a considerable time in this employment, and laboured for establish-

ing this colony, with as much zeal and assiduity as if his views had extended no further, 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 160 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 present to 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 enterprise.

By the first success of this great man, the public diffidence was turned into admiration; but, by a continuance of the same success, 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 to Europe, in order to obviate 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 of 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 with 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 surprised with an appearance he had never seen before: this was the frightful tumult of the waves, occasioned by a conflict between 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 the westward for a great way, he was convinced of it. Satisfied with this discovery, he yielded to the uneasiness and distresses of his crew, and bore away for Hispaniola. In the course of this discovery, 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 afterwards composed the British empire in North America: and Amerigo Vespuccio, 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, or Colon, 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 fully vindicated himself at court, was restored to favour, and undertook another voyage, in which he suffered great fatigues. He returned to Spain, and died at Valladolid, in 1506, in the 59th year of his age. 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 situate: 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 about 600,000. Bartholomew de las 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 forests, devoured by dogs, killed with gun-shot, or surprised 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 was dispatched from Cuba, with 600 men, 18 horses, and a small number of field-pieces. With this inconsiderable force, he proposed 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. Never history, that was true, was more improbable and romantic than that of this war. The empire of Mexico had subsisted for ages; its inhabitants, it is said, 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 con-

sisted 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 laws combined with religion, seemed to bid defiance to time itself. Mexico, the capital of the empire, situate 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 a 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 wafted 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 neither age nor sex, nothing sacred or profane. At last, the inhabitants of Tlascalala, and some other states upon the coast, despairing of being able to oppose them, entered into their alliance, and joined arms with those terrible, and, as they believed, invincible conquerors. Cortez, thus reinforced, marched onward to Mexico; and, in his progress, discovered a volcano of sulphur and salt-petre, whence he could supply himself with powder. Montezuma heard of his progress without daring to oppose it. This sovereign is reported, by the boasting Spaniards, to have commanded thirty vassals, of whom each could appear at the head of 100,000 combatants armed with bows and arrows; and yet he dared 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 excited the Spanish avarice, Montezuma hastened the approach of the enemy. No opposition was made to their entry into his capital. A palace was set apart for Cortez and his companions, who were 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 to be 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 terrible of all engines to the Americans. At last, a circumstance took place which afforded Cortez a pretext for beginning hostilities. In order to secure a communication by sea to receive the necessary reinforcements, he erected a fort, and left behind him a small garrison 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, and 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 showed the superiority of European address. A powerful monarch, in his own palace, and surrounded by his guards, gave himself up a prisoner, to be disposed of according to the inclination of a few strangers 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 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 time; 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, from timidity and feebleness of character, co-operated with the Spaniards, elected a new prince, the famous Guatimozin, 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 grandes of this country had agreed to pay to the crown of Spain, amounted to 600,000 marks of pure gold, besides an amazing quantity of precious stones, a fifth part of which, distributed among his 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. Guatimozin 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 who loudly expressed his sense of the pains that he endured, "Do you imagine I lie 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 golden Castile, Darien, and other provinces, fell into the hands of the Spaniards.

While Cortez and his soldiers were employed in reducing Mexico,

they obtained 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 30 degrees, and was the only other country in America that deserved the name of a civilized kingdom. Whether it happened, that the Spanish government had not received certain intelligence concerning Peru, or that, being engaged in a multiplicity of other concerns, it did not choose to adventure on new enterprises, certain it is, that this extensive country, more important than Mexico itself, was reduced by the endeavours and at the expence of three private persons. The names of these were, Francis Pizarro, Almagro, and Lucques, a priest, but a man of considerable fortune. The two former were natives of Panama, men of doubtful birth, and of low education. 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 conquest of Peru, with 250 foot, 60 horse, and 12 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, of a character still more soft and unwarlike, it need not surprise us, after what has been said of the conquest of Mexico, that, with this inconsiderable force, Pizarro should make a deep impression on the Peruvian empire. There were particular circumstances likewise which conspired to assist him, and which, as they discover somewhat of the history and religion of these countries, and of the 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, can 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 worship 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 people, and brought a large extent of territory under his jurisdiction; a larger still he subdued by his arms; but both the force and the deceit he employed for the most laudable purposes. He united and civilised the dispersed barbarous people; he subjected them to laws, and trained them to arms; he softened them by the institution 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 such mild and ingenuous manners. A race of princes succeeded Mango, distinguished by the title of Yncas, and revered by the people as descendants of their great god, the Sun. The twelfth of these was now on the throne, and named Atabalipa. His father, Guiana Capac, had conquered the province of Quito, which now makes a part of Spanish Peru. To secure himself in the possession, he had married the daughter of the natural prince of that country, and from this marriage sprung Atabalipa. His elder brother, named Huescar, 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 Huascar, 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 advanced to attack it. 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 civilised 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 5000 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 were the Mexicans. Atabalipa was not long in their hands before he began to treat for his ransom. On this occasion the ancient ornaments, amassed by a long line of magnificent kings, the hallowed treasures of the most sumptuous 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 Almagro caused some embarrassment in his affairs. The friendship, or rather the external show 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. Almagro insisted on being upon an equal footing; and at length, lest the common cause should suffer by any rupture between them, this disposition was agreed to. The ransom was paid without delay, a sum exceeding their conception, but not sufficient to gratify their avarice. It amounted to 1,500,000l. sterling, and, considering the value of money in Europe 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 other officers, each private soldier had above 2000l. 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 expectations

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 further reason for detaining Atabalipa in confinement, until it was discovered whether he had another treasure to gratify their avarice. But whether the Spaniards believed he had no more to give, and were unwilling to employ their troops in guarding a prince from whom they expected no further advantage; or that Pizarro had conceived an aversion against the Peruvian emperor, on account of some instances of craft and duplicity 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 pretended 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, Huescar, had been put to death by his command; and even this was considerably palliated, because Huescar 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 Huescar; 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 these 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 these disputes 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 the interval he employed in laying the foundations of the famous city of 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 200 leagues along the sea-coast, to the southward of what had been before granted, and Almagro 200 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.

Almagro, 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, he 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 distance, they were very nearly 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 objects of their former labours. He raised the siege, with infinite slaughter of the assailants; but, having obtained possession of the 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 enterprise, 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 unextinguishable 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 to 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 enterprises. The southern countries of America, into which he had some time before dispatched Almagro, offered the richest conquest. Towards this quarter, the mountains of Potosi, composed of entire silver, had been discovered, the shell of which only remains at present. He therefore followed the track 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, no 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 now 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 the emperor 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 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 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 Castro, and the colony was again unsettled. The party spirit, 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 opportunity and cabal, pleaded in their behalf, dispatched, with unlimited powers, Peter de la Gasca, a man differing from Castro only 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 to 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 offered a full indemnity, provided he would 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 any 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 for 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 recorded 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.

OF THE ORIGINAL INHABITANTS OF AMERICA.

THE discovery of America has not only opened a new source of wealth to the busy 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, or untainted by 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 characterise 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 called barbarism, 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 precarious subsistence, who live by hunting the wild animals, and who are generally engaged in war with their neighbours, cannot be supposed to enjoy much gaiety of temper, or 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 in Eu-

rope, 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 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 concealed 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 very 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 nearly 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 sorts 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 deprive him of 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 forefathers,

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 the Indians, business is conducted with the utmost simplicity, and such as 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 upon 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 forefathers are celebrated. They have dances too, though, like those of the Greeks and Romans, chiefly of the military kind; and their music and dancing accompany 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 being 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 use, it is left to the women. Their most common motive for entering into a war, when it does not arise from an accidental rencounter or interference, is either to revenge themselves for the death of some lost friend, 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 piece 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 porcelane, 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,
“ Burns 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 resentments 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 sentiment of general benevolence, or even of ordinary humanity. But this very circumstance, while it makes them cruel 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 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 in a number of particulars seemingly opposite to one another, without being sensible of the general cause from which they proceed.

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 clothes with their friends, and dispose of all their finery to the women, who accompany them a considerable distance, to receive those last tokens of eternal friendship.

The great qualities in an Indian warrior are vigilance and attention, to give and to avoid a surprise; 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 appears incredible. They can trace out their enemies, at an immense distance, by the smoke 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, give them no superiority, because their enemies are equally skilful. 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 of them 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 musquet-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 further resistance. But if the force on each side continues nearly equal, the fierce spirit of the savages, inflamed by the loss of their friends, can no longer be restrained. They abandon their 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 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

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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 smokes like tobacco; then they pound the 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 their limbs in every way that can increase the torment. This continues often five or six hours; and sometimes, 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, even outdo the men in this scene of horror; while the principal persons of the country sit round the stake, smoking, and looking on without the least emotion. What is most extraordinary, the sufferer himself, in the little intervals of his torments, smokes too, appears unconcerned, and converses with his torturers about indifferent matters. Indeed, during the whole time of his execution, there seems a contest, 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 en-

tirely 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 madness of rage and fury, he continues his insults even of their ignorance of the art of tormenting, pointing out 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 ferocious thirst of glory. *I am brave and intrepid*, exclaims the savage in the faces of his tormentors. *I do not fear death, nor any kind of tortures; those that fear them are cowards; they are less than women; life is nothing to those who have courage; may my enemies be confounded with despair and rage! Oh! that I could devour them, and drink their blood to the last drop!*

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 provisions, 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 him, the American is implacable. He conceals his sentiments, he appears reconciled, until, by some treachery or surprise, he has an opportunity of executing a 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 impenetrable 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 the 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

but 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 Lafitau, to whom we are indebted for the most authentic account of those nations.

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 death, which appears 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 smoked, without any appearance of rottenness; some are just turning towards the point of putrefaction; while 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 condolence; and the women, by frightful shrieks, demonstrate that they are pierced with the sharpest sorrow. The dead bodies are carried from the cabins for the general re-interment. 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 dust of those which were quite corrupted, are deposited in the pit; when 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 entire new furs, and, over these, with bark, on which they throw stones, wood and earth. Then taking the 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 had been 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.

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 shall be more or less successful. Some nations worship the sun or 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, 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 their patients will recover, and in what manner 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 enclosed 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.

It should be observed by the reader, that the particulars which have just been mentioned concerning the manners of the Americans, chiefly relate to the inhabitants of North America. The manners and general characteristics of great part of the original inhabitants of South America were very different. On the first appearance of the inhabitants of the New World, their discoverers found them to be in many particulars very unlike the generality of the people of the ancient hemisphere. They were different in their features and com-

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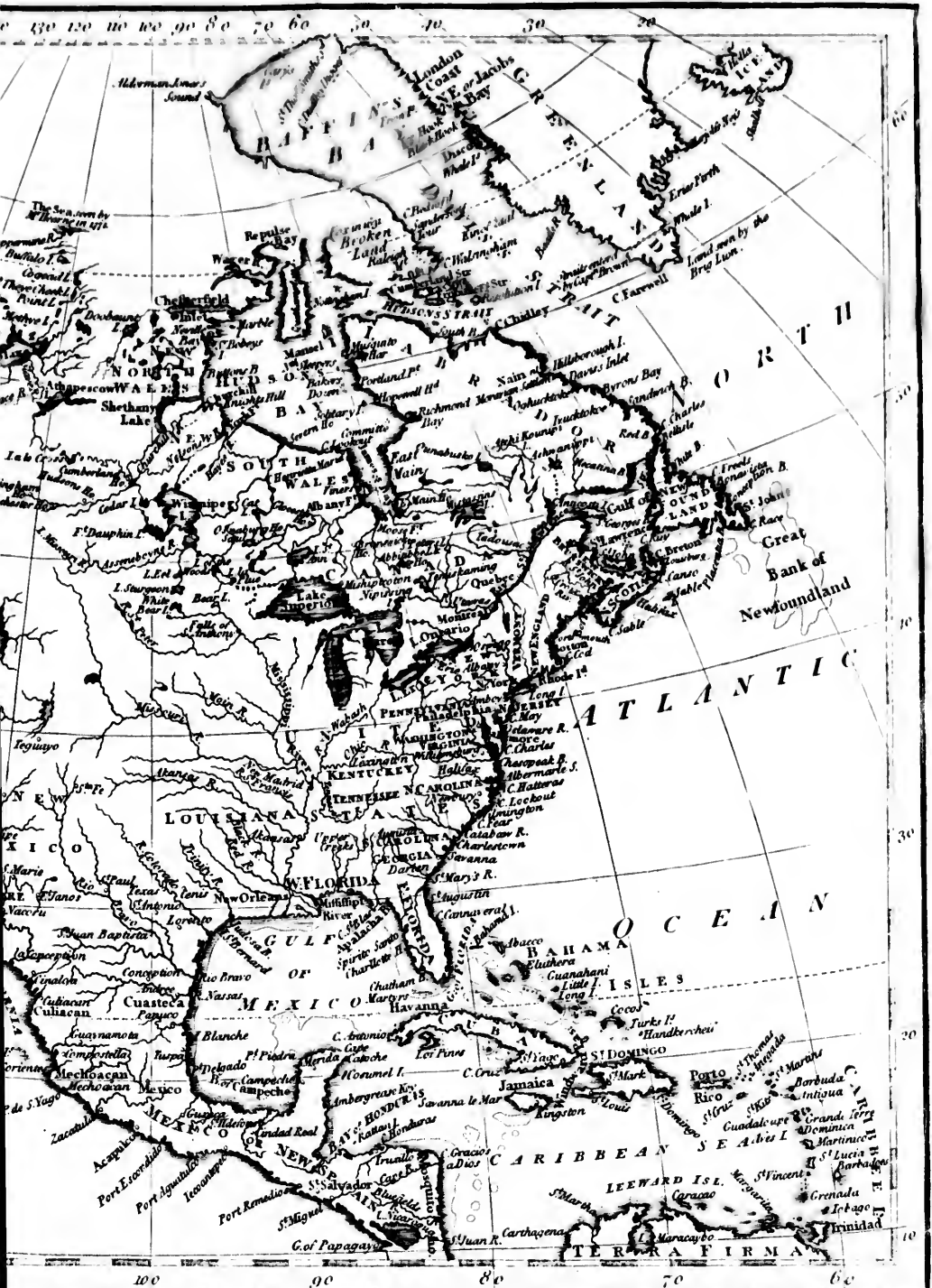
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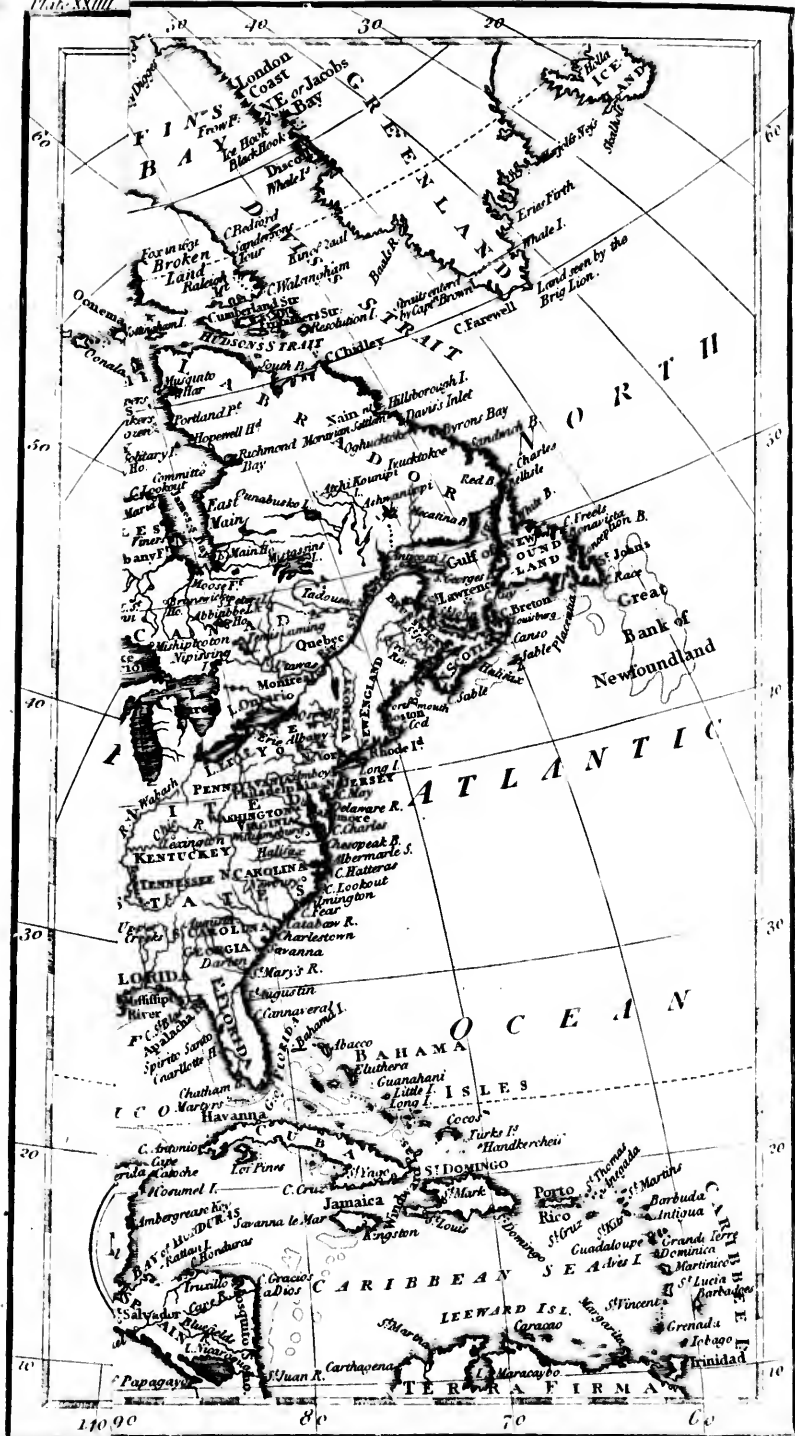
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A
**General MAP of
 NORTH AMERICA.**
 From the best
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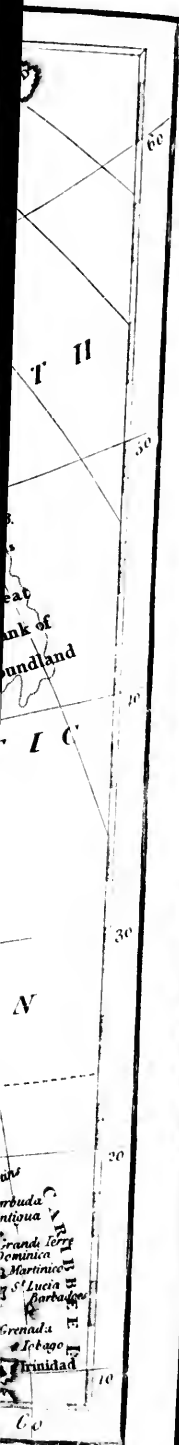


plexions; they were not only averse to toil, but seemed incapable of it; and when roused by force from their native indolence, and compelled to work, they sunk under tasks which the inhabitants of the other continent would have performed with ease. This feebleness of constitution seemed almost universal among the inhabitants of South America. The Spaniards were also struck with the smallness of their appetite for food. The constitutional temperance of the natives far exceeded, in their opinion, the abstinence of the most mortified hermits; while, on the other hand, the appetite of the Spaniards appeared to the Americans insatiably voracious; and they affirmed that one Spaniard devoured more food in a day than was sufficient for ten Americans. But though the demands of the native Americans for food were very sparing, so limited was their agriculture, that they hardly raised what was sufficient for their own consumption. Many of the inhabitants of South America confined their industry to rearing a few plants, which, in a rich and warm climate, were easily trained to maturity; but if a few Spaniards settled in any district, such a small addition of supernumerary mouths soon exhausted their scanty stores, and brought on a famine. The inhabitants of South America, compared with those of North America, are generally more feeble in their frame, less vigorous in the efforts of their minds, of a gentle but dastardly spirit, more enslaved by pleasure, and sunk in indolence.

A GENERAL DESCRIPTION OF AMERICA.

THIS great western continent, frequently denominated the New World, extends from the 80th degree north, to the 56th degree south latitude; and, where its breadth is known, from the 35th to the 156th. degree of west longitude from London; stretching between 8 and 9000 miles in length, and its greatest breadth 4000. It lies in 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 Europe and Africa; and to the west 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 on the south, which are joined by the kingdom of Mexico, which forms a kind of isthmus 1500 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 gulf which is formed between the isthmus and the northern and southern continents, lie a 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 proceed to treat of separate countries in their order, it will be proper to 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. In South America, 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 4300 miles. Their height is as remarkable as their length: for, though in part within the torrid zone, they are constantly covered with snow. Chimborazo, the highest of the Andes, is 20,608 feet; of this about 2400 feet from the summit are always covered with snow. Carazon was ascended by the French astronomers, and is said to be 15,800 feet high. In North America, which is chiefly composed of gentle ascents or level plains, we know of no considerable mountains, except those towards the pole, and that long ridge which lies on the back of the American states, separating them from Canada and Louisiana, and called the Apalachian or Allegany 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, 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 Gulf of Mexico, after a course, including its turnings, of more than 3000 miles, and receiving in its progress the vast tribute of the Illinois, the Missouri, the Ohio, and other great rivers, scarcely inferior to the Rhine or the Danube; and on the north, the river St. Laurence, 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 advantage whenever the country adjacent shall come to be fully inhabited by an industrious and civilised people. The eastern side of North America, besides the noble rivers Hudson, Delaware, Susquehana, and Potowmack, supplies several others of great depth, length, and commodious navigation: hence many parts of the settlements are so advantageously intersected with navigable rivers and creeks, that the 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 Amazons, 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 Brasil and Guiana, after a course of more than 2500 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 Oronoko 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 higher perfection. The gold and silver of America have 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 bear 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 contributed likewise to lower their value. To these, which are chiefly the production of Spanish 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, log-wood, brasil, fustic, pimento, lignum vite, rice, ginger, cocoa, or the chocolate-nut; sugar, cotton, tobacco, banillas, red-wood, the balsams of Tolu, Peru, and Chili, that valuable article in medicine the Jesuits' 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, malicacans, 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.

With respect to the quadrupeds of this new world, it is proper to observe in general, that they 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 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, 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 ancient continent. The congar, the taquar, and the taquareti among them are despicable, in comparison of the tiger, the leopard, and the panther of Asia. The tiger of Bengal has been known to measure six feet in length, without including the tail; while the congar, or American tiger, as some affect to call it, seldom exceeds three. All the animals, therefore, in the southern parts of America, are different from those of the southern parts of the ancient 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 rein-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 tiger, which are natives of the south with us, are utterly unknown in southern America. But if the quadrupeds of America are smaller than those of the ancient 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, exported 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 be unequal to the contest, and we should soon perceive them to become the tyrants of those who call themselves the masters of the creation.

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 three European nations, the Spanish, English, and Portuguese. The Spaniards, as they first discovered it, have the largest and richest portions, extending from New Mexico and Louisiana, in North America, to the straits of Magellan, in the South Sea, excepting the large province of Brasil, 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 was Great Britain, who derived her claim to North America from the first discovery of that continent by Sebastian Cabot, in the name of Henry VII. anno 1497, about six years after the discovery of South America by Columbus, in the name of the king of Spain. This country was in general called Newfoundland, a name which is now appropriated solely to an island upon its coast. It was a long time before we made an attempt to settle in this country. Sir Walter Raleigh, an uncommon genius, and a brave commander, first showed the way, by planting a colony in the southern part, which he called Virginia, in honour of his mistress, queen Elizabeth.

The French, from this period until the conclusion of the war in 1763, laid a claim to, and actually possessed, Canada and Louisiana, comprehending all that extensive inland country, reaching from Hudson's Bay on the north, to Mexico, and the gulf of the same name, on the south.

The multitude of islands, which lie between the two continents of North and South America, are divided among 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; but Labrador, or New Britain, and the country round Hudson's Bay, with those vast regions towards the pole, are little known.

A summary View of the first Settlements of NORTH AMERICA.

<i>Names of Places.</i>	<i>When settled.</i>	<i>By whom.</i>
Quebec	1608	By the French.
Virginia, June 10	1609	By Lord Delawar
Newfoundland, June	1610	By Governor John Guy.
New York } New Jersey }	about 1614	By the Dutch.
Plymouth	1620	{ By part of Mr. Robinson's congrega- tion.
New Hampshire	1623	{ By a small English colony, near the mouth of Piscataqua river.
Delaware } Pennsylvania }	. 1627	By the Swedes and Finlanders.
Massachusetts Bay	1628	By Capt. John Endicott & Company.
Maryland	1633	{ By Lord Baltimore, with a colony of Roman-catholics.
Connecticut	1635	{ By Mr. Fenwick, at Saybrook, near the mouth of Connecticut river.
Rhode Island	1635	{ By Mr. Roger Williams, and his per- secuted brethren.
New Jersey	1664	{ Granted to the Duke of York by Charles II. and made a distinct go- vernment and settled some time be- fore this by the English.
South Carolina	1669	By Governor Sale.
Pennsylvania	1682	By W. Penn, with a colony of Quakers.
North Carolina, about	1728	{ Erected into a separate government, settled before by the English.
Georgia	1732	By General Oglethorpe.
Kentucky	1773	By Col. Daniel Boon.
Vermont	1777	{ By emigrants from Connecticut, and other parts of New England.
Territory NW. of } Ohio River }	1787	By the Ohio and other Companies.

The grand divisions of NORTH AMERICA.

Colonies.	Len.	Brea.	Sq. Miles.	Chief Towns.	Dist. e. bearing from London.	Belongs to
New Britain,...	850	750	318,750			Great Britain
Canada	1400	400	150,000	Quebec		Ditto
New Scotland } New Bruns. }	350	250	57,000	Halifax Shelburne		Ditto
New England,...	550	200	87,400	Boston	27,60 W.	United States
New York	350	300	34,000	New York		Ditto

Colonies.	Len.	Brea.	Sq. Miles.	Chief Towns.	Dist. & bearing from London.	Belongs to
New Jersey.....	160	52	8320	Perth Amboy		United States
Pennsylvania ...	288	156	44,900	Philadelphia		Ditto
Maryland	134	110	14,000	Annapolis		Ditto
Virginia	446	224	70,000	Williamsburg		Ditto
North Carolina	450	180	31,000	Edenton		Ditto
South Carolina	200	125	20,000	Charles-town		Ditto
Georgia	600	250	60,000	Savannah		Ditto
East Florida } West Florida }	600	400	60,000	St. Augustine Pensacola		Spain Ditto
Louisiana	1200	640	516,000	New Orleans	4080 SW.	United States
New Mexico } & California }	2000	1400	600,000	Santa Fe St. Juan	4320 SW.	Spain Ditto
Mexico or } New Spain }	2000	600	318,000	Mexico	4900 SW.	Ditto

Grand Divisions of SOUTH AMERICA.

Nations.	Len.	Brea.	Sq. Miles.	Chief Towns.	Dist. & bearing from London.	Belongs to
Terra Firma.....	1400	700	700,000	Panama	4650 SW.	Spain
Peru.....	1800	500	970,000	Lima	5520 SW.	Ditto
Amazonia, a very large country, but little known to the Europeans, 1200 L. 960 B						
Guiana.....	780	480	250,000	Surinam Cayenne	3810 SW.	Dutch French
Brasil.....	2500	700	910,000	St. Sebastian	6000 SW.	Portugal
Parag. of La Plata	1500	1000	1,000,000	Etten's Ayres	6040 SW.	Spain
Chili.....	1260	580	206,000	St. Jago	6600 SW.	Ditto
Terra Magel- } lanica, or Pa- } tagouia }	1100	300	300,000	The Spaniards took possession of it, but did not think it worth while to settle there.		

The principal Islands of North America belonging to Europeans, are

		ISLANDS.	Length.	Breadth.	Square Miles.	Chief Towns.	Belongs to	
In the Gulf of St. Laur.	}	Newfoundland	350	200	35,500	Placentia	Great Brit.	
		Cape Breton	110	80	4,000	Louisbourg	Ditto	
		St. John's	100	30	800	Charles-town	Ditto	
	}	The Bermuda Isles	20,000 acres		40	St. George	Ditto	
		The Bahama ditto	very numerous			Nassau	Ditto	
	In the Atlantic, between North and South America.	}	Jamaica	150	60	6,000	Kingston	Ditto
			Barbadoes	21	14	140	Bridgetown	Ditto
			St. Christopher	20	7	80	Basse-terre	Ditto
			Antigua	20	20	100	St. John's	Ditto
			Nevis and Montserrat }	each of these is 18 circum.			Charles-town Plymouth	Ditto Ditto
Barbuda			20	12	60		Ditto	
Anguilla			30	10	60		Ditto	
Dominica			28	16	150	Rousseau	Ditto	
St. Vincent			17	10	140	Kingston	Ditto	
Granada			28	13	150	St. George's	Ditto	
West India Islands, lying in the Atlantic, between North and South America.	}	Tobago	32	12	108		France	
		Cuba	700	90	38,400	Havannah	Spain	
		Hispaniola	450	150	36,000	St. Domingo	Do & Fran.	
		Porto Rico	100	49	3,200	Porto Rico	Spain	
		Trinidad	90	60	2,897	St. Joseph	Ditto	
		Margarita	40	24	624		Ditto	
		Martinico	60	30	300	St. Peter's	France*	
		Guadaloupe	45	38	250	Basse-terre	Ditto†	
		St. Lucia	27	12	90		Ditto*	
		St. Bartholomew, Deseada, and Marigalanta }	all of them inconsiderable.				Ditto† Ditto	
}	St. Eustatia	29 circum.			The Bay	Dutch		
	Carassou	30	10	342		Ditto		
	St. Thomas	15	circum.			Denmark		
	St. Croix	30	10*		Basse End	Ditto		

British Islands in North America, and the West Indies, 46,930 square miles.

* In the present war with France, some of these islands have repeatedly changed their masters. But as the events of war are uncertain, it is impossible to ascertain with any precision to whom they belong, until the termination of hostilities.

† Lately ceded to Sweden by France.

GREENLAND.

THIS extensive country, though it has been said to belong properly neither to America nor Europe, must certainly be referred to the former continent, whether it be an island, or united to the main land to the north of Davis's Straits, by which it is bounded on the west. To the south it terminates in a point called Cape Farewell, in north lat. $59^{\circ} 38'$, west long. $42^{\circ} 40'$; on the south-east it is washed by the Atlantic; and on the east it is bounded by the icy sea, and the strait which separates it from Iceland, from which it is distant about 200 miles; to the north its limits are unascertained.

The climate of this country is extremely severe, the greater part of it being almost continually covered with ice and snow. Among the vegetables of this cold country are sorrel, angelica, wild tansy, and scurvy-grass. Europeans have sown barley and oats, which have grown as high as in warmer climates, but have seldom advanced so far as to ear, and never, even in the warmest places, come to maturity. The trees are some small junipers, willows, and birch. The animals are white hares, foxes, rein-deer, and white bears, which are fierce and mischievous. The only tame animals are a species of dogs resembling wolves. The shores are frequented by the walrus, and several kinds of seals; and the seas contain various species of whales, some of which are white, and others black; the black sort, the grand bay whale, is in most esteem, on account of his bulk, and the great quantity of fat or blubber he affords. He is usually between sixty and eighty feet in length; his tongue is about eighteen feet long, inclosed in long pieces of what is called whalebone, which are covered with a kind of hair like horse-hair; and on each side of his tongue are 250 pieces of this whalebone: the bones of his body are as hard as those of an ox, and of no use. A number of ships are employed annually in the whale-fishery in the seas of Greenland. When a whale appears, they man their boats, of which each ship has four or five, carrying six or eight men; and when they come near the fish, the harpooner, who stands at the head of the boat, strikes him with his harpoon, or barbed dart. The creature, finding himself wounded, dives swiftly down into the deep, and would carry the boat along with him, if they did not give him line fast enough. Such is the velocity of his motion, that to prevent the wood of the boat taking fire by the violent rubbing of the rope against the side of it, one of the men is constantly employed in wetting it. After the whale has run some hundred fathoms, he is forced to come up again for air, when he spouts out the water with such a terrible noise, that some have compared it to the firing of cannon. As soon as he appears on the surface, the harpooner fixes another harpoon in him, when he plunges again into the deep as before; and, when he again comes up, they pierce him with spears in the vital parts, till he spouts out streams of blood instead of water, beating the waves with his tail and fins till the sea is covered with foam. The boats continue 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 the land be at a great distance: there they cut him in

pieces, and, by boiling the blubber, extract the oil, if they have conveniences on shore; otherwise they barrel up the pieces, and bring them home. Every fish is computed to yield between 60 and 100 barrels of oil, of the value of 3*l.* or 4*l.* the barrel. The Greenland whale fishery is principally carried on by the English and (when at peace with England) the Dutch nations: in 1785 the former employed 153 ships in this fishery, and the latter 65.

The vast fields and mountains of ice in these seas, many of which are above a mile in length, and 100 feet in thickness, are equally stupendous, and, when illuminated by the sun's rays, dazzling and beautiful. Their splendour is discernible at the distance of many leagues. In one place, it is said, at the mouth of an inlet, the ice has formed magnificent arches, extending the length of about 25 miles. But when the pieces floating in the sea are put in motion by a storm, and dash one against the other, the scene they exhibit is most terrible. The Dutch had thirteen ships crushed to pieces by them in one season.

By the latest accounts from the missionaries employed for the conversion of the Greenlanders, their whole number does not amount to above 957 constant inhabitants. Mr. Crantz, however, thinks the roving southlanders of Greenland may amount to about 7000. They are low of stature, few exceeding five feet in height, and the generality are not so tall. The hair of their heads is long, straight, and of a black colour; but they have seldom any beards, because it is their constant practice to root them out. They have high breasts and broad shoulders, especially the women, who are obliged to carry great burdens from their younger years. They are very light and nimble of foot, and can also use their hands with much skill and dexterity. They are not very lively in their tempers; but they are good-humoured, friendly, and unconcerned about futurity. Their food is principally fish, seals, and sea-fowl. The men hunt and fish; but when they have towed their booty to land, they trouble themselves no farther about it; nay, it would be accounted beneath their dignity even to draw out the fish upon the shore. The women are the butchers and cooks, and also the carriers to dress the pelts, and make clothes, shoes, and boots out of them; so that they are likewise both shoemakers and taylor. The women also build and repair the houses and tents, so far as relates to the masonry, the men doing only the carpenters' work. They live in huts during the winter, which is incredibly severe; but, according to Crantz the Moravian missionary, in the longest summer days it is so hot, from the long continuance of the sun's rays, that the inhabitants are obliged to throw off their summer garments. They are very dexterous in hunting and fishing, particularly in catching and killing seals.

Greenland was first discovered in the ninth century, by some Icelanders who were by accident driven on the coast. So favourable was the account they gave of the country, that several families went and settled there, and established a colony, which was converted to Christianity by a missionary sent thither in the reign of Olaf, the first christian monarch of Norway. Under the protection of this prince, the Greenland colony continued to increase, and thrive; several towns, churches, and convents were built, and bishops appointed, under the jurisdiction of the archbishop of Drontheim. The colony appears then to have extended over above 200 miles

in the south-eastern extremity of the country, and to have carried on a considerable commerce with Norway; but the intercourse ceased in 1406, when the last bishop was sent, and from that time till the beginning of the last century all knowledge of Greenland seems in a great degree to have been lost. In 1720, however, Hans Egede, minister of Vigen in Norway, conceived the idea of going in search of the remains of the ancient colony, if any existed; and having, with some difficulty, procured an approbation of his plan from the court of Copenhagen, went to Greenland, where he continued till 1735, preaching the gospel to the natives, and making many converts. His example was followed by several other missionaries; and about thirty years afterwards the Moravians began their settlements here, which were chiefly in the south-west part of the country. Denmark now claims this part of Greenland, and a company is established at Copenhagen, which sends thither three or four ships every year.

EAST GREENLAND, or SPITZBERGEN, was for a long time considered as united to, and a part of West, or Old Greenland, but is now known to be a cluster of islands, lying between 76 and 80 degrees of north latitude, and 9 and 24 of east longitude, and is generally referred to Europe. It was discovered, according to some, by Sir Hugh Willoughby, in 1553; or, as others suppose, by the Dutch navigator Barentz, in 1596. It obtained the name of Spitzbergen (or craggy mountains) from the height and ruggedness of its rocks. The mainland, or principal of these islands, is about 300 miles in length from north to south. The few vegetables and animals are nearly the same with those of West Greenland. The mountains and islands of ice present the same appearance; and the whale fishery is carried on along the coasts. The Russians claim this dreary country, and maintain a kind of colony here from Archangel. The inland parts are uninhabited.

BRITISH AMERICA.

UNDER the general name of British America is comprehended the vast extent of country bounded on the south by the United States of America and the Atlantic Ocean; on the east by the same ocean and Davis's Straits, which divide it from Greenland; extending, on the north, to the northern limits of the Hudson's Bay charter, and westward indefinitely: lying between 42 and 70 degrees of north latitude, and between 50 and 96 of west longitude.

British America is now divided into four provinces, viz. 1. Upper Canada; 2. Lower Canada, to which is annexed New Britain, or the country lying round Hudson's Bay; 3. New Brunswick, originally included in Nova Scotia; 4. Nova Scotia. To these are to be added the islands of Cape Breton and Newfoundland.

The British colonies in North America are under the superintendance of an officer styled the governor-general of the four British provinces in North America, who, besides other powers, is commander in chief of all the British troops in the four provinces, and the governments attached to them, and Newfoundland. Each

BRITISH
COLONIES,
IN
NORTH AMERICA,
From the best
AUTHORITIES.

British Latitude Miles (1/2 to 1 Degree)

West Longitude from London





of the provinces has a lieutenant-governor, who in the absence of the governor-general has all the powers requisite to a chief magistrate.

The number of inhabitants in the whole of these northern British colonies has been estimated at about 183,000.

NEW BRITAIN.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 850 } Breadth 750 }	between { 50 and 70 North latitude. 50 and 100 West longitude. }	318,750

BOUNDARIES.] NEW BRITAIN, or the country lying round Hudson's Bay, and commonly called the country of the Esquimaux, comprehending Labrador, and New 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.

BAYS, STRAITS, AND CAPES.] These are numerous, 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, Davis, and Belleisle.

MOUNTAINS.] In the northern parts of this country are tremendous high mountains, covered with eternal snow; and the winds blowing from thence three quarters of the year, occasion 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, LAKES.] The principal rivers are the Wager, Monk, Seal, Pockerekesko, Churchill, Nelson, Hayes, New Severn, Albany, and Moose; all of which fall into Hudson's and James's bays from the west and south. The mouths of all these rivers are full of shoals, except Churchill's, in which the largest ships may lie; but ten miles higher the channel is obstructed by sand-banks. All the rivers, as far as they have been explored, are full of rapids, and cataracts from ten to sixty feet perpendicular. Down these rivers the Indian traders find a quick passage; but their return is a labour of many months. Copper-mine and M'Kenzie's rivers fall into the North Sea.

The vallies are in general full of lakes, formed not of springs, but rain and snow.

METALS, MINERALS.] The mountains of Labrador appear to abound in iron ore. White spar is very common; and that beautiful kind, called from the country Labrador spar, is collected on the shores of the sea and lakes by the Esquimaux, or natives, for the rocks have not been discovered. Several small springs have been found which have a weak chalybeate taste.

CLIMATE, SOIL, PRODUCE.] The climate of these regions is in-

tensely cold, and the country, in consequence, 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 has been supposed incapable of any better production than some miserable shrubs. Every kind of European seed committed to the earth in this inhospitable climate has hitherto perished; but perhaps the seed of corn from the northern parts of Sweden and Norway would be more suitable to the soil. 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-two; in the temperate latitude of Cambridge.

ANIMALS.] These are the moose-deer, stags, rein-deer, bears, tigers, buffaloes, wolves, foxes, beavers, otters, lynxes, martins, squirrels, ermines, 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, morses, 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 clothed 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 continues 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 surprising phenomenon; but it is yet more surprising, that the dogs and cats from England, that have been carried to 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.

INHABITANTS.] The native inhabitants of this country are composed of different tribes; those on the coast of Labrador are called Esquimaux, or Iskimos. These appear to be of a different race from the other native Americans, from whom they are particularly distinguished by a thick and bushy beard. They have small eyes, large dirty teeth, and black and rugged hair. They go well clothed, in skins, principally of bears, and are said to be very mild tempered and docile. They seem to be the same people with the Greenlanders, and have a resemblance to the Laplanders and Samoieds of the north of Europe and Asia.

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 completed; and from the late voyages of discovery it seems manifest, that no practicable passage ever can be found. Frobisher only discovered the main of New Britain, or Terra de Labrador, and those straits to which he has given his name. In 1585, John Davis 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 the 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;

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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 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.

Other attempts towards a discovery were made in 1612 and 1667; 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 individuals 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 interested spirit has been the subject of long and just complaint. The company employ but four ships and 130 seamen. They have several forts, viz. Prince of Wales, Churchill, Nelson, New Severn, and Albany, which stand on the west side of the bay, and are garrisoned by 186 men. They export commodities to the value of 10,000*l.* and bring home returns to the value of 29,310*l.* which yield to the revenue 3,734*l.* This includes the fishery in Hudson's Bay. The only attempt to trade in that part which is called Labrador has been directed towards the fishery, the annual produce of which amounts to upwards of 49,000*l.*

CANADA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 1400 } Breadth 400 }	between { 61 and 81 West longitude. { 43 and 50 North latitude.	} 150,000.

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by New Britain and Hudson's Bay, on the north and east; by Nova Scotia, New England, and New York, on the south; and by unknown lands on the west.

DIVISIONS.] Canada is divided into the two provinces of *Upper* and *Lower Canada*. The former lies to the north of the great lakes, and is separated from New York by the river St. Laurence, here called the Cataraqui, and the lakes Ontario and Erie. Lower Canada lies on both sides the river St. Laurence, and is bounded on

the south by New Brunswick, New England, and New York; and, on the west, by Upper Canada.

MOUNTAINS.] There are some mountains in the northern part of this country, and others between Quebec and the sea, but none that deserve particular notice.

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, Seguinay, Despraires, and Trois Rivières, 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 Montréal, where it receives the Outtauais, and forms many fertile islands. It continues the same course, and meets the tide upwards of 400 miles from the sea, where it is navigable for large vessels; and below Quebec, 320 miles from the sea, it becomes broad, and so deep, that ships of the line contributed, in the war before the last, to reduce that capital. After receiving in its progress innumerable streams, this great river falls into the ocean at Cape Rosières, 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 are fruitful, and extremely pleasant.

LAKES.] In Canada are five lakes, the smallest of which is a piece of fresh water, larger than any in the other parts of the world; this is the lake Ontario, which is not less than 200 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 300, as is that of Michigan, though, like Lake Erie, it is rather long, and comparatively narrow. But the lake Superior, which contains several large islands, is 500 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 the falls of Niagara. The river St. Laurence, as we have already observed, is the outlet of these lakes, by which they discharge themselves into the ocean. The French, when in possession of the province, built forts at the several straits by which these lakes communicate with each other, as well as where the last of them communicates with the river. By these they effectually secured to themselves the trade of the lakes, and an influence over all the nations of America which lay near them.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Near Quebec is a fine lead mine, and in some of the mountains, we are told, silver has been found. This country also abounds with coals.

CLIMATE.] Winter, in this country, continues with such severity from December to April, that the largest rivers are frozen over, and the snow lies commonly from four to six feet in depth; but the air is so serene and clear, and the inhabitants so well defended against the cold, that this season is neither unhealthy nor unpleasant. The spring opens suddenly, and vegetation is surprisingly rapid: the summer is delightful, except that a part of it is extremely hot.

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 Orléans, 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 is upon the back of the United States, and contains almost all the different species of wood and animals that are found in these provinces, 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 describe 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 the female maple; three sorts of ash trees, the free, the mongrel, 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; others are made of the bark, the different pieces of which they sew together with the inner rind, and daub over the seams with pitch, or rather a bituminous matter resembling pitch, to prevent their leaking; and the ribs of these canoes are made of boughs of trees. 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 alaco, 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.

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, martins, 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 wage a continual war with this animal, believe 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 show 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 colours; but it is observed, that the lighter their colour, the less quantity of fur they are clothed 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 affords a very strong musk.

The elk is of the size of a horse or mule. Its flesh is very agreeable and nourishing, and its colour a mixture of light grey and dark red. Elks 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 clothes to him; and while the deluded animal spends his fury on these, he finds an opportunity 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 tear his throat open in a moment.

The buffaloe is a kind of wild ox, of 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 of them are hardly penetrable by a musquet-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; 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 up and devour them. The Canadian pole-cat has a most beautiful white fur, except the tip of his tail, which is as black as jet. Nature has given this animal no defence but its urine, the smell of which is nauseous and intolerable; this, when attacked, it sprinkles plentifully on its tail, and throws it on the assailant. 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. 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 redish, 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, when it is somewhat dangerous to meet them: during the winter they remain in a kind of torpid state. Scarcely 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, tercols, 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. 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 wood-pecker 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 showy, and remarkable for announcing the return of spring. The fly-bird, or humming-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 chiefly 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 its age may be known by its tail, as we know that of a horse by its teeth. In moving, it makes a rattling noise, from which it takes 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 pliuister to the wound. The rattle-snake seldom bites passengers, unless it is provoked; and never darts itself at any person without first rattling three times with its tail. 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: it also possesses medicinal qualities.

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. Laurence contains perhaps the greatest variety of fish 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-plaise; salmon, trout, turtle, lobsters, the chaourason, sturgeon, the auligau; the gill-head, tunny, shad, lamprey, smelts, conger-eels, mackarel, soals, herrings, anchovies, and pilchards. The sea-wolf, so called from its howling, is an amphibious creature; the largest is 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 covering 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. Laurence are said to yield a hogshhead of oil; and of their skins walstcoats are made, which are excessively strong, and musket proof. The lencornet is a kind of cuttle fish, quite round, or rather oval: there are three sorts of them, which differ only in size; some being as large as a hogshhead, and others but a foot long; they catch only the last, and that with a torch; they are excellent eating. The goberque has the taste and smell of a small cod. The sea-plaise is good eating; they are taken with long poles armed with iron hooks. The chaourason is an armed fish, about five feet long, and as thick as a man's thigh, resembling a pike; it is covered with scales that are proof against a dagger; its colour is a silver grey; and there grows under its mouth a long bony substance, ragged at the edges. One may easily 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 its 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 coast 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. Laurence. Some of the rivers breed a kind of crocodile, that differs but little from those of the Nile.

NATURAL CURIOSITIES.] These are the vast lakes, rivers, and cataracts of the country. Among the latter the principal is the 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 a height, upon the rocks below: from which it again rebounds to a very great height, appearing as 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 further. The vapour arising from the fall may sometimes be seen at a great distance, appearing like a cloud, or pillar of smoke, and exhibiting the resemblance of a rainbow, whenever the sun and the position of the traveller favour. 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. 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.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS.] In the year 1783, Canada and Labrador were supposed to contain about 130,000 inhabitants.* There are many different tribes of Indians in Canada; but these people are observed to decrease in population where the Europeans are most numerous, owing chiefly to the immoderate use of spirituous liquors, of 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.

CHIEF TOWNS.] Quebec, the capital, not only of Lower Canada, but of all British America, is situate at the confluence of the rivers St. Laurence and St. Charles, or the Little River, about 320 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 defended by a regular and beautiful citadel, in which the governor resides. The number of inhabitants have been computed at 12 or 15,000. The river, which from the sea hither is four or five leagues broad, narrows all on a sudden to about a mile wide. The haven, which lies opposite the town, is safe and commodious, and about five fathoms deep. The harbour is flanked by two bastions, that are raised 25 feet from the ground, which is about the height of the tides at the time of the equinox.

* In 1784, general Haldimand ordered a census of the inhabitants to be taken, when they amounted to 113,012 English and French, exclusive of 10,000 loyalists, settled in the upper parts of the province.

From Quebec to Montréal, which is about 170 miles, in sailing up the river St. Laurence, 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, show themselves at intervals, and there is all the appearance of a flourishing colony; but there are few towns or villages. The country resembles the well-settled parts of Virginia and Maryland, where the planters live 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 Richelieu islands, the air becomes so mild and temperate, that the traveller thinks himself transported to another climate; but this is to be understood of the summer months.

The town called Trois Rivières, or the Three Rivers, is about half way between Quebec and Montréal, and has its name from three rivers which join their currents here, and fall into the river St. Laurence. It is much resorted to by several nations of Indians, who, by means of these rivers, come hither and trade with the inhabitants in various kinds of furs and skins. The country is pleasant, and fertile in corn, fruit, &c. and great numbers of handsome houses stand on both sides of the rivers.

Montréal stands on an island in the river St. Laurence, 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 Montréal 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. The place is surrounded with a wall and a dry ditch; and its fortifications have been much improved by the English. Montréal is nearly as large as Quebec; but since it became subject to the English it has suffered much by fires.

TRADE.] The amount of the exports from the province of Lower Canada, in the year 1786, was 343,263*l.* the amount for imports in the same year was 325,116*l.* The exports consisted of wheat, flour, biscuit, flax-seed, fish, pot-ash, ginseng, and other medicinal roots; but principally of furs and peltries, to the amount of 285,977*l.* The imports consisted of rum, brandy, molasses, coffee, sugar, wines, tobacco, salt, provisions for the troops, and dry goods.

GOVERNMENT.] By the Quebec act, passed by the parliament of Great Britain, in the year 1791, it is enacted that there shall be within each of the provinces of Upper and Lower Canada, a legislative council and an assembly, who, with the consent of the governor appointed by the king, shall have power to make laws; but the king may declare his dissent at any time within two years after receiving any bill. The legislative council is to consist of not fewer than seven members for Upper and fifteen for Lower Canada, to be summoned by the governor, who must be authorized by the king. They hold their seats for life unless they forfeit them by an absence of four years, or transferring their allegiance to some foreign power. The

house of assembly is to consist of not less than sixteen members from Upper and fifty from Lower Canada, chosen by the freeholders in the several towns and districts. The council and assembly are to be called together at least once in every year, and every assembly is to continue four years, unless sooner dissolved by the governor.

RELIGION.] About nine-tenths of the inhabitants of these provinces are Roman Catholics, who enjoy, under the present government, the same rights and privileges as were granted them in 1772 by the act of parliament then passed. The rest of the people are protestants of various sects.

LANGUAGE.] The general language of this country is the French; English being confined to the British settlers, who are much fewer in number than the inhabitants of French descent.

HISTORY.] This country was discovered by the English as early as 1497; but the first settlement in it was made by the French, in 1608, who retained possession of it till 1760, when it was conquered by the British arms, and, by the treaty of Paris, in 1763, ceded by France to the crown of England, under the government of which it has ever since continued.

One of the most remarkable events which history records of this country, is the earthquake in the year 1663, which overwhelmed a chain of mountains of free-stone, more than 300 miles long, and changed the immense tract into a plain.

NOVA SCOTIA AND NEW BRUNSWICK.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length	350}	between	43 and 49 North latitude	57,000
Breadth	250}		60 and 67 West longitude	

BOUNDARIES, DIVISIONS.] NOVA SCOTIA, or NEW SCOTLAND, in the original and more extensive application of the name, is bounded by the river St. Laurence on the north; by the gulf of St. Laurence, and the Atlantic Ocean, on the east; by the same ocean, south; and by Canada and New England, west.

This country, in 1784, was divided into two provinces or governments, viz. NOVA SCOTIA proper, and NEW BRUNSWICK. Nova Scotia proper is a peninsula, joined to the continent by a narrow isthmus, at the north-east extremity of the bay of Fundy: it is separated on the north-east from Cape Breton island by the gut of Canso; on the north it has a part of the gulf of St. Laurence, and the straits of Northumberland, which divide it from the island of St. John; on the west it has New Brunswick, and the bay of Fundy; on the south and south-east the Atlantic Ocean. Its length is about 235 miles from Cape Sable on the south-west, to Cape Canso on the north-east. Its extreme breadth is 88 miles; but, between the head of Halifax harbour, and the town of Windsor, it is only about 22 miles broad. It contains 8,789,000 acres, of which three millions have been granted, and two millions settled, and under improvement.

New Brunswick is bounded on the westward of the river St. Croix, by the said river to its source, and by a line drawn due north from thence to the southern boundary of the province of Quebec, to the northward by the same boundary as far as the western extremity of the Bay de Chaleurs, to the eastward by the said bay to the gulf of St. Laurence, to the bay called Bay Verte, to the south by a line in the center of the bay of Fundy, from the river St. Croix aforesaid, to the mouth of the Musquat river; by the said river to its source, and from thence by a due line across the isthmus into the Bay Verte, to join the eastern lot above described, including all islands within six leagues of the coast.

Nova Scotia is divided into eight counties, viz. Halifax, Hants, King's, Annapolis, Cumberland, Sunbury, Queen's, and Lunenburg. These are divided into above 40 townships.

RIVERS.] The principal rivers in New Brunswick are St. John's, which is navigable for vessels of fifty tons, about sixty miles; and St. Croix, which divides this province from the district of Maine, in the United States. The river of Annapolis, in Nova Scotia proper, is navigable fifteen miles for vessels of 100 tons.

METALS, MINERALS.] Copper has been found at Cape D'Or, on the north side of the basin of Minas, and there are mines of coal at Cumberland, and on the east river, which falls into Picton harbour.

LAKES.] The lakes are very numerous, but have not yet received particular names.

CLIMATE.] The climate of this country, though within the temperate zone, has been found rather unfavourable to European constitutions. They are wrapped up in the gloom of a fog during great part of the year, and for four or five months it is intensely cold; but, though the cold in winter, and the heat in summer, are great, they come on gradually, so as to prepare the body for enduring both.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] From such an unfavourable climate little can be expected. Nova Scotia, or New Scotland, till lately, was almost a continued forest; and agriculture, though attempted by the English settlers, made little progress. In most parts, the soil is thin and barren, the corn it produces is 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, by the industry and exertions of the loyalists from the other provinces, are now cultivated, and likely to be fertile and flourishing. 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. Flattering accounts have been given of the improvements making in the new settlements and bay of Fundy. A great quantity of land has been cleared, which abounds in timber; and ship-loads of good masts and spars have been shipped from thence already.

ANIMALS.) These provinces are not deficient in the animals of the neighbouring countries, particularly deer, beavers, 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, navigable rivers, basins, and excellent harbours.

POPULATION.] The whole population of Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and the islands adjoining, is about 50,000.

CHIEF TOWNS.] The capital of Nova Scotia proper is Halifax, which 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. The town has an entrenchment, and is strengthened with forts of timber. The other towns of less note are Annapolis Royal, which stands on the east side of the bay of Fundy, and, though but a small 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. 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.

Since the conclusion of the American war, the emigration of loyalists to this province from the United States has been very great: by them new towns have been raised; as Shelburne, which extends two miles on the water-side, and is said to contain already 9000 inhabitants. Of the old settlements, the most flourishing and populous are Halifax, and the townships of Windsor, Norton, and Cornwallis, between Halifax and Annapolis. Of the new settlements, the most important are Shelburne, Barr-town, Digby, and New Edinburgh. Large tracts of land have been lately cultivated, and the province is now likely to advance in population and fertility.

The chief towns of New Brunswick, are St. John's the capital, Fredericktown, St. Andrew's, and St. Ann, the present seat of government.

TRADE.] The amount of imports from Great Britain to this country, at an average of three years, before the new settlements, was about 26,500*l*. The articles exported in exchange are timber, and the produce of the fishery, which, at a large average, amounts to 38,000*l*.

HISTORY AND SETTLEMENT.] 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 was given by James I. to his secretary, Sir William Alexander, from whom it had the name of Nova Scotia, or New Scotland. 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, 3000 families were transported, in 1749, at the charge of the government, into this country, where they erected the town of Halifax, so called from the earl of that name, to whose wisdom and care we owe this settlement.

BRITISH ISLANDS IN NORTH AMERICA.

THE islands belonging to Great Britain in North America are Newfoundland, Cape Breton, St. John's, and the Bermudas, or Summer Islands.

NEWFOUNDLAND is situate on the east side of the gulf of St. Laurence, between 46 and 52 degrees of north latitude, and between 53 and 59 of west longitude. It is separated from Labrador, or New Britain, by the straits of Belleisle, and from Canada by the bay of St. Laurence; being 350 miles long, and 200 broad. The coasts are extremely subject to fogs, attended with almost continual storms of snow and sleet, the sky being usually overcast. The cold of winter is here long continued and severe, and the summer heat, though sometimes violent, is not sufficient to produce any thing valuable, the soil being rocky and barren. It is, however, watered by several good rivers, and has many large and excellent harbours. This island seems to be rather hilly than mountainous, with woods of birch, small pine, and fir; but on the south-west side are lofty headlands. It is chiefly valuable for the great fishery of cod, carried on upon those shoals, which are called the banks of Newfoundland. Great Britain and the United States, at the lowest computation, annually employ 3,000 sail of small craft in this fishery, on board of which, and on shore, to cure and pack the fish, are upwards of 100,000 hands. This fishery is computed to yield 300,000l. a year from the cod sold in Catholic countries. The numbers of cod, both on the great bank and the lesser, are inconceivable; and not only cod but several other species of fish are caught there in abundance, all of which are nearly in equal plenty along the shores of Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, New England, and the island of Cape Breton, and very profitable fisheries are carried on upon all their coasts.

The chief towns in Newfoundland are Placentia, Bonavista, and St. John's, but not above 1000 families remain here in the winter. A small squadron is sent in the spring to protect the fisheries and inhabitants, the admiral of which, for the time being, is governor of the island, besides whom there is a lieutenant governor, who resides at Placentia.

This island was discovered by Sebastian Cabot, in 1496, and both the French and English had made settlements there in the beginning of the seventeenth century. After various contests and disputes, however, the island 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 by the treaty of 1763, they were permitted to fish in the gulf of St. Laurence; but with the limitation that they should not approach within three leagues of any of the coasts belonging to England. The small islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, situate to the southward of Newfoundland, were also ceded to the French, under the stipulation that they should erect no fortifications on those islands, nor keep more than fifty soldiers to enforce the police. By the treaty of 1783, the French were to enjoy their fisheries on the northern and western coasts, the inhabitants of the United States having the same privileges as before their independence, and the late treaty of Amiens confirmed the privileges then granted to the French.

AMERICA.

North America are
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Labrador, or New
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St. Lawrence. The coasts
are subject to continual storms
and cold. The cold of
the summer heat,
is very variable, watered by
excellent harbours.
The coasts are fertile,
with woods on the
west side are lofty
mountains, and carry
a great quantity of
cod, the fisheries of
Newfoundland are
the most computed
in this fishery, on
the coast are upwards
of 300,000. a
great quantity of
cod, and not only
in abundance,
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Bonavista, and
St. John's in the winter.
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CAPE BRETON.] This island, or rather collection of islands called by the French *Les Isles de Madame*, which lie so contiguous that they are commonly called but one, and comprehended under the name of the island of Cape Breton, lies between 45 and 47 deg. north lat. and between 59 and 60 deg. west long. from London. It is about 100 miles in length, and 50 in breadth; and is separated from Nova Scotia by a narrow strait, called the *Gulf of Canso*, which is the communication between the Atlantic Ocean and the gulf of St. Lawrence. The soil is barren, but it has good harbours, particularly that of Louisbourg, which is near four leagues in circumference, and has every where six or seven fathoms water.

The French began a settlement in this island in 1714, which they continued to increase, and fortified it in 1720. They were, however, dispossessed in 1745, by the bravery of the inhabitants of New England, with little assistance from Great Britain; but it was again, by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, ceded to the French, who spared no expense to fortify and strengthen it. Notwithstanding which, it was again reduced, in 1758, by the British troops, under general Amherst and admiral Boscawen, together with a large body of New England men, who found in that place two hundred and twenty-one pieces of cannon, and eighteen mortars, together with a large quantity of ammunition and stores; and it was ceded to the crown of Great Britain by the peace of 1763, since which the fortifications have been blown up, and the town of Louisbourg dismantled.

ST. JOHN'S.] Situate in the gulf of St. Lawrence, is about 60 miles in length, and 30 or 40 broad, and has many fine rivers; and, though lying near Cape Breton and Nova Scotia, 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; 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 styled the granary of Canada, which it furnished with great plenty of corn, as well as beef and pork. It has several fine rivers, and a rich soil. Charlotte-town is the capital, and the residence of the lieutenant-governor, who is the chief officer in the island. The inhabitants are estimated at about five thousand.

BERMUDAS, OR SUMMER ISLANDS.] These received their first name from their being discovered by John Bermudas, a Spaniard; and were called the Summer Islands, from Sir George Summers, who was shipwrecked on their rocks in 1609, in his passage to Virginia. They are situate at a vast distance from any continent, in thirty-two deg. north lat. and in sixty-five degrees west long. Their distance from the Land's End is computed to be near 1500 leagues, from the Madeiras about 1200, and from Carolina about 300. The Bermudas are but small, not containing in all above 20,000 acres; and are very difficult of access, being, as Waller the poet, who resided some time 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 are perfectly delightful. Though the soil of these islands is admirably adapted to the cultivation of the vine, the chief

and only business of the inhabitants, who are about 10,000 in number, is the building and navigation 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.

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

OF the rise, progress, and most remarkable events of that war, between Great Britain and her American colonies, which at length terminated in the establishment of the United States of America, we have already given an account in our view of the principal transactions in the history of Great Britain. It was on the fourth of July, 1776, that the congress published a solemn declaration, in which they assigned their reasons for withdrawing their allegiance from the king of Great Britain. In the name and by the authority of the inhabitants of the United Colonies of New Hampshire, Massachusetts Bay, Rhode Island and Providence Plantations, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia, they declared that they then were, and of right ought to be, free and independent states; and that, as such, they had full power to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, establish commerce, and do all other acts and things which independent states may of right do. They also published articles of confederation and perpetual union between the united colonies, in which they assumed the title of "The United States of America;" and by which each of the colonies contracted a reciprocal treaty of alliance and friendship, for their common defence, for the maintenance of their liberties, and for their general and mutual advantage; obliging themselves to assist each other against all violence that might threaten all or any one of them, and to repel in common all the attacks that might be levelled against all or any one of them, on account of religion, sovereignty, commerce, or under any other pretext whatsoever. Each of the colonies reserved to themselves alone the exclusive right of regulating their internal government, and of framing laws in all matters not included in the articles of confederation. But for the more convenient management of the general interest of the United States, it was determined that delegates should be annually appointed, in such manner as the legislature of each state should direct, to meet in congress on the first Monday in November of every year, with a power reserved to each state to recall its delegates, or any of them, at any time within the year, and to send others in their stead for the remainder of the year. No state was to be represented in congress by less than two, nor more than seven members; and no person was capable of being a delegate for more than three years, in any term of six years; nor was any person, being a delegate, capable of holding any office under the United States, for which he, or any other for his benefit, should receive any salary, fees, or emolument of any kind. In determining questions in the United States, in congress assembled, each state was to have one vote, and to abide by the determination of the United

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Plate XXX.





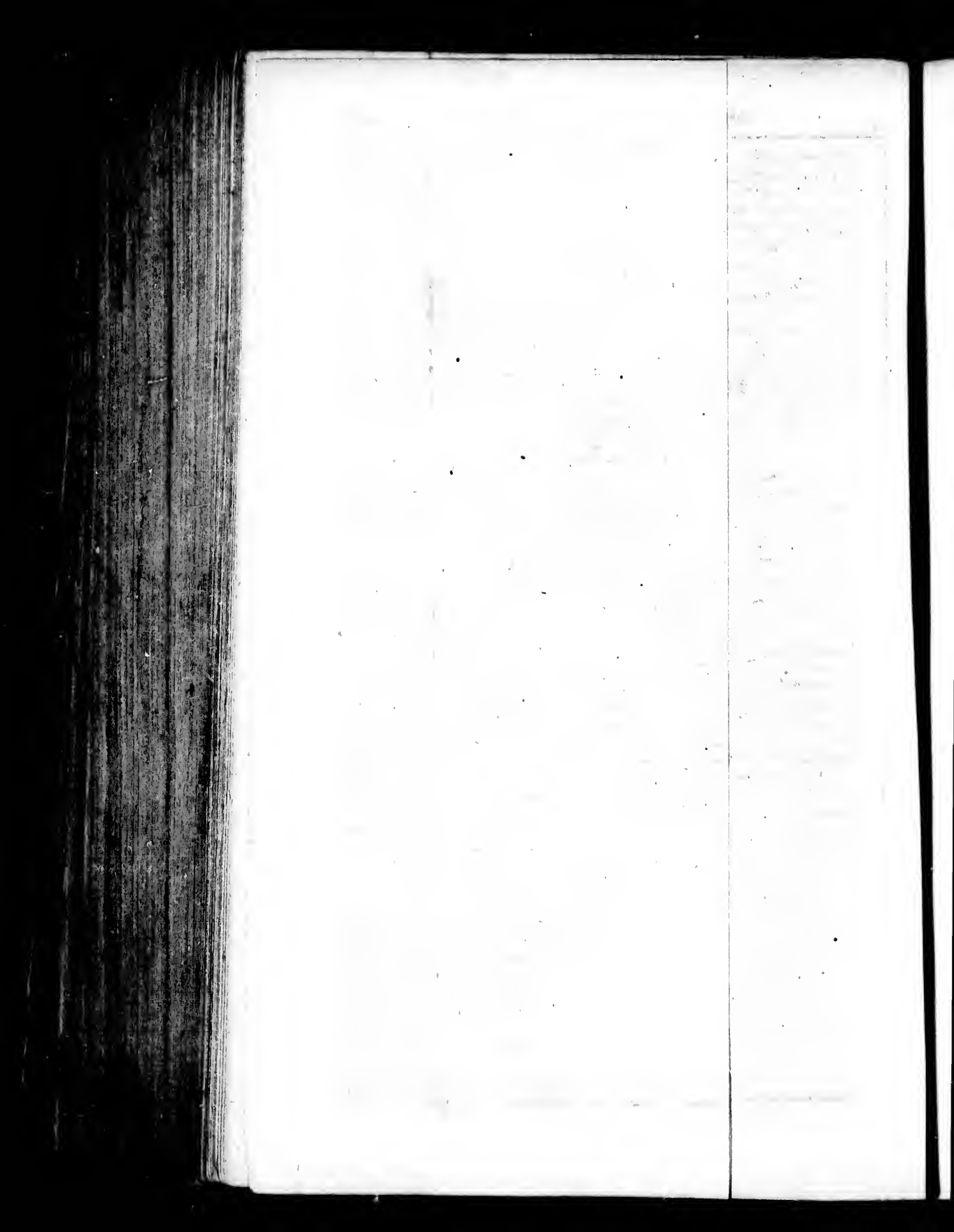
References to the States.

- 1 Vermont
- 2 New Hampshire
- 3 Massachusetts Bay
- 4 Rhode Island
- 5 Connecticut
- 6 New York
- 7 New Jersey
- 8 Pennsylvania
- 9 Delaware
- 10 Maryland
- 11 Virginia
- 12 Kentucky
- 13 North Carolina
- 14 South Carolina
- 15 Georgia

Mouths of the Mississippi



THE
 UNITED STATES
 OF
 AMERICA,
 according to the Treaty of Peace
 of 1784.



States in congress assembled, on all questions submitted to them by the confederation. The articles of the confederation were to be inviolably observed by every state, and the union to be perpetual; nor was any alteration thenceforth to be made in any of them, unless previously agreed to in a congress of the United States, and afterwards confirmed by the legislature of that state. It was on the 30th of January, 1778, that the French king concluded a treaty of amity and commerce with the Thirteen United Colonies of America, as independent states. Holland acknowledged them as suc' April 19, 1782; and, on the 30th of November, 1782, provisional articles were signed at Paris by the British and American commissioners, in which his Britannic majesty acknowledged the Thirteen Colonies to be free, sovereign, and independent states; and these articles were afterwards ratified by a definitive treaty. Sweden acknowledged them as such February 5, 1783; Denmark the 25th of February; Spain in March, and Russia in July, 1783.

The following Calculations were made from actual Measurement of the best Maps, by THOMAS HUTCHINS, Esq. Geographer to the United States.

The territory of the United States contains,
 by computation, a million square miles,* in
 which are - - - - - 640,000,000 of acres,
 Deduct for water - - - - - 51,000,000

 Acres of land in the United States - 589,000,000

That part of the United States comprehended between the west temporary line of Pennsylvania on the east, the boundary line between Britain and the United States, extending from the river Ste. Croix to the north-west extremity of the Lake of the Woods, on the north, the river Mississippi to the mouth of the Ohio on the west, and the river Ohio on the south, to the aforementioned bounds of Pennsylvania, contains, by computation, about four hundred and eleven thousand square miles; in which are

- - - - - 263,040,000 of acres.
 Deduct for water - - - - - 43,040,000

 To be disposed of by order of congress - 220,000,000

The whole of this immense extent of unappropriated western territory, containing, as above stated, 220,000,000 of acres, has been, by the cession of some of the original thirteen states, and by the treaty of peace, transferred to the federal government, and is pledged as a fund for sinking the continental debt. It is in contemplation to divide it into new states, with republican constitutions, similar to the old states near the Atlantic Ocean.

The territory of the United States is in length 1250 miles, and in

* The addition of the country of Louisiana, lately purchased of France by the United States, will, it is estimated, enlarge the territory of the latter by 450,000 square miles.

breadth 1040; lying between 31 and 46 degrees of north latitude, and between 64 and 96 degrees of west longitude. They consist at present of sixteen separate independent states, having governors, constitutions, and laws of their own, united under a general federal constitution, administered by an elective head, and by a proportionate number of representatives of the people from all the states. They are classed in three grand divisions, as follows :

I. The NEW ENGLAND, OR
EASTERN, OR NORTHERN STATES.

Vermont
New Hampshire
Massachusetts, including the
District of Maine
Rhode Island and
Connecticut

II. The MIDDLE STATES.

New York
New Jersey
Pennsylvania
Delaware

III. The SOUTHERN STATES.

Maryland
Virginia
Kentucky
North Carolina

South Carolina
Georgia
Tennessee.

Besides which, there is the extensive north-western territory mentioned above, which is gradually settling, and is hereafter, when its population shall be sufficiently increased, to be divided into new states.

POPULATION OF THE UNITED STATES.] According to the census taken by order of congress, in 1790, the number of the inhabitants of the United States of America was 3,929,326, of whom 697,697, were slaves. By the census taken in like manner in 1800, they amounted to 5,305,638, including 893,331 slaves.

TRADE.] The trade of the United States has greatly increased, in consequence of the long war between England and France since the French revolution. The exports of these States, in the year ending Sept. 30, 1796, amounted to 67,064,997 dollars, though six years before their value was only about 18 millions of dollars; and in 1801 they were estimated at above 70 millions.

REVENUE.] The revenue of the United States is derived from duties on merchandise and tonnage, some internal duties, and the sale of lands. The duties on merchandise and tonnage amounted in the year ending Sept. 30, 1801, to 10,500,000 dollars, and the whole of the revenue to 10,600,000 dollars. The expenditure for the same year was 3,500,000 dollars; leaving a surplus of 7,100,000 dollars to be applied to the liquidation of the public debt, which, in the same year, amounted to 77,881,890 dollars. The civil list is about 300,000 dollars annually.

MILITARY FORCE.] The military strength of this country consists in a militia, estimated by Mr. Morse at 900,000 men; there is also a regular force of about three or four thousand men, to defend the frontiers of the Union, and to man the several fortresses in the different parts of the United States. Their marine consists, as yet, only of a few frigates, and small armed vessels.

PRESENT AND FUTURE CONSTITUTION OF CONGRESS.] Such are the extensive dominions dependent on congress, which, together with

a president chosen for four years, consists, since 1789, of a senate and house of representatives. The senate is composed of two senators from each state, elected for six years; and the house of representatives of one representative, chosen every second year, for every thirty-three thousand inhabitants in each state, until the number has exceeded one hundred; since which there is not to be less than one representative for every forty thousand, until the number of representatives amounts to two hundred. When this takes place, the proportion between the people and their representatives is to be so regulated by congress, that there shall not be less than two hundred representatives, nor more than one representative for every fifty thousand persons. This is the ultimate limit to which the Americans as yet look forward, in the constitution of the general government of their Union.

The seat of congress and government, after the year 1800, was to be and has been removed to the new *City of Washington*, now building on a tract of land ceded by the States of Virginia and Maryland to the United States, and called the *Territory of Columbia*. This city, which has been several years building, stands at the junction of the river Patowmack and the Eastern Branch, extending nearly four miles up each, and including a tract of territory exceeded, in point of convenience, salubrity, and beauty, by none in America. It is laid out in straight streets from north to south, intersected by others running due east and west. The principal streets are from 130 to 160, and the others from 90 to 110 feet wide. The capital or state-house is situated on a most beautiful eminence, commanding a complete view of every part of the city, and of a considerable part of the country round. The population of this new city was in 1801, 3210; and that of the whole territory of Columbia, 8144. The city of Washington is 42 miles south-west of Baltimore, and 144 in the same direction from Philadelphia; in north lat. 28-53; west long. 77-43.

NEW ENGLAND.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length	350	between { 41 and 43 north latitude } { 65 and 74 west longitude }	87,000
Breadth	140		

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED on the north by Lower Canada; on the east by New Brunswick and the Atlantic Ocean; on the south by the Atlantic and Long-Island Sound; and on the west by New York. It comprehends the States of Vermont, New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Connecticut.

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 Ann, Cape Netic, Cape Porpus, Cape Elizabeth, and Cape Small Point.

[FACE OF THE COUNTRY, MOUNTAINS, &c.] New England is a high, hilly, and in some parts, a mountainous country. The mountains are comparatively small, running nearly north and south, in ridges parallel to each other. Between these ridges flow the great rivers in majestic meanders, receiving the innumerable rivulets and larger streams which proceed from the mountains on each side. To a spectator on the top of a neighbouring mountain, the vales between the ridges, while in a state of nature, exhibit a romantic appearance. They seem an ocean of woods, swelled and depressed in its surface, like that of the great ocean itself.

There are four principal ranges of mountains, passing nearly from north-east to south-west, through New England. They consist of a multitude of parallel ridges, each having many spurs, deviating from the course of the general range; which spurs are again broken into irregular hilly land. The main ridges terminate, sometimes in high bluff heads, near the sea-coast; and sometimes by a gradual descent in the interior parts of the country. These ranges of mountains are full of lakes, ponds, and springs of water, that give rise to numberless streams of various sizes. No country on the globe is better watered than New England.*

[RIVERS.] The rivers are, the Connecticut, Thames, Patuxent, Merimac, Piscataway, Saco, Casco, Kennebeque, and the Penobscot, or Pentagonet.

[METALS.] Rich mines of iron, of a most excellent kind and temper, have been discovered in New England, which, if improved, may become very beneficial to the inhabitants.

[CLIMATE.] New England, though situate almost ten degrees more to the south than the mother country, has an earlier winter, which continues longer, and is more severe than with us. The summer 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, and 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.

[SOIL AND PRODUCE.] It has been already observed, that the lands lying on the eastern shore of America are low, and in some parts swampy, but farther 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 Bay 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 meadow and pasture-land. The European grains have not been cultivated here with much success; the wheat is subject to be blasted; the barley is a 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 the people. They have likewise malt, and brew it into a beer, which is not contemptible. However, the common table drink is cider and spruce-beer: the lat-

* Merse's American Geography.

ter is made of the tops of the spruce fir, with the addition of a small quantity of molasses. 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. Seven or eight hundred fine peaches may be found on one tree, and a single apple-tree has produced seven barrels of cider 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, chesnut, hazel, sassafras, sumach, and other woods used in dyeing or tanning leather, carpenter's 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 formerly furnished the royal navy of England with masts and yards. They draw from their trees considerable quantities of pitch, tar, resin, 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 forests, and indeed ship-building forms a considerable branch of their trade.

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 Welsh. They have few sheep; and the wool, though of a staple sufficiently long, is not nearly so fine as that of England. Here are also elks, deer, hares, rabbits, squirrels; beavers, otters, monkeys, minxes, martens, racoons, sables, bears, wolves, which are only a kind of wild dogs, foxes, ounces, and a variety of other tame and wild quadrupeds. But one of the most singular animals, of this and the neighbouring 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 larger 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 bay; but when chased, he generally takes to the water.

There is hardly any where greater plenty of fowls, turkeys, geese, partridges, ducks, widgeons, dappers, swans, heath cocks, herons, storks, black-birds, all sorts of barn-door fowl, vast flights of pigeons, which come and go at certain seasons of the year, cormorants, ravens, crows, &c. The reptiles are rattic-snakes, frogs, and toads, which swarm in the uncleared 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 different kinds, such as the whalebone whale, the spermaceti whale, which yields ambergris, 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, and as far as Falkland islands. 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 the winter, which they dry in the frost.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS.] New England contained, according to the census of 1790, 1,009,522 souls; and according to that of 1800, 1,233,011.

The New Englanders are generally tall, stout, and well-built, They glory, and perhaps with justice, in possessing that spirit of freedom, which induced their ancestors to leave their native country, and to brave the dangers of the ocean, and the hardships of settling in a wilderness. Their education, laws, and situation, serve to inspire them with high notions of liberty.—In New England, learning is very generally diffused among all ranks of people, from the excellent establishment of schools in every township. A person of mature age, who cannot both read and write, is rarely to be found.

The inhabitants of New England are almost universally of English descent; and it is owing to this circumstance, and to the great and general attention that has been paid to education, that the English language has been preserved among them so free of corruption. It is true, that from laziness, inattention, and want of acquaintance with mankind, many of the people in the country have accustomed themselves to use some peculiar phrases, and to pronounce certain words in a flat, drawling manner. Hence foreigners pretend they know a new Englandman from his manner of speaking; but the same may be said with regard to a Pennsylvanian, a Virginian, a Carolinian; for all have some phrases and modes of pronunciation peculiar to themselves, which distinguish them from their neighbours.

RELIGION.] Calvinism, from the principles of the first settlers, has been very prevalent in New England: many of the inhabitants also formerly observed the sabbath with a kind of Jewish rigour; but this has of late been much diminished. There is at present no established religion in New England; but every sect of Christians is allowed the free exercise of his religion, and is equally under the protection of the laws.* They annually celebrate fasts and thanksgivings. In the spring, the several governors issue their proclamations, appointing a day to be religiously observed in fasting, humiliation, and prayer, throughout their respective states, in which the predominating vices, that particularly call for humiliation, are enumerated. In autumn, after harvest, that gladsome æra of the husbandman's life, a day of public thanksgiving is appointed, enumerating the public blessings received in the course of the year. This pious custom originated with their venerable ancestors, the first settlers. The custom so rational, and so well calculated to cherish in the minds of the people a sense of their dependence on the GREAT BENEFACITOR of the world for all their blessings, it is hoped, will ever be sacredly preserved.† The Connecticut province has lately provided a bishop for the episcopals among them, by sending one of their number to Scotland to be ordained by the nonjuring bishops of the episcopal church in that kingdom.

HISTORY.] As early as 1606, king James I. had, by letters patent, erected two companies, with a power to send colonies into those parts,

* By a late account, there are 400 Independent and Presbyterian churches in this province, 84 Baptist, and 31 of other denominations.

† Morse's American Geography.

then comprehended under the general name of Virginia, as all the north-east coast of America was sometimes 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 1620, when the religious dissensions, by which England was torn to pieces, had become warm and furious. Archbishop Laud persecuted all sorts of non-conformists with an unrelenting severity. Those men, on the other hand, were ready to submit to all the rigour of persecution rather than give up their religious opinions, and conform to the ceremonies of the church of England, which they considered as abuses of the most dangerous tendency. There was no part of the world into which they would not fly in order to obtain liberty of conscience. America opened an extensive field. Thither they might transport themselves, and establish whatever sort of religious polity they were inclined to. With this view, having purchased the territory which was within the jurisdiction of the Plymouth company, and having obtained from the king the privilege of settling it in whatever way they chose; 150 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 exposed; notwithstanding the want of all sorts of conveniencies, and even of many of the necessaries of life, those who had constitutions fit to endure such hardships, not dispirited or broken by the death of their companions, and supported by the vigour then peculiar to Englishmen, and the satisfaction of finding themselves beyond the reach of the spiritual arm, set themselves to cultivate this 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 last became 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, became 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 that age superior to many prejudice; 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 opponents. Many of them were bigoted Calvinists; and though they had felt the weight of persecution themselves, they had no charity for those who professed sentiments different from their own. 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 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 sentiments, 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, became 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 licence from the government. For want of this licence, it is said that Oliver Cromwell, Mr. Hampden, and others of the party, were detained from going into New England, after being on ship-board 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 independent 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. when he and his ministers wanted to destroy all charters and liberties, the Massachusetts colony was accused of violating their charter, in like manner as the city of London, 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 privileges of the former. The appointment of a governor, lieutenant-governor, secretary, and all the officers of the admiralty, was vested in the crown: the power of the militia was wholly in the hands of the governor, as captain-general; all judges, justices, and sheriffs, to whom the execution of the law was entrusted, were nominated by the governor, with the advice of the council; the governor had a negative on the choice of counsellors, peremptory and unlimited; and he was not obliged to give a reason for what he did in this particular, or restrained to any number: authentic copies of the several acts passed by this colony, as well as others, were to be transmitted to the court of England, for the royal approbation; but if the laws of this colony were not repealed within three years after they were presented, they were not repealable by the crown after that time; no laws, ordinances, election of magistrates, or acts of govern-

ment whatsoever, were valid without the governor's consent in writing; and appeals for sums above 300l. were admitted to the king and council. Notwithstanding these restraints, the people had still a great share of power in this colony; for they not only chose the assembly, but this assembly, with the governor's concurrence, chose the council, resembling our house of lords; and the governor depended upon the assembly for his annual support.

We shall now proceed to give an account of each state separately.

VERMONT.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 157 } Breadth 65 }	between { 42 and 45 north latitude. 72 and 73, 30 west longitude. }	10,000

BOUNDARIES AND DIVISIONS.] BOUNDED on the north by Lower Canada; on the east by Connecticut river, which divides it from New Hampshire; on the south by Massachusetts; and on the west by New York. It is naturally divided by the Green Mountain, which runs from south to north, and divides the state nearly in the middle. Its civil division is into eleven counties, as follow:

	Counties.	Towns.
West of the Mountain.	Bennington	Bennington
	Rutland	Rutland
	Addison	Addison
	Chiltendon	Colchester
	Franklin	
East of the Mountain	Orleans	
	Orange	Newbury
	Windsor	Windsor
	Windham	Newfane and Putney
	Caledonia	
	Essex	

RIVERS AND LAKES.] The principal rivers in this state are Michiscoui, Lamoille, Onion, and Otter-creek rivers, which run from east to west into Lake Champlain; West, Sexton's Block, Waterquechee, White, Ompompanoosuck, Weld's, Wait's, Passumsick, and several smaller rivers, which run, from west to east, into Connecticut river. Over the river Lamoille is a natural stone bridge, seven or eight rods in length. Otter creek is navigable for boats fifty miles. Its banks are excellent land, being annually overflowed and enriched. Memphremagog is the largest lake in this state. It is the reservoir of three considerable streams, Black, Barton, and Clyde rivers. One of these rises in Willoughby Lake, and forms a communication between it and Lake St. Peter's, in the river St. Laurence.

SOIL AND PRODUCTIONS.] This state, generally speaking, is hilly, but not rocky. West of the mountain, from the county of Rutland,

northward to the Canada line, is a flat country, well adapted for tillage. The state at large is well watered, and affords the best of pasturage for cattle. Some of the finest beef-cattle in the world are driven from this state: horses also are raised for exportation. Back from the rivers, the land is thickly timbered with birch, sugar-maple, ash, butter-nut, and white oak of an excellent quality. The soil is well fitted for wheat, rye, barley, oats, flax, hemp, &c.

POPULATION.] In 1790, according to the census then taken, this state contained 85,539 inhabitants, consisting chiefly of emigrants from Connecticut and Massachusetts, and their descendents. Two townships in Orange county are settled principally by Scotch. This state is rapidly peopling: the number of inhabitants in 1801, according to the census of that year, was 151,465.

CHIEF TOWNS.] In a new and interior country, large populous towns are not to be expected. Bennington, situate near the southwest corner of the state, is one of the largest. It contains about 2400 inhabitants, a number of handsome houses, a congregational church, a court-house, and gaol.

Windsor and Rutland, by a late act of the legislature, are alternately to be the seat of government for eight years. The former is situate on Connecticut river, and contains about 1600 inhabitants; the latter lies upon Otter creek, and contains upwards of 1400 inhabitants. Both are flourishing towns.

TRADE AND MANUFACTURES.] The inhabitants of this state trade principally with Boston, New York, and Hartford. The articles of export are pot and pearl ashes; beef, which is the principal article; horses, grain, some butter and cheese, lumber, &c. Vast quantities of pot and pearl ashes are made in every part of this state: but one of its most important manufactures is that of maple-sugar. It has been estimated, by a competent judge, that the average quantity made for every family back of Connecticut river, is 200lb. a year. One man, with but ordinary advantages, in one month, made 550lb. of a quality equal to imported brown sugar. In two towns in Orange county, containing no more than forty families, 13,000lb. of sugar were made in the year 1791.

CONSTITUTION.] The legislature consists of a house of representatives, and a council of twelve, besides the governor, who is president, and the lieutenant-governor, who is officially a member. The free-men meet annually in their several towns to choose the governor, counsellors, and other magistrates; and to the privilege of voting, all males, twenty-one years old, and of peaceable dispositions, are entitled, after taking the oath of fidelity to the state. The judges of the supreme and county courts, sheriffs, and justices of the peace, are appointed annually, by joint ballot of the council and house. The council may originate bills, other than money bills, and suspend till the next session such bills as they disapprove; but have not a final negative.

HISTORY.] The tract of country called Vermont, before the late war, was claimed both by New York and New Hampshire; and these interfering claims have been the occasion of much warm altercation. They were not finally adjusted till since the peace. When hostilities commenced between Great Britain and the colonies, the inhabitants of this district, considering themselves as in a state of nature, and not within the jurisdiction either of New York or New Hampshire, associated, and formed a constitution for themselves. Under this con-

stitution they have continued to exercise all the powers of an independent state, and have prospered. On the 4th of March, 1791, agreeably to an act of congress of December 6th, 1790, this state became one of the United States, and constitutes the fourteenth, and not the least respectable pillar of the American Union.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 168 Breadth from } 90 to 19 }	between { 42,41 and 45,11 north latitude } 70,40 and 72,28 west longitude }	9,500

BOUNDARIES.] NEW Hampshire is bounded by Lower Canada on the north; by the district of Maine on the east; by Massachusetts on the south; and by Connecticut river, which separates it from Vermont, on the west.

It is divided into five counties, as follows:

<i>Counties.</i>	<i>Chief Towns.</i>
Rockingham	Portsmouth and Concord
Strafford	Dover and Durham
Cheshire	Charles-town and Keene
Hillsborough	Amherst
Grafton	Plymouth.

MOUNTAINS.] New Hampshire is intersected with several ridges of mountains, among which are the Blue Hills, and the lofty ridge which divides the Connecticut and Merrimack rivers, denominated the *Height of Land*. But the White Mountains, which run through this state, are undoubtedly the highest in all New England. Their height above an adjacent meadow is 3500 feet, and the meadow is 3500 above the level of the sea. They are almost continually covered with snow and ice, whence they have received the name of White Mountains. Though they are seventy miles inland, they are visible many leagues off at sea. One of their loftiest summits, which makes a majestic appearance along the shore of Massachusetts, has lately been distinguished by the name of Mount Washington.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] The most considerable rivers of this state are the Connecticut, Merrimack, Piscataqua, Saco, Androscoggin, Upper and Lower Amonoosuck, besides many other smaller streams. The chief lakes are Winnipiscogee, Umbagog, Sunopee, Squam, and Great Ossipee.

METALS, MINERALS.] Iron, lead and copper ores, and several kinds of earths and clays are found in this state. It produces red and yellow ochres, steatites, or soap-rock, the best lapis specularis, a kind of talc, commonly called isinglass; crystals, alum, vitriol, freestone, and black lead.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] The air of New Hampshire is healthful, and the weather is commonly serene, and not so subject to

variation as in the more southern states. From the vicinity of the White Mountains, which, as has been said, are almost always covered with snow and ice, this country is extremely cold in winter. In summer the heat is great, but of short duration. The shore is mostly a sandy beach, adjoining to which are salt-marshes, intersected by creeks, which produce good pasture for cattle and sheep. The interval lands on the margin of great rivers are the most valuable, because they are often overflowed and enriched by the water from the uplands, which brings a fat slime or sediment. On Connecticut river these lands are from a quarter of a mile to a mile and a half on each side, and produce grass, corn, and grain, especially wheat, in greater abundance and perfection than the same kind of soil does in the higher lands. The wide-spreading hills are esteemed as warm and rich; rocky moist land is accounted good for pasture; drained swamps have a deep mellow soil, and the valleys between the hills are generally very productive. Agriculture is the chief occupation of the inhabitants. Wheat, rye, Indian corn, barley, pulse, hops, esculent roots and plants, flax and hemp, are raised in immense quantities in New Hampshire. Apples and pears are the most common fruits in this state; but tree fruit of the first quality cannot be raised in such a northern climate as this without particular attention. The uncultivated lands are covered with extensive forests of pine, fir, cedar, oak, walnut, &c.

POPULATION.] The number of inhabitants in New Hampshire, according to the census taken by order of congress in 1790, was 141,885. By that of 1800, they amounted to 183,858. In 1767, they were estimated at only 52,700.

CHIEF TOWNS.] Portsmouth is the metropolis, and the largest town in New Hampshire. Its harbour is one of the finest on the continent, having a sufficient depth of water for vessels of any burden, and being so well defended against storms by the land that ships may securely ride there in any season of the year. Concord is a very flourishing town, pleasantly situated on the Merrimack river. The legislature of late have commonly held their sessions here; and, from its central situation, and a thriving back country, it will probably become the permanent seat of government.

TRADE.] The trade of this state is considerable, though it is not to be ranked among the great commercial states. Its exports consist of lumber, ship-timber, whale-oil, flax-seed, live-stock, beef, pork, Indian corn, pot and pearl-ashes, &c. In 1790, there belonged to Piscataqua 33 vessels above 100 tons, and 50 under that burden. The value of the exports from that port in 1793, amounted to 198,197 dollars. The bank of Hampshire was established in 1792, with a capital of 60,000 dollars: by an act of assembly the stock-holders can increase it to 200,000 dollars in specie, and 100,000 dollars in any other estate.

GOVERNMENT.] According to the present constitution, the legislative power, as in the other United States, resides in a senate and house of representatives which together are here styled the general court, and the supreme executive authority is vested in a governor and council, the latter consisting of five members.

COLLEGES AND ACADEMIES.] The only college in this state is at Hanover, called Dartmouth college, which is amply endowed with lands, and is in a flourishing situation. The principal academies are those of Exeter, New Ipswich, Atkinson, and Amherst.

HISTORY.] This state first began to be settled about the year 1629, and was erected into a separate government in 1679, but seems afterwards to have been under the same governor with Massachusetts; because New Hampshire complained to the king in council against the joint-governor, relative to the boundaries between the two colonies, and, on hearing the complaint, a separate government was appointed in 1740.

MASSACHUSETTS, INCLUDING THE DISTRICT OF MAINE.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 150 } Breadth 60 }	between { 61-57 and 73-38 west longitude } { 41-13 and 48-15 north latitude }	48,000

BOUNDARIES.] MASSACHUSETTS, which, with the District of Maine, constitutes one of the United States of America, is bounded on the north by Vermont and New Hampshire; on the east by the Atlantic ocean; on the south by the Atlantic, Rhode Island, and Connecticut; and on the west by New York.

This state is divided into seventeen counties.

<i>Counties.</i>	<i>Chief Towns.</i>
Suffolk	BOSTON } 42-23 N. lat. } 70-59 W. long.
Norfolk	Dedham
Essex	Salem
Middlesex	Charles-town
Hampshire	Northampton
Worcester	Worcester
Plymouth	Plymouth
Barnstaple	Barnstaple
Duke's county	Edgarton
Nantucket	Nantucket
Bristol	Taunton
Berkshire	Stockbridge
	District of MAINE.
York	York
Cumberland	Portland
Lincoln	Pownallborough
Hancock	Hancock
Washington	Machias

BAYS, CAPES, AND ISLANDS.] The chief bays are Massachusetts, Ipswich, Boston, Plymouth, and Barnstaple; the most remarkable capes, Ann, Cod, Malabar, Poge, and Gay Head; the principal islands, Plumb island, Nantucket, Martha's Vineyard, Elizabeth islands, and numerous small isles in Boston Bay.

RIVERS.] The country is well watered by a number of small rivers; of which the principal are Mystic and Charles rivers.

METALS, MINERALS.] Iron ore, in immense quantities, is found in various parts of this state; as likewise copper ore, black lead, pipe-maker's clay, yellow and red ochre, alum, and slate. Several mineral springs have been found in different parts of the country..

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] The climate is similar to that of the other northern states. In the District of Maine the heat in summer is intense, and the cold in winter extremely severe. In Massachusetts are to be found all the varieties of soil from very good to very bad; and capable of yielding in abundance all the different productions common to the climate: such as Indian corn, rye, wheat, barley, oats, hemp, flax, hops, potatoes, field-beans and peas, apples, pears, peaches, plums, cherries, &c.

POPULATION.] The number of inhabitants in Massachusetts was, in 1790, 378,787. By the late census of 1800, they amounted to 422,845; and those of the District of Maine to 151,719, together 574,564. This is the only state in the union in which there are no slaves: slavery was abolished by the legislature some years ago.

CHIEF TOWNS.] Boston is the capital of this state, the largest town in New England, and the third in size and rank in the United States. It is built on a peninsula of irregular form, at the bottom of Massachusetts Bay, and is joined to the main land by an isthmus at the south end of the town. It is two miles long, but of unequal breadth; the broadest part is 726 yards. In 1790, it contained 2376 dwelling-houses, and 18,038 inhabitants; but the increase has been very considerable since. It contains nineteen edifices for public worship, of which nine are for congregationalists, three for episcopalians, and two for baptists: the friends, Roman-catholics, methodists, Sandemanians, and universalians, have one each. There are also seven free-schools, besides a great number of private schools. The harbour is capacious enough for 500 vessels to ride at anchor in good depth of water, while the entrance is so narrow as scarcely to admit two ships abreast. The wharfs and quays in Boston are about eighty in number, and very convenient for vessels. Long Wharf, or Boston Pier, in particular, extends from the bottom of State-street 1743 feet into the harbour in a straight line. The breadth is 104 feet. At the end are 17 feet of water at ebb-tide. Long Wharf is covered on the north side with large and commodious warehouses, and in every respect exceeds any thing of the kind in the United States. Charles river and West Boston bridges are highly useful and ornamental to Boston, and both are on Charles river, which mingles its waters with those of Mystic river, in Boston harbour. Charles river bridge connects Boston with Charles-town, in Middlesex county, and is 1503 feet long, 42 feet broad, and stands on 75 piers. West Boston is 3483 feet long, stands on 180 piers, and exceeds the other as much in elegance as in length. The view of the town, as it is approached from the sea, is truly beautiful and picturesque. It lies in a circular and pleasingly irregular form round the harbour, and is ornamented with spires, above which the monument of Beacon Hill rises pre-eminent; on its top is a gilt eagle, bearing the arms of the union, and on the base of the column are inscriptions commemorating some of the most remarkable events of the late war. The town is governed by nine select men, chosen at an annual meeting in March, when twelve overseers, twelve constables, and some other officers are chosen. Attempts

have been made to change the government of the town from its present form to that of a city; but this measure not according with the democratic spirit of the people, has as yet failed.

Salem is the second town in this state. It contained, in 1790, 928 houses, and 7921 inhabitants. It is a very commercial place, and is connected with Beverly by Essex bridge, upwards of 1500 feet in length, erected in 1789. The harbour is defended by a fort.

Plymouth was the first town built in New England, and peopled principally by the descendants of the first settlers. The rock on which their forefathers landed was conveyed in 1774 from the shore to a square in the centre of the town, where it remains as a monument. The situation of the town is pleasant and healthful.

Portland is the capital of the District of Maine. It has a most excellent, safe, and capacious harbour, and is one of the most thriving commercial towns in the commonwealth of Massachusetts. In 1795 a fort, a citadel, and a battery of ten pieces of cannon, were erected for its defence.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] This state, including the District of Maine, owns more than three times as many tons of shipping as any other of the states; and more than one-third part of the whole that belongs to the United States. Upwards of 29,000 tons are employed in carrying on the fisheries, 46,000 in the coasting business, and 96,500 in trading with almost all parts of the world. Pot and pearl-ashes, staves, flax-seed, and bees-wax, are carried chiefly to Great Britain, in remittance for their manufactures; masts and provisions to the East Indies; fish, oil, beef, pork, lumber, and candles, are carried to the West Indies for their produce; and the two first articles, fish and oil, to France, Spain, and Portugal; roots, vegetables, and fruits to Nova Scotia and New Brunswick; hats, sadlery, cabinet-work, men's and women's shoes, nails, tow-cloth, barley, hops, butter, and cheese, to the southern states. The value of exports in the year 1791 was 2,445,975 dollars, and in 1794, 5,380,703 dollars. Great quantities of nails are made in this state. The machine invented by Caleb Leach, of Plymouth, will cut and head 5000 nails in a day, under the direction of a youth of either sex. There is also a machine for cutting nails at Newbury Port, invented by Mr. Jacob Perkins, which will turn out *two hundred thousand* nails in a day. The nails are said to have a decided superiority over those of English manufacture, and are sold 20 per cent. cheaper. There are in this state upwards of twenty paper-mills, which make more than 70,000 reams of writing, printing, and wrapper-paper, annually. There were in 1792, 62 distilleries, which distilled in one year from foreign materials 1,900,000 gallons. There are several snuff, oil, chocolate, and powder-mills: there are indeed few articles which are essentially necessary, and minister to the comfort and convenience of life, that are not manufactured in this state.

GOVERNMENT.] The legislature of Massachusetts consists of a senate, and a house of representatives; which, together with the governor and lieutenant-governor, are elected annually by the people; electors must be twenty-one years of age, have freeholds of the annual value of three pounds, or personal estate to the value of sixty pounds. To be eligible to the office of governor or lieutenant-governor, the candidate must have resided in the state seven years, and during that time have been seised of a freehold of one thousand pounds. Senators must have resided five years in the state, and have possessed a free-

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hold to the value of three hundred pounds, or personal property to the value of six hundred pounds. A representative must have resided one year in the town which he is chosen to represent, and have been seised therein of freehold estate to the value of one hundred pounds, or been possessed of personal property to the value of two hundred pounds. From the persons returned as senators and counsellors, being forty in all, nine are annually elected, by joint ballot of both houses, for the purpose of advising the governor in the execution of his office. All judicial officers, the attorney and solicitor-general, sheriffs, &c. are, with the advice of the council, appointed by the governor. The judges (except justices of the peace, whose commissions expire in seven years, but may be renewed) hold their offices during good behaviour.

RELIGION.] There is no established religion in Massachusetts, but every sect of Christians is allowed the free exercise of its religion, and is equally under the protection of the laws.

UNIVERSITY AND ACADEMY.] There is a university at Cambridge, four miles west of Boston, the college buildings of which are four in number, and named Harvard, Hollis, and Massachusetts Halls, and Holden Chapel. This university generally has from 140 to 200 students; and as to its library, philosophical apparatus, and professorships, is at present the first literary institution on this continent. It takes date from the year 1638, seven years after the first settlement in the township.

In May 1780, the council and house of representatives of Massachusetts passed an act for incorporating and establishing a society for the cultivation and promotion of the arts and sciences. It is entitled the American Academy of Arts and Sciences. The first members were named in the act, and never were to be more than two hundred, nor less than forty.

HISTORY.] An account of the first settlement and early history of Massachusetts has already been given under the general head of New England. In consequence of the revolt of the American colonies from the authority of Great Britain (of the origin and progress of which an account has been given in another place), on the 25th of July, 1776, by an order from the council at Boston, the declaration of the American congress, absolving the United Colonies from their allegiance to the British crown, and declaring them free and independent, was publicly proclaimed from the balcony of the state-house in that town; and a constitution or form of government, for the commonwealth of Massachusetts, including a declaration of rights, was agreed to, and established by the inhabitants of that province, and took place in October 1780.

RHODE ISLAND.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Mile ^s
Length 47	} between	41. 26. and 42. 10. north lat.	} 1,300
Breadth 37		71. 17. and 71. 40. west lon.	

BOUNDARIES AND DIVISIONS.] RHODE ISLAND and Providence Plantations, which together form the smallest of the United

States, are bounded on the north and east by Massachusetts; on the south by the Atlantic Ocean; and on the west by Connecticut. This state is divided into the five following counties:

<i>Counties.</i>	<i>Chief Towns.</i>
Newport.....	Newport
Providence.....	Providence
Washington.....	South Kingston
Bristol.....	Bristol
Kent.....	

ISLANDS, HARBOURS.] Narraganset bay contains several fertile islands, the principal of which are, Rhode Island, Cannonicut, Prudence, Patience, Hope, Dyer's, and Hog Islands. Block Island is the southernmost land belonging to the state. Rhode Island, from which the state takes its name, is about fifteen miles in length, and about three and a half broad, on an average. The harbours are, Newport, Providence, Wickford, Patuxet, Warren, and Bristol.

RIVERS.] This state is intersected in all directions by rivers, the chief of which are Providence and Taunton rivers, which fall into Narraganset bay.

METALS, MINERALS.] Iron ore is found in great plenty in several parts of this state; there is also a copper mine, mixed with iron strongly impregnated with load-stone. Abundance of lime-stone is also found here.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] Rhode Island is as healthy a country as any in America. The winters, in the maritime parts of the state, are milder than in the inland country, the air being softened by a sea vapour, which also enriches the soil. The summers are delightful, especially in Rhode Island, where the extreme heats, which prevail in other parts of America, are allayed by cool and refreshing breezes from the sea. This state produces rye, barley, oats, and, in some parts, wheat, sufficient for home consumption; and the various kinds of grasses, fruits, and culinary roots and plants, in great abundance, and in perfection: cider is made for exportation. The north-western parts of the state are but thinly inhabited, and are more rocky and barren than the other parts.

POPULATION.] The state of Rhode in 1790 contained 68,825 persons, of whom 948 were slaves. In 1801 the number of inhabitants was 69,122, of whom 380 were slaves.

CHIEF TOWNS.] The principal towns in the state of Rhode Island are Providence and Newport. The former is situate at the head of Narraganset bay, on both sides of Providence river, over which is a bridge 160 feet long and 22 wide. It is a large and handsome town, containing several elegant buildings, and about 6400 inhabitants.

Newport is situate at the south-west end of Rhode Island. The harbour (which is one of the finest in the world) spreads westward before the town. The entrance is easy and safe, and a large fleet may anchor in it, and ride in perfect security. Newport contains about 1000 houses.

TRADE AND MANUFACTURES.] The town of Bristol carries on a considerable trade to Africa, the West Indies, and to different parts of the United States; but by far the greatest part of the commerce of Rhode Island is at present carried on by the inhabitants of the flourishing town of Providence, which had, in 1791, 129 sail of

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vessels, containing 11,942 tons. The exports from this state are, flax-seed, lumber, horses, cattle, beef, pork, fish, poultry, onions, butter, cheese, barley, grain, spirits, cotton, and linen goods. The imports consist of European and West Indian goods, and log-wood from the bay of Honduras. Upwards of 600 vessels enter and clear annually at the different ports in the state. The amount of exports from this state to foreign countries for one year, ending Sept. 30, 1791, was 470,131 dollars; and, in 1794, 951,573 dollars. The inhabitants of this state are rapidly improving in manufactures. A cotton manufactory has been erected at Providence. Jeans, fustians, denims, thicksets, velvets, &c. are here manufactured, and sent to the southern states. Large quantities of linen and tow-cloth are made in different parts of this state for exportation; but the most considerable manufactures here are those of iron, such as bar and sheet iron, steel, nail-rods and nails, implements of husbandry, stoves, pots, and other household utensils; the iron-work of shipping, anchors, and bells.

GOVERNMENT.] The constitution of Rhode Island is founded on the charter granted by Charles II. in 1663, and the frame of government was not essentially altered by the revolution. The legislature of the state consists of two branches; a senate, or upper house, composed of ten members, besides the governor and deputy-governor, called in the charter *assistants*; and a house of representatives, composed of deputies from the several towns. The members of the legislature are chosen twice a year; and there are two sessions of this body annually, viz. on the first Wednesday in May, and the last Wednesday in October.

RELIGION.] Liberty of conscience has been inviolably maintained in this state ever since its first settlement. So little has the civil authority to do with religion here, that no contract between a minister and a society (unless incorporated for that purpose) is of any force. It is probably for these reasons that so many different sects have ever been found here; and that the sabbath, and all religious institutions, have been more neglected in this than in any other of the New England states.

COLLEGE.] A college, called Rhode Island college, is established at Providence. It is a spacious edifice, and contains upwards of sixty students. It has a library, containing nearly 3000 volumes, and a valuable philosophical apparatus.

HISTORY.] This state was first settled from Massachusetts. Mr. Roger Williams, a minister, who came over to New England in 1631, was charged with holding a variety of errors, and was on that account forced to leave his house, land, wife, and children, at Salem, in the dead of winter, and to seek a residence without the limits of Massachusetts. Governor Winthrop advised him to pursue his course to Nohiganset, or Narraganset bay, which he did, and fixed himself at Secunk, or Seekhonk, now Rehoboth. But that place being within the bounds of the Plymouth colony, governor Winslow, in a friendly manner, advised him to remove to the other side of the river, where the lands were not covered by any patent. Accordingly, in 1636, Mr. Williams, and four others, crossed Seekhonk river, and landed among the Indians, by whom they were hospitably received, and thus laid the foundation of a town, which, from a sense of God's merciful providence to him, he called *Providence*. Here he was soon after joined by a number of others; and though they were secured

from the Indians by the terror of the English, yet they, for a considerable time, suffered much from fatigue and want : but they enjoyed liberty of conscience, which is still maintained in this state.

CONNECTICUT.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 100 } Breadth 72 }	between { 71. 20. and 73. 15. west longitude } { 41. 0. and 42. 2. north latitude. }	4,674

BOUNDARIES AND DIVISION.] CONNECTICUT is bounded on the north by Massachusetts ; on the east, by Rhode Island ; on the south, by the sound which divides it from Long Island ; and, on the west, by the state of New York.

DIVISIONS.] It is divided into eight counties, as follows :

Counties.	Chief Towns.
Fairfield	Fairfield
New Haven	New Haven
Middlesex	Middleton
New London	New London
Litchfield	Litchfield
Hartford	Hartford
Tolland	Tolland
Windham	Windham

HARBOURS, RIVERS.] The whole of the sea coast is indented with harbours, many of which are safe and commodious ; but those of New London and New Hayen are the most important. The principal rivers in this state are, the Connecticut, Housatonick, Thames, and their branches.

CLIMATE, SOIL, PRODUCE.] Connecticut, though subject to the extremes of heat and cold in their seasons, and to frequent sudden changes, is very healthful. It is generally broken land, made up of mountains, hills, and vallies ; and is exceedingly well watered. Some parts of it are thin and barren. Its principal productions are Indian corn, rye, wheat in many parts of the state, oats, and barley, which are heavy and good, and, of late, buck-wheat ; flax in large quantities ; some hemp ; potatoes of several kinds, which are common to the climate. The soil is very well calculated for pasturage and mowing, which enables the farmers to feed great numbers of neat cattle and horses.

POPULATION.] In 1790 the population of this state amounted to 237,946 persons, of whom 2764 were slaves ; and in 1801 to 251,002, of whom 951 were slaves. The inhabitants are almost entirely of English descent : there are no Dutch, French, or Germans, and very few Scotch or Irish people, in any part of the state.

CHIEF TOWNS.] There are a great number of very pleasant towns, both maritime and inland, in Connecticut. It contains five cities, incorporated with extensive jurisdiction in civil causes. Two of

these, Hartford and New Haven, are capitals of the state. The general assembly is holden at the former in May, and at the latter in October, annually. Hartford is regularly laid out, the streets intersecting each other at right angles. The other cities are New London, Norwich, and Middletown.

TRADE.] The exports from this state consist of horses, mules, oxen, oak-staves, hoops, pine-boards, oak plank, beans, Indian corn, fish, beef, and pork. The amount of foreign exports, in the year 1794, amounted to 806,746 dollars.

GOVERNMENT.] The supreme legislative authority of the state is vested in a governor, deputy-governor, twelve assistants or counsellors, and the representatives of the people, styled the general assembly. The governor, deputy-governor, and assistants, are annually chosen by the freemen in the month of May. The representatives (their number not to exceed two from each town) are chosen by the freemen twice a year, to attend the two annual sessions, on the second Tuesdays of May and October. The general assembly is divided into two branches, called the upper and lower houses. The upper house is composed of the governor, deputy governor, and assistants; the lower house, of the representatives of the people. No law can pass without the concurrence of both houses.

RELIGION.] All religions that are consistent with the peace of society are tolerated in Connecticut; and a spirit of liberality and catholicism is increasing. There are very few religious sects in this state. The bulk of the people are congregationalists; and there are besides episcopalians and baptists.

COLLEGES, LITERATURE.] Yale college, at New Haven, is an eminent seminary of learning: it was founded in the year 1700. It has a public library of about 3000 volumes, and a very complete philosophical apparatus. Academies have likewise been established at Greenfield, Plainfield, Norwich, Windham, and Pomfret, some of which are flourishing. In no part of the world is the education of all ranks of people more attended to than in Connecticut; almost every town in the state is divided into districts, and each district has a public school kept in it a greater or less part of every year. A thirst for learning prevails among all ranks of people in the state. More of the young men in Connecticut, in proportion to their numbers, receive a public education than in any of the states.

HISTORY.] The first grant of Connecticut was made by the Plymouth council to the earl of Warwick, in 1630. The year following the earl assigned this grant to lord Say and Seal, lord Brook, and nine others. Some Indian traders settled at Windsor in 1633. The same year, a little before the arrival of the English, a few Dutch traders settled at Hartford: and the remains of the settlement are still visible on the bank of Connecticut river. In 1634, lord Say and Seal, &c. sent over a small number of men, who built a fort at Saybrook, and made a treaty with the Pequot Indians for the lands on Connecticut river. Mr. Haynes and Mr. Hooker left Massachusetts bay in 1634, and settled at Hartford. The following year, Mr. Eaton and Mr. Davenport seated themselves at New Haven. In 1644 the Connecticut adventurers purchased of Mr. Fenwick, agent for lord Say and Seal and lord Brook, their right to the colony for 1600l. Connecticut and New Haven continued two distinct governments for many years. At length, John Winthrop, esq. who had been chosen governor of Connecticut, was employed to solicit a royal charter. In

1662, Charles II. granted a charter, constituting the two colonies for ever one body corporate and politic, by the name of the governor and company of Connecticut. New Haven took the affair ill; but in 1665 all difficulties were amicably adjusted, and this charter still continues to be the basis of their government.

NEW YORK.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 350 } Breadth 300 }	between { 40 and 45 north latitude { 73 and 80 west longitude	} 24,000

BOUNDARIES.] NEW YORK is bounded on the south and south-west by Hudson's and Delaware rivers, which divide it from New Jersey and Pennsylvania; and on the east and north-east by New England and the Atlantic Ocean; and on the north-west by Canada. This state, including the island of New York, Long Island, and Staten Island, is divided into the twenty-one following counties:

<i>Counties.</i>	<i>Chief Towns.</i>
NEW YORK.....	NEW YORK { 40-40 N. lat. { 74-00 W. long.
Albany	Albany
Ulster	Kingston
Dutchess	Poughkeepsie
Orange.....	Orange
West Chester	Bedford, White Plains
King's.....	Flatbush, Brooklyn
Queen's	Jamaica
Suffolk.....	East Hampton, Huntingdon
Richmond	Richmond
Washington.....	Salem
Columbia	Hudson, Kinderhook
Clinton	Platsburg
Montgomery	Johnstown
Ranselaer	Lansinburg
Ontario	Canadaque
Herkemer	German Flats
Otsego	Cooper's Town
Tioga	Chemango, Union Town
Saratoga	Saratoga
Onondago.....	None

CAPES.] These are Cape May, on the east entrance of Delaware river; Sandy Hook, near the entrance of Raritan river; and Montock Point, at the east end of Long Island.

RIVERS.] The principal of these are Hudson's and the Mohawk; the former abounds with excellent harbours, and is well stored with great variety of fish; on this the cities of New York and Albany are situate.

The tide flows a few miles above Albany, which is six hundred miles from New York. It is navigable, for sloops of eighty tons, to Albany, and for ships to Hudson. About sixty miles above New York the water becomes fresh. The river is stored with a variety of fish, which renders a summer passage to Albany delightful and amusing to those who are fond of angling. On the Mohawk is a large cataract, called the Cohoes, the water of which is said to fall thirty feet perpendicular; but, including the descent above, the fall is as much as sixty or seventy feet, where the river is a quarter of a mile in breadth.

METALS, MINERALS.] Great quantities of iron ore are found in this state. A silver mine has been worked at Phillipsburg, which produced virgin silver. Lead is found in Herkemer county, and sulphur in Montgomery.

The mineral springs of Ballstown, Saratoga, and New Lebanon, are in great repute. The salt springs of Onondago produce excellent salt; and a spring is said to have been discovered in the Susquehannah country impregnated with nitre, from which saltpetre is made in the same manner as salt from the Onondago springs.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] This province, lying to the south of New England, enjoys a more happy temperature of climate. The air is very healthy, and agrees well with all constitutions. The face of the country is low, flat, and marshy towards the sea. As you recede from the coast, the eye is entertained with the gradual swelling of hills, which become large in proportion as you advance into the country. The soil is extremely fertile, producing wheat, rye, Indian corn, oats, barley, flax, and fruits, in great abundance and perfection. The timber is much the same with that of New England.

ANIMALS.] In the northern and unsettled parts of this state there are numerous moose-deer, bears, some beavers, martins, and most of the other inhabitants of the forest, except wolves. The domestic animals are the same in general as in the other states.

POPULATION.] The number of inhabitants in this state in 1790 was 340,120, of whom 11,324 were slaves. According to the census of 1800, they had then increased to 586,203, including 20,613 slaves.

CITIES.] The city of New York stands on the south-west end of York Island, which is twelve miles long, and near three in breadth, extremely well situate for trade, at the mouth of Hudson's river, where it is three miles broad, and proves a noble conveyance from Albany and many other inland towns towards Canada and the lakes. The city is in length above two miles, and its mean breadth about a mile. This city and harbour are defended by a fort and battery: in the fort is a spacious mansion-house, for the use of the governor. Many of the houses are very elegant; and the city, though irregularly built, affords a fine prospect. A fourth part of the city was burnt down by some incendiaries in 1776, on the king's troops taking it. A great part of the inhabitants, reckoned in 1790 at 33,131, are descended from the Dutch families who remained here after the surrender of the New Netherlands to the English.

The city of Albany contains about 6000 inhabitants, collected from almost all parts of the northern world. As great a variety of languages are spoken in Albany as in any town in the United States. Adventurers in pursuit of wealth are led hither by the advantages for trade which this place affords. Situated on one of the finest rivers in the world, at the head of sloop-navigation, surrounded with a rich

and extensive back country, and the store-house of the trade to and from Canada and the lakes, it must flourish, and the inhabitants cannot but grow rich.

The city of Hudson, however, is their great rival, and has had the most rapid growth of any place in America, if we except Baltimore in Maryland. It is 130 miles north of New York. It was not begun till the autumn of 1783.

COMMERCE, MANUFACTURES.] The situation of New York, with respect to foreign markets, has decidedly the preference to any of the states. It has at all seasons of the year a short and easy access to the ocean. It commands the trade of a great proportion of the best settled and best cultivated parts of the United States. 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 New Englanders use; and they have a share in the log-wood trade, and that which is carried on with the Spanish and French plantations. They used to take almost the same sort of commodities from England with the inhabitants of Boston. At an average of three years, their exports were said to amount to 526,000*l.* and their imports from Great Britain to 531,000*l.* The exports from this state in 1791 amounted to 2,505,165 dollars; and in 1795 to 10,304,580 dollars, or above two millions sterling.

The city of New York contains a great number of people who are employed in the various branches of manufactures, viz. wheel carriages of all kinds, loaf sugar, bread, beer, shoes and boots, saddles, cabinet-work, cutlery, hats, clocks, watches, mathematical and musical instruments, ships, and every thing necessary for their equipment. A glass work and several iron works have been established.

GOVERNMENT.] By the constitution of the state of New York, established in 1777, the supreme legislative power is vested in two separate and distinct bodies of men; the one called "The Assembly of the State of New York," consisting of seventy members annually chosen by ballot; and the other, "The Senate of the State of New York," consisting of twenty-four, for four years, who together form the legislature, and meet once at least in every year for the dispatch of business. The supreme executive power is vested in a governor, who continues in office three years, assisted by four counsellors chosen by and from the senate. Every male inhabitant of full age, who possesses a freehold of the value of twenty pounds, or has rented a tenement of the yearly value of forty shillings, and been rated and paid taxes to the state for six months preceding the day of election, is entitled to vote for members of the assembly; but those who vote for the governor, and the members of the senate, are to be possessed of freeholds of the value of one hundred pounds. The delegates to the congress, the judges, &c. are to be chosen by ballot of the senate and assembly.

RELIGION.] It is ordained by the constitution of New York, that the free exercise and enjoyment of religious profession and worship, without discrimination or preference, shall for ever be allowed within that state to all mankind.

COLLEGES.] A college was erected at New York, by act of parliament, about the year 1755; but, as the assembly was at that time divided into parties, it was formed on a contracted plan, and has for that reason never met with the encouragement which might naturally be expected for a public seminary in so populous a city. It is now

called Columbia College. It has about one hundred and forty students in the four classes, besides medical students.

A college called Union College was established at Schenectady in 1794, which has now about forty students in the four classes. Besides these there are dispersed in different parts of the state fourteen incorporated academies, containing in the whole as many as six or seven hundred students. It is also provided that schools shall be established, one at least in every district of four square miles.

HISTORY.] The Swedes and Dutch were the first Europeans who formed settlements on this part of the American coast. The tract claimed by the two nations extended from the 38th to the 41st degree of latitude, and was called the New Netherlands. It continued in their hands till the time of Charles II. who obtained it from them by right of conquest in 1664; and it was confirmed to the English by the treaty of Breda, 1667. The New Netherlands were not long in our possession before they were divided into different provinces. New York took that name from the king's brother, James duke of York, to whom the king granted it, with full powers of government, by letters patent dated March 20, 1664. On James's accession to the throne, the right to New York became vested in the crown, and it became a royal government. The king appointed the governor and council; and the people, once in seven years, elected their representatives to serve in general assemblies. These three branches of the legislature (answering to those of Great Britain) had power to make any laws not repugnant to those of England: but, in order to their being valid, the royal assent to them was first to be obtained.

NEW JERSEY.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length	160	between { 39 and 41.24 north lat.	8,320
Breadth	50	{ 74.44 and 75.33 west long. }	

BOUNDARIES, DIVISIONS.] NEW JERSEY is bounded on the west and south-west by Delaware river and bay, which separates it from the states of Pennsylvania and Delaware; on the south-east and east, by the Atlantic Ocean, the Sound, which separates Staten Island from the continent, and Hudson's river; and on the north, by a line drawn from the mouth of Mahakkamak river, to a point in Hudson's river.

<i>Districts.</i>	<i>Counties.</i>	<i>Chief Towns.</i>
East Division contains	Middlesex	Perth Amboy and New Brunswick Shrewsbury and Freehold Elizabeth and Newark Boundbrook Hakkensak
	Monmouth ..	
	Essex	
	Somerset	
	Bergen	

Districts.	Counties.	Chief Towns.
West Division contains	Burlington	BURLINGTON } 40-8 N. lat. 75-0 W. long.
	Gloucester	Woodbury, and Gloucester
	Salem	Salem
	Cumberland . . .	Hopewell, Bridgetown
	Cape May	None
	Hunterdon	TRENTON . . } 40-15 N. lat. 74-15 W. long.
	Morris	Morristown
	Sussex	Newtown

RIVERS.] These are the Delaware, Raritan, and Passaic, on the latter of which is a remarkable cataract: the height of the rock from which the water falls is said to be about 70 feet perpendicular, and the river there 80 yards broad.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] The climate is much the same with that of New York; the soil is various; at least one-fourth part of the province is barren sandy land, producing pines and cedars; the other parts in general are good, and produce wheat, barley, rye, Indian corn, &c. in great perfection.

METALS, MINERALS.] In this state are several iron mines, and in Bergen county is a very valuable copper mine.

POPULATION.] The number of inhabitants in New Jersey in 1790 was 181,139, of whom 11,423 were slaves; in 1801 they amounted to 211,149, including 12,422 slaves.

CHIEF TOWNS.] Trenton is the largest town in, and the metropolis of this state; where the legislature stately meets, the supreme court sits, and most of the public offices are kept. It contains between two and three hundred houses, and about 2000 inhabitants.

Perth Amboy and Burlington were formerly the seats of government: the governor generally resided in the latter, which is pleasantly situate on the river Delaware, about twenty miles from Philadelphia. The former is as good a port as most on the continent, and the harbour is safe, and capacious enough to contain many large ships.

TRADE, MANUFACTURES.] The trade of this state is carried on almost solely with and from those two great commercial cities, New York on one side, and Philadelphia on the other, though it wants not good ports of its own. Manufactures here have hitherto been inconsiderable, if we except the articles of iron, nails, and leather. The iron manufacture is, of all others, the greatest source of wealth to the state. In Morris county alone are no less than seven rich iron mines. In the whole state it is supposed there is yearly made about 1200 tons of bar iron, and as many of pig iron, exclusive of hollow ware and various other castings, of which vast quantities are made.

GOVERNMENT.] By the Charter of Rights, established by the provincial congress, July 2, 1776, the government of New Jersey is vested in a governor, legislative council, and general assembly. The members of the legislative council are to be freeholders, and worth at least one thousand pounds real and personal estate; and the members of the general assembly to be worth five hundred pounds. All the inhabitants worth fifty pounds are entitled to vote for representatives in council and assembly, and for all other public officers. The elections of the governor, legislative council, and general assembly, are to be annual; the governor and lieutenant-governor to be chosen

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out of, and by the assembly and council. The judges of the supreme court are chosen for seven years, and the officers of the executive power for five years.

RELIGION AND LEARNING.] According to the present constitution of this province, all persons are allowed to worship God in the manner that is most agreeable to their own consciences; nor is any person obliged to pay tithes, taxes, or any other rates, for the purpose of building or repairing any church or churches, for the maintenance of any minister or ministry, contrary to what he believes to be right, or has deliberately or voluntarily engaged himself to perform. There is to be no establishment of any one religious sect in this province in preference to another: and no protestant inhabitants are to be denied the enjoyment of any civil right, merely on account of their religious principles.

COLLEGES.] A college, called Nassau Hall, was established at the town of Princeton, in this province, by governor Belcher, in 1746, which has a power of conferring the same degrees as Oxford or Cambridge. There are generally between eighty and a hundred students here, who come from all parts of the continent, some even from the extremities of it. There is another college at Brunswick, called Queen's College, founded a little before the war, and in considerable repute. There are also several academies.

HISTORY.] New Jersey is part of that vast tract of land which, we have observed, was given by king Charles II. to his brother James, duke of York; he sold it, for a valuable consideration, to lord Berkeley and Sir George Carteret (from which it received its present name, because Sir George had estates in the island of Jersey), and they again to others, who in the year 1702 made a surrender of the powers of government to queen Anne, which she accepted; after which it became a royal government.

PENNSYLVANIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 200 } Breadth 156 }	between { 74 and 80 west longitude. { 39 and 42 north latitude. }	} 45,000

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by New York and Lake Erie, on the north; by Delaware river, which divides it from New Jersey, on the east; by a part of Virginia, and by Maryland and Delaware, on the south; and by the North-western territory, and a part of Virginia, on the west.

DIVISIONS.] The state of PENNSYLVANIA contains twenty-three counties.

<i>Counties.</i>	<i>Chief Towns.</i>	
Philadelphia	PHILADELPHIA	} N. lat. 40. } W. long. 75.20
Chester	Chester	
Bucks	Newtown	
Berks	Reading	

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<i>Counties.</i>	<i>Chief Towns.</i>
Northampton	Easton
Lancaster	Lancaster
York	York
Cumberland	Carlisle
Montgomery	Norriston
Dauphin	Louisburg
Luzerne	Wilksbarre
Northumberland	Sunbury
Franklin	Chamberstown
Huntingdon	Huntingdon
Westmoreland	Greensburg
Fayette	Union
Washington	Washington
Allegany	Pittsburg
Delaware	Chester
Mifflin	Lewiston
Bedford*	Bedford
Somerset	None
Lycoming	None

RIVERS.] The rivers are, the Delaware, which is navigable more than two hundred miles above Philadelphia; the Susquehanna and Schuylkill, which are also navigable a considerable way up the country. These rivers, with the numerous bays and creeks in Delaware bay, capable of containing the largest fleets, render this state admirably suited to carry on an inland and foreign trade.

METALS, MINERALS.] Iron ore abounds in this state; and copper and lead are found in some places. Lime-stone is common, as also several kinds of marble; and in the middle and western parts of the country there is abundance of coal.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, CLIMATE, SOIL, PRODUCE.] The face of the country, air, soil, and produce, do not materially differ from those 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 Delaware, 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 the United States, 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 states, that towards the south it is not so good for shipping as that of the more northern countries. The farther 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.

Pennsylvania produces all the various kinds of grain common to

* This county was purchased from the Indians, in 1768, by Mr. Penn, and established in 1771.

the neighbouring states; but wheat is the principal, and of most general cultivation. The vine is much cultivated in this state, and good wine has been made from the grapes raised here.

ANIMALS.] Deer are found in great numbers in Pennsylvania; there are also beavers, otters, racoons, and martens: Buffaloes rarely cross the Ohio, and elks seldom advance from the north. Panthers, wild cats, bears, foxes, and wolves, are not rare; the last do most mischief, especially in the winter; but the fur and skins of all are valuable. In the thick settlements, rabbits and squirrels are frequent; also musk-rats in marshes. Partridges are yet numerous, though the late hard winters have destroyed many. There are great numbers of wild turkeys in the new settlements; pheasants and grouse are become scarce. Pigeons, ducks, and wild geese, are generally found in plenty in their proper seasons. Here are a great number of singing birds, as many migrate to this state from the north and south in certain seasons.

POPULATION.] The inhabitants of Pennsylvania in 1790 amounted to 434,373, including 3737 slaves; and in 1800 to 602,365, including 1706 slaves; or about thirteen for every square mile.

ORIGIN AND CHARACTER OF THE INHABITANTS.] The inhabitants of Pennsylvania are principally the descendants of English, Irish, and Germans, with some Scotch, Welsh, Swedes, and a few Dutch. There are also many of the Irish and Germans, who emigrated when young or middle-aged. The Friends and Episcopalians are chiefly of English extraction, and compose about one-third of the inhabitants. They live chiefly in the metropolis, and in the counties of Chester, Philadelphia, Bucks, and Montgomery. The Irish are mostly Presbyterians, but some are Roman Catholics. The Germans compose about one-quarter of the inhabitants of Pennsylvania. They consist of Lutherans, who are the most numerous sect; Calvinists, or Reformed Church; Moravians, Roman Catholics, Mennonists, Tunkers, and Zwingfelters, who are a species of Quakers. These are all distinguished for their temperance, industry, and economy. The Baptists, except the Mennonists and Tunker Baptists, are chiefly descended of emigrants from Wales, and are not numerous. A proportionate assemblage of the national prejudices, the manners, customs, religions, and political sentiments of all these will form the Pennsylvanian character.

CHIEF TOWNS.] Pennsylvania contains several very considerable towns, such as Lancaster, Carlisle, and Pittsburg. But the city of Philadelphia, which is beautiful beyond any city in America, and in regularity unequalled by any in Europe, eclipses the rest, and merits particular attention. It was built after the plan of the famous William Penn, the founder and legislator of this colony. It is situate about 120 miles from the sea, by the course of the bay and river; and 55 or 60 in the south-eastward direction. The ground-plot of the city is an oblong square, about one mile from north to south, and two from east to west; lying in the narrowest part of the isthmus, between the Delaware and Schuylkill rivers, about five miles in a right line above their confluence, where the Delaware is a mile broad. The city is intersected by a great number of streets crossing each other at right angles. Of these there were originally nine, which extended from the Delaware to the Schuylkill, and were crossed by twenty-three others running north and south. The number of squares formed by these streets, in the original plan, was 184;

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but as several of them have lately been intersected by new streets, their number now amounts to 304; and several of these are again intersected by lanes and alleys. Market-street is 100 feet wide, and runs the whole length of the city, from river to river; and near the middle is intersected by Broad-street, 113 feet wide, running nearly north and south. The other streets are 50 feet wide, except Arch-street, which is 65 feet. Most of the city is well paved with foot-paths of brick, furnished with common sewers and gutters, so that the streets are in general kept very clean and neat. The houses in the city and suburbs are generally of brick, three stories high, in a plain decent style, without much display of ornament. In 1794 there were 9000 houses in this city, and 400 which were building; and the present number of inhabitants is estimated at about 70,000. Philadelphia contains 27 places of public worship, belonging to different sects. The state-house is a magnificent building, erected in 1735. In 1787 an elegant court-house, or town-hall, was built on the left of the state-house, and, on the right, a philosophical hall. Here likewise is a public observatory, and several other public buildings. This city is governed by a mayor, recorder, fifteen aldermen, and thirty common council men, according to its present charter, granted in the year 1789. A malignant fever raged here in 1793, which in the course of August and three succeeding months carried off 4031 of the inhabitants; and this fatal distemper for several years returned annually.

Lancaster, the chief town of Lancaster county, is the largest inland town in the United States: it contains about 7 or 800 houses, and 5000 inhabitants. Carlisle contains about 400 houses, and 1500 inhabitants.

COMMERCE, MANUFACTURES.] The commerce of Pennsylvania is very flourishing. It is principally carried on from Philadelphia; and there are few commercial ports in the world where ships from Philadelphia may not be found in some season of the year. The number of vessels which entered this port in 1786 was 1910, and, in 1795, 1620. The clearances in the latter year were 1789. It is not mentioned, however, how many of these were coasting vessels. The number of vessels built in 1795 was 31, of which 23 were ships and brigs. In the year 1792, Philadelphia shipped 420,000 barrels of flour and middlings. The value of exports from the State of Pennsylvania in the year ending September 30, 1791, was 3,436,092 dollars: and, in 1795, 11,318,260 dollars. The existing war has occasioned some extraordinary articles in the exportation of late; coffee and other commodities having been carried to Philadelphia, and thence to Hamburg, as neutral ports.

The manufactures of this state are of numerous kinds. Iron-works are of long standing, and their products increase in quantity, and improve in quality. There are also improving manufactures of leather, paper, cotton, gun-powder, copper, lead, tin, and earthen-ware.

GOVERNMENT.] According to the actual constitution, the legislative power is administered by a senate and house of representatives; the executive by a governor; and the judiciary by a supreme court, a court of common-pleas, and a court of quarter-sessions of the peace. The legislature and governor are elected by the freemen; the governor for three years; the representatives, and a fourth part of the senate, annually. The number of representatives must not be less than sixty, nor exceed one hundred; nor that of senators less than a

fourth, nor greater than a third-part of the number of representatives. The electors of the magistrates must have attained the age of twenty-one, have resided in the state two years, and paid taxes. The representatives must have been inhabitants of the state three years, and, the last year previous to their election, have resided in the county which chooses them. The qualifications of twenty-five years of age, and of four years residence, are required in senators: and the governor must have attained the age of thirty, and have resided in the state seven years; and he is not eligible more than nine years in twelve. The senators are divided by lot into four classes; and the seats of one class vacated and re-filled yearly.

RELIGION.] Liberty of conscience is allowed in this state in its fullest extent. The proportions in which the several different sects prevail, may be estimated from the number of congregations in Pennsylvania, as given by Dr. Morse, viz. Presbyterians, 86; German Calvinists, 84; nearly 84 of German Lutherans; Friends, or Quakers, 54; Episcopalians, 26; Baptists, 15; Roman Catholics, 11; Scotch Presbyterians, 8; Free Quakers, 1; Universalists, 1; Covenanters, 1; Methodists, 3 or 4; and a Jewish synagogue; the whole amounting to 381.

UNIVERSITY, COLLEGES.] There is a university at Philadelphia, and colleges at Carlisle and Lancaster. The Episcopalians have an academy at York-town, in York county. There are also academies at German-town, at Pittsburg, at Washington, at Allen's-town, and other places: these are endowed by donations from the legislature, and by liberal contributions of individuals. The legislature have also reserved 60,000 acres of the public lands for public schools. The United Brethren, or Moravians, have academies at Bethlehem and Nazareth, on the best establishment of any schools perhaps in America. The literary, humane, and other useful societies are more numerous and flourishing in Pennsylvania than in any of the sixteen states. Among these is one which deserves a particular notice, which is the *American Philosophical Society*, held at Philadelphia. This society was formed, January 2d, 1769, by the union of two other literary societies that had subsisted for some time, and were created one body corporate and politic, with such powers, privileges, and immunities, as are necessary for answering the valuable purpose which the society had originally in view, by a charter granted by the commonwealth of Pennsylvania on the 15th of March 1780. This society has published two very valuable volumes of their Transactions: one in 1771, and the other in 1786. In 1771 it consisted of nearly 300 members, and upwards of 120 have since been added; a large proportion of whom are foreigners.

HISTORY.] 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 Penn, who, in conjunction with Venables, had conquered the island of Jamaica (under the auspices of Cromwell), being in favour 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. Penn be little known but to those of his own persuasion, his reputation, in a character no less respectable, is universal among all civilised nations. The circumstances of the times engaged

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secutions to which the Quakers, like other sectaries, were then ex-
posed; but it was to his own wisdom and ability that they are
indebted for that charter of privileges which placed this colony on so
respectable a footing. Civil and religious liberty, in the utmost lati-
tude, was laid down by that great man as the chief and only founda-
tion of all his institutions. Christians of all denominations might
not only live unmolested, but have a share in the government of the
colony. No laws could be made but by the consent of the inhabi-
tants. Even matters of benevolence, to which the laws of few nations
have extended, were by Penn subjected to regulations. The affairs
of widows and orphans were to be inquired into by a court constitu-
ted for that purpose. The disputes between individuals were not
to be subjected to the delay and chicanery of the law, but decided by
wise and honest arbitrators. His benevolence and generosity ex-
tended also to the Indian nations: instead of taking immediate ad-
vantage of his patent, he purchased of these people the lands he had
obtained by his grant, judging that the original property, and oldest
right, was vested in them. William Penn, in short, had he been a
native of Greece, would have had his statue placed next to those 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 was lately 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 pounds
the thousand acres, with one shilling quit-rent for every hundred.
Near Philadelphia, before the commencement of the war with the
mother country, land rented at twenty shillings the acre, and, even
at several miles distance from that city, sold at twenty years pur-
chase.

It was in Philadelphia that the general congress of America met
in September 1774; and their meetings continued to be chiefly held
there till the king's troops made themselves masters of that city, on
the 26th of September 1777. But in June 1778 the British troops
retreated to New York, and Philadelphia again became the residence
of the congress.

DELAWARE.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 92 } Breadth 24 }	between { 38 29 and 39 54 north latitude. 75 2 and 75 48 west longitude. }	2000

BOUNDARIES.] DELAWARE is bounded on the East by the
river and bay of the same name, and the Atlantic Ocean; on the
north, by Pennsylvania; and on the south and west by Maryland.
It is divided into the three following counties:

Counties.	Chief Towns.
Newcastle	Newcastle, Wilmington
Kent	Dover
Sussex	Lewes

RIVERS.] In the southern and western parts of this state, spring the head-waters of Pocomoke, Wicomico, Nanticoke, Choptank, Chester, Sassafra, and Bohemia rivers, all falling into Chesapeak bay. Some of them are navigable twenty or thirty miles into the country for vessels of fifty or sixty tons.

METALS, MINERALS.] There are few minerals in this state, except iron: large quantities of bog iron ore, very fit for castings, are found in Sussex county, among the branches of Nanticoke river.

AIR, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] The air is in general healthy; but in some parts, where there are large quantities of stagnant water, it is less salubrious. The soil along the Delaware river, and from eight to ten miles into the interior country, is generally a rich clay, adapted to the various purposes of agriculture. From thence to the swamps the soil is light, sandy, and of an inferior quality. Wheat grows here in such perfection, as not only to be particularly sought by the manufacturers of flour throughout the Union, but also to be distinguished and preferred for its superior qualities in foreign markets. Besides wheat, this state generally produces plentiful crops of Indian corn, barley, rye, oats, flax, buck-wheat, and potatoes.

POPULATION.] The number of inhabitants in Delaware in 1790 was 59,094, of whom 387 were slaves: in 1801 they amounted to 64,273, including 6,153 slaves.

CHIEF TOWNS.] Dover, being the seat of government, is considered as the metropolis, though it contains but about a hundred houses; but Wilmington is the most considerable town in the state, containing 600 houses, and 3000 inhabitants. It is regularly laid out in squares, similar to Philadelphia.

TRADE AND MANUFACTURES.] The staple commodity of this state is wheat, which is manufactured into flour, and exported in large quantities. Besides wheat and flour, lumber and various other articles are exported from Delaware. The amount of exports from this state, in the year 1795, was 158,041 dollars. Among other branches of industry exercised in and near Wilmington, are a cotton manufactory, and a bolting manufactory. In the county of Newcastle are several fulling-mills, two snuff-mills, one slitting-mill, four paper-mills, and sixty mills for grinding grain, all turned by water.

GOVERNMENT.] At the late revolution, the three counties of Delaware were erected into a sovereign state, having a governor, senate, and house of representatives. The senators are nine in number, three from each county; and the representatives twenty-seven. The former must be twenty-seven years old, and the latter twenty-four; and senators must have a freehold of two hundred acres, or real and personal estate to the value of one thousand pounds. The governor is not eligible more than three years in six. In other particulars the constitution of Delaware almost exactly agrees with that of Pennsylvania.

RELIGION.] In this state there are a variety of religious denominations. Of the Presbyterian sect there are 24 churches; of the Episcopal, 14; of the Baptists, 7; of the Methodists, a considerable number. Besides these there is a Swedish church at Wilmington, which is one of the oldest churches in the United States.

LEARNING.] There is no college in this state. There is an academy at Newark, incorporated in 1769. The legislature, in January 1796, passed an act to create a fund for the establishment of schools throughout the state.

HISTORY.] Settlements were made here by the Dutch about the year 1623, and by the Swedes about the year 1627. Their settlements were comprehended in the grant to the duke of York; and William Penn united them to his government by purchase. They were afterwards separated in some measure from Pennsylvania, and denominated the *Three Lower Counties*. They had their own assemblies, but the governor of Pennsylvania used to attend, as he did in his own proper government.

MARYLAND.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

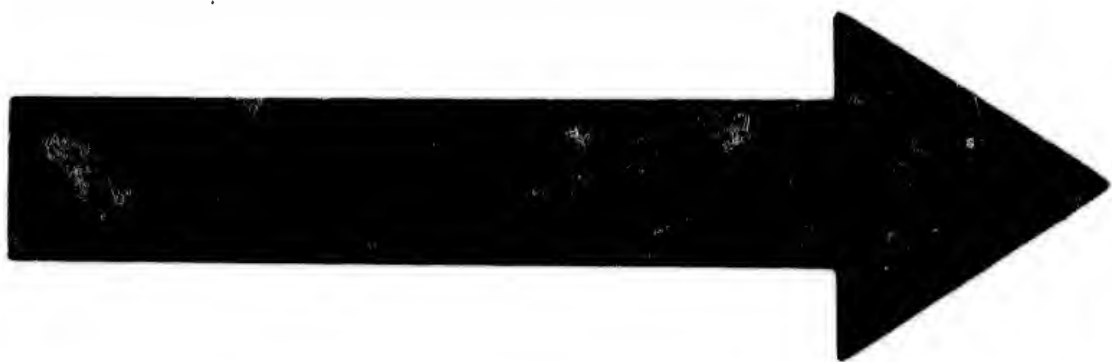
	Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length	134	between { 75 and 80 west longitude } { 38 and 40 north latitude }	14,000
Breadth	110		

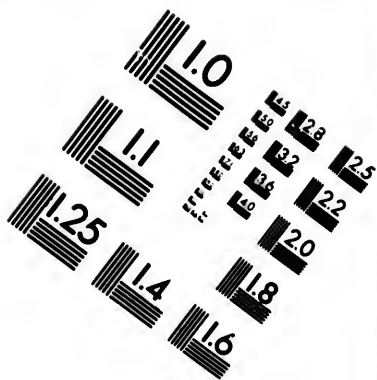
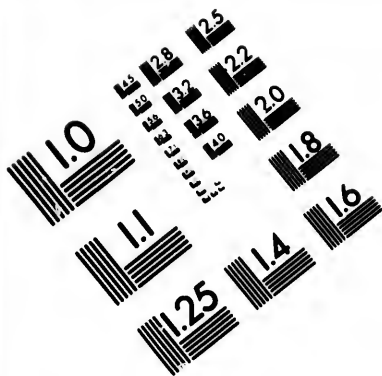
BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by Pennsylvania, on the north; by the Delaware state, and the Atlantic Ocean, on the east; by Virginia, on the south; and by the Apalachian mountains, on the west.

DIVISIONS.] Maryland is divided into two parts by the bay of Chesapeak, viz. 1. the eastern; and, 2. the western division.

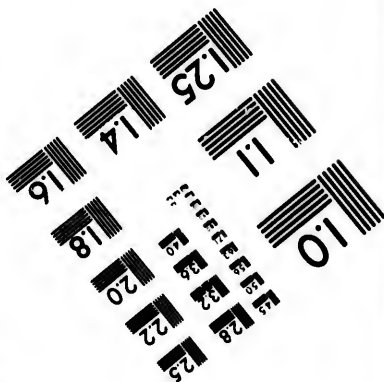
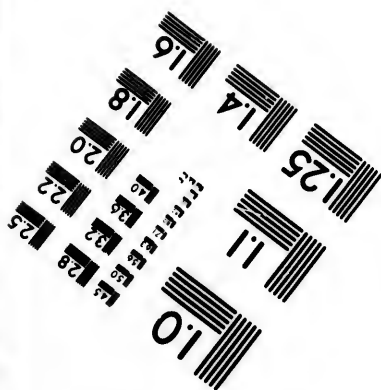
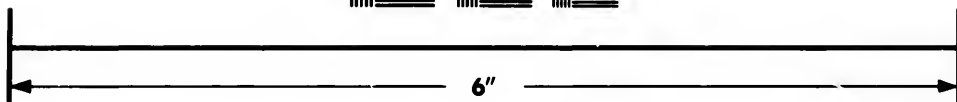
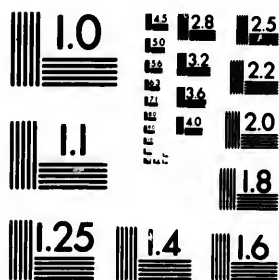
<i>Divisions.</i>	<i>Counties.</i>	<i>Chief Towns.</i>
The East Division contains the coun- ties of	Worcester	Princess Anne
	Somerset	Snow-Hill
	Dorset	Dorset, or Dorchester
	Talbot	Oxford
	Cecil	
	Queen Anne's	Queen's Town
	Kent	Chester
	Caroline	Danton
	St. Mary's	St. Mary
	Charles	Bristol
The West Division contains	Prince George	Masterkout
	Calvert	Abington
	Ann Arundel	ANNAPOLIS, W. lon. 75-8. N. lat. 38-56.
	Baltimore	Baltimore
	Frederic	Frederic Town
	Washington	Elizabeth Town
	Montgomery	
	Hartford	
Allegany	Cumberland	

RIVERS.] This country is indented with a vast number of navigable creeks and rivers. The chief are Patowmac, Pocomoke, Patuxent, Choptank, Severn, and Sassafaras.





**IMAGE EVALUATION
TEST TARGET (MT-3)**



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FACE OF THE COUNTRY, CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] In these particulars this state has nothing remarkable 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 climate is generally mild, and agreeably suited to agricultural productions and a great variety of fruit-trees. In the interior hilly country the inhabitants are healthy; but in the flat country, in the neighbourhood of the marshes and stagnant waters, they are, as in the other southern states, subject to intermittents. The vast number of rivers diffuses fertility through the soil, which is admirably adapted to the rearing of tobacco and wheat (which are the staple commodities of this country), hemp, Indian corn, grain, &c.

POPULATION.] The number of inhabitants has of late years greatly increased, amounting in 1790 to 319,728, of whom 103,036 were slaves; and in 1801 to 349,692, including 107,707 slaves.

CHIEF TOWNS.] Annapolis, the capital of Maryland, is a small but well situate town upon the river Patuxent. It was formerly called Severn, which name, in the year 1694, was, by an act of the assembly of Maryland, changed into Annapolis. It is situate on a peninsula formed by the river, and two small creeks, and affords a beautiful prospect of Chesapeak bay, and the eastern shore beyond-it. This city is of little note in the commercial world; but is the wealthiest town of its size in the United States. The houses, about three hundred in number, are spacious and elegant, and indicate great wealth. The state-house is the noblest building of the kind in the Union. It stands in the centre of the city, from which point the streets diverge in every direction like radii.

Baltimore is the largest town in the state of Maryland: in size it is the fourth, and in commerce the fifth in rank in the United States. It is situate on the north side of Patapsco river, at a small distance from its junction with the Chesapeak. The town is built around what is called the bason, reckoned one of the finest harbours in America. The number of the inhabitants of the town and precincts in 1791 was 13,503, including 1255 slaves, and they must have greatly increased since.

TRADE.] The trade of Maryland is principally carried on from Baltimore, with the other states, with the West Indies, and with some parts of Europe. To these places they send annually about 30,000 hogsheads of tobacco, besides large quantities of wheat, flour, pig-iron, lumber, and corn-beans, pork, and flax-seed in small quantities; and receive in return, clothing for themselves and negroes, and other dry goods, wines, spirits, sugars, and other West India commodities. The balance is generally in their favour.—The total amount of exports from Baltimore in 1790 was 2,027,777 dollars, and in 1795, 5,811,379 dollars. In the year 1791 the quantity of wheat exported was 205,571 bushels.

GOVERNMENT.] The government of Maryland is vested in a governor, senate of fifteen, and house of delegates; all which are to be chosen annually. The governor is elected by ballot, by the senate and house of delegates; and cannot continue in office longer than three years successively. All freemen above twenty-one years of age, having a freehold of fifty acres, or property to the value of thirty pounds, have a right of suffrage in the election of delegates, which is

viva voce. All persons appointed to any office of profit and trust, are to subscribe a declaration of their belief in the Christian religion.

RELIGION.] The Roman Catholics, who were the first settlers in Maryland, are the most numerous religious sect. Besides these there are Protestants, Episcopalians, English, Scotch and Irish Presbyterians, German Calvinists, German Lutherans, Friends, Baptists, Methodists, Mennonites, Nicolites, or new Quakers; who all enjoy liberty of conscience.

COLLEGES.] The seminaries of learning in this state are as follows: Washington Academy, in Somerset county, which was instituted by law in 1779. Washington College, instituted at Chester-town in Kent county in 1782. By a law enacted in 1787, a permanent fund was granted to this institution, of 1250l. a year currency. St. John's College was instituted in 1784, to which a permanent fund is assigned of 175l. a year. This college is to be at Annapolis, where a building is now prepared for it. Very liberal subscriptions were obtained towards founding and carrying on these seminaries. The two colleges constitute one university, by the name of "The University of Maryland," whereof the governor of the state for the time being is chancellor, and the principal of one of them vice-chancellor. The Roman-catholics have also erected a college at George-town on Patowmac river for the promotion of general literature. In 1785 the Methodists instituted a college at Abington in Hartford county, by the name of Cokesbury College.

HISTORY.] Maryland, like the provinces we have formerly described, owes its settlement to religious considerations. As they, however, were peopled by Protestants, Maryland was originally planted by Roman-catholics. This sect, towards the close of Charles the First's reign, was the object of great hatred to the bulk of the English nation; and the laws in force against the Papists were executed with great severity. This in part arose from an opinion, that the court was too favourably disposed towards this form of religion. It is certain that many marks of favour were conferred on the Roman-catholics. Lord Baltimore was one of the most eminent, in great favour with the court, and on that account most odious to the generality of the English. 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 Henrietta Mary, daughter to Henry IV. of France, and spouse to king Charles. The year following, about 200 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 distinguish 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, 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 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. But the tyrannical government of James II. again deprived this noble family of their possession, acquired by royal bounty, and improved by much care and expense.

At the revolution, 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, after the family changed their religion, they obtained the power as well as the interest. The government of this country exactly resembled that in Virginia, except that the governor was appointed by the proprietor, and only confirmed by the crown.

VIRGINIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 446 } Breadth 224 }	between { 76 and 83 west longitude { 36 and 40 north latitude }	{ 70,000

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by Maryland, part of Pennsylvania, and the Ohio river, on the north; by the Atlantic Ocean, on the east; by North Carolina, on the south; and by Kentucky, on the west.

DIVISIONS.] Virginia is divided into 82 counties, as follows:

<i>Situation.</i>	<i>Counties.</i>	<i>Situation.</i>	<i>Counties.</i>
West of the Blue Ridge.	Ohio	Between the Blue Ridge and the Tide-waters.	Loudoun
	Monongalia		Fauquier
	Washington		Culpepper
	Montgomery		Spotsylvania
	Wythe		Orange
	Botetourt		Louisa
	Green-briar		Goochland
	Kanawa		Flavinia
	Hampshire		Albermarle
	Berkley		Amherst
	Frederick		Buckingham
	Shenandoah		Bedford
	Rockingham		Henry
	Augusta		Pittsylvania
Rockbridge	Halifax		

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<i>Situation.</i>	<i>Counties.</i>	<i>Situation.</i>	<i>Counties.</i>
Between the Blue Ridge and Tide-waters.	Charlotte	Between York and Rappahan- nocc rivers.	Caroline
	Prince Edward		King William
	Cumberland		King and Queen
	Powhatan		Essex
	Amelia		Middlesex
	Nottaway		Gloucester
	Lanenburg		Fairfax
	Mecklenburgh		Prince William
	Brunswick		Stafford
	Greensville		King George
Between James river and Caro- lina.	Dinwiddie	Between Rappa- hannoc and Pa- townmac rivers.	Richmond
	Chesterfield		Westmoreland
	Prince George		Northumberland
	Surry		Lancaster
	Sussex		Accomac
	Southampton		Northampton
	Isle of Wight		
	Nansemond		
	Norfolk		
	Princess Ann		
Between James and York rivers.	Henrico	The following are new Counties.	Campbell
	Hanover		Franklin
	New Kent		Harrison
	Charles City		Randolph
	James City		Hardy
	Williamsburg		Pendleton
	York		Russel
	Warwick		
	Elizabeth City		

Sq. Miles.
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t of Pennsylvania,
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 Kentucky, on the
 es, as follows :

- Counties.*
- Londoun
 - Fauquier
 - Culpepper
 - Spotsylvania
 - Orange
 - Louisa
 - Goochland
 - Flavinia
 - Albermarle
 - Amherst
 - Buckingham
 - Bedford
 - Henry
 - Pittsylvania
 - Halifax

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 300 miles from the south to the north, is about eighteen miles broad for a considerable way, and seven where it is the 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 Rappahannoc, 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 in the world of all others of the most convenient navigation. It has been observed, and the observation is not exaggerated, that every planter has a river at his door.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Virginia abounds more with minerals and fossils than any state in the Union. Iron, lead, copper, black-lead, coal, marble, lime-stone, are found in this country ; a single lump of gold ore has likewise been found near the falls of Rappahannoc river, which yielded 17 dwt. of gold of extraordinary ductility ; but no other indications of gold have been observed. Crystals are common : some amethysts, and one emerald have been discovered.

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 100 miles into the country without meeting with a hill, which is nothing uncommon on this extensive coast of North America.

CLIMATE.] In summer the heats here are excessive, though not without refreshing breezes from the sea. The weather is changeable, and the change is sudden and violent. The winter frosts come on without 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 or 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 of the soil, which, however, is of a generous nature, and, aided 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 bushes grow beneath; so that people travel with ease through them on horseback, under a fine shade which defends them from the sun: the plains are enamelled with flowers and flowering shrubs of the richest colours and most fragrant scent. Silk grows spontaneously in many places, the fibres of which are as strong as hemp. Medicinal herbs and roots, particularly the snake-root and ginseng, are here in great plenty. There is no sort of grain but might be cultivated to advantage. 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 exportation, though not in such quantities as might be expected from the nature of the soil, which is 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. Before the war between Great Britain and the Colonies, beef and pork were sold here from one penny to two-pence a pound;

the fattest pullets at six-pence 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 were still cheaper in the season, and deer were sold from five to ten shillings a-piece. This estimate may serve for the other American colonies, where provisions were 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 tiger, bears, wolves, foxes, and racoons. 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 great number of teats on the usual parts of the common belly. Upon the e, when the female of this creature conceives, the young are formed, and there they hang, like fruit upon the stalk, until they grow to a certain bulk and weight; when 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, 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.

POPULATION.] The inhabitants of Virginia amounted, according to the census of 1790, to 747,610, of whom 292,627 were negroes; in 1801, by the census then taken, their number was 886,149, including 346,968 slaves.

CHARACTER, MANNERS, CUSTOMS.] Virginia has produced some of the most distinguished actors in effecting the revolution in America. Her political and military character will rank among the first in the page of history. But it is to be observed, that this character has been obtained for the Virginians by a few eminent men, who have taken the lead in all their public transactions, and who, in short, govern Virginia; for the great body of the people do not concern themselves with politics, so that their government, though nominally republican, is in fact oligarchal, or aristocratical.

Several travellers give but a very indifferent account of the generality of the people of this state. The young men, observes one, generally speaking, are gamblers, cock-fighters, and horse-jockeys. The ingenuity of a Locke, or the discoveries of a Newton, are considered as infinitely inferior to the accomplishments of him who is expert in the management of a cock-fight, or dexterous in manœuvring at a horse-race. A spirit for literary inquiries, if not altogether confined to a few, is, among the body of the people, evidently subordinate to a spirit of gambling and barbarous sports. At almost every tavern or ordinary on the public road there is a billiard table, a backgammon table, cards, and other implements for various games. To these public-houses the gambling gentry in the neighbourhood resort, to *kill time*, which hangs heavily upon them; and at this business they are extremely expert, having been accustomed to it from their earliest youth. The passion for cock-fighting, a diversion not only

inhumanly barbarous, but infinitely beneath the dignity of a man of sense, is so predominant, that they even advertise their matches in the public papers.* This dissipation of manners is the consequence of indolence and luxury, which are the fruit of African slavery.

CITY TOWNS.] Virginia is not divided into townships, nor are there any large towns, owing probably to the intersection of the country by navigable rivers, which bring the trade to the doors of the inhabitants, and prevent the necessity of their going in quest of it to a distance. The principal towns are, Richmond the capital, Williamsburg, and Norfolk. Richmond contains between 100 and 500 houses, and about 4000 inhabitants. Here is a large state-house, or capitol, lately erected on a hill which commands an extensive prospect of the lower part of the town, the river, and the adjacent country. Williamsburg was the seat of government till 1780. It contains about 100 houses, and about 1400 inhabitants. It is regularly laid out in parallel streets, with a pleasant square in the centre, of about ten acres, through which runs the principal street, about a mile in length, and more than 200 feet wide. Norfolk is the most considerable commercial town in Virginia. The harbour is safe and commodious, and large enough to contain 300 ships. In 1790 the number of inhabitants in Norfolk was 2959, including 1294 slaves.

TRADE.] The trade of Virginia consists principally in tobacco, and different kinds of grain. In 1790, about 40,000 hogsheads of tobacco were exported; but its culture has since declined, and that of wheat taken place. The greatest quantity of tobacco ever produced in this country was 70,000 hogsheads in the year 1758. The exports from this state, in the year 1792, amounted to 3,549,499 dollars, and in 1796 to 5,268,615 dollars.

GOVERNMENT.] The present government of this province, as settled, in convention at Williamsburg, July 5th, 1776, is, that the legislative, executive, and judiciary departments be separate and distinct; that the house of delegates be chosen annually by the freeholders, two for each county, and for the district of West Augusta; and one representative for the city of Williamsburg and town of Norfolk. The senate to consist of twenty-four members, also chosen by the freeholders of the state, divided into twenty districts. The executive is a governor and privy council, of eight members, chosen annually by the joint ballot of the general assembly of the state, who also choose the delegates to congress, the judges, and other law officers, president, treasurer, secretary, &c. justices, sheriffs, and coroners, commissioned by the governor and council.

RELIGION.] The present denominations of Christians in Virginia are, Presbyterians, who are most numerous; Episcopalians, Baptists and Methodists. The first settlers were Episcopalians.

COLLEGES.] There is a college at Williamsburg, founded by King William, and called William and Mary College. That monarch gave two thousand pounds towards building it, and twenty thousand acres of land, with power to purchase and hold lands to the value of two thousand pounds a year, and a duty of a penny per pound on all tobacco exported to the other plantations. There is a president, six professors, and other officers, who are always appointed by the gover-

* A traveller through Virginia observes: 'Three or four matches were advertised in the public prints at Williamsburg; and I was witness to five in the course of my travels from that to Port-Royal.'

rors, or visitors. The academy in Prince Edward county has been erected into a college by the name of Hampden Sidney college. There are besides a number of academies in different parts of Virginia: one at Alexandria, one at Norfolk, one at Hanover, and others in other places.

HISTORY.] This is the first country which 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 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 to 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 Chesapeake Bay, they were met by lord Delaware, with a squadron loaded with provisions, and with every thing necessary for their relief and defence. At his persuasion they returned: by his advice, prudence, and winning behaviour, the internal 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 to England. He left behind him, however, his son as deputy; with sir Thomas Gates, sir George Sommers, the honourable George Percy, 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 Berkeley, 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 in trade, became very popular, and threw every thing into confusion. His death, however, restored peace and unanimity.

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 subject to a governor and council appointed by the king of Great Britain. As the inhabitants increased, 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 were appointed, during pleasure, by the crown; they were styled honourable, and answered in some measure to the house of peers in the British constitution. The lower house was the guardian of the people's liberties. And thus, with a governor representing the king, an upper and lower house of assembly, this government bore a striking resemblance to our own. When any bill had passed the two houses, it came before the governor, who gave his assent or negative as he thought proper. It now acquired the force of a law, until it was transmitted to England, and his majesty's pleasure known on that subject. The upper house of assembly acted not only as a part of the legislature, but also as privy council to the governor, without whose concurrence he could do nothing of moment; it sometimes acted as a court of chancery.

KENTUCKY.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 250 } Breadth 200 }	between } 81 and 89 west longitude } 31-30 and 39-30 north latitude	} 50,000

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED on the north-west by the river Ohio; west, by Cumberland river; south, by North Carolina; east, by Sandy river, and a line drawn due south from its source, till it meets the northern boundary of North Carolina.

Kentucky was originally divided into two counties, Lincoln and Jefferson. It has since been subdivided into the following fourteen:

<i>Counties.</i>	<i>Chief Towns.</i>
Jefferson, at the falls of the Ohio	Louisville
Fayette	Lexington
Bourbon	Bourbon
Mercer	Harodsburgh
Nelson	Bardstown
Maddison	Milford
Lincoln	
Woodford	Versailles
Mason	Washington
Washington	
Clarke	Winchester
Scott	
Logan	
Franklin	Frankfort

RIVERS.] The Ohio bounds Kentucky, on the north-western side, in its whole length; and the branches of this river water and fertilize

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the country in every part. The principal of these are the Sandy, Licking, Kentucky, Salt, Green, and Cumberland rivers, which receive on every side numerous streams of different magnitudes.

CLIMATE.] The climate is healthy and delightful, some few places in the neighbourhood of ponds and low grounds excepted. The inhabitants do not experience the extremes of heat and cold; none of the neighbouring states enjoying so constant a temperature. The winter, which begins about Christmas, is never longer than three months, and is commonly but two; and is so mild that cattle can subsist without fodder.

METALS, MINERALS.] There are some iron mines in this state, but only one of them, according to the latest accounts, is worked. Iron ore, lime-stone, and numerous unexplored mines of coal are nearly the only mineral substances observed here.

SOIL, PRODUCE.] The soil is extremely fertile: the lands of the first rate are too rich for wheat, and will produce 50 and 60, and in some instances, 100 bushels of good corn an acre. In common the land will produce 30 bushels of wheat or rye an acre. Barley, oats, flax, hemp, and vegetables of all kinds common in this climate yield abundantly. Cotton is with difficulty brought to perfection, but the soil appears to be peculiarly suitable to tobacco.

ANIMALS.] Here are buffaloes, bears, deer, elks, and many other animals common to the United States, and others entirely unknown to them. The rivers abound in the finest fish: salmon, roach, perch, eel, and all kinds of hook-fish. The paroquet is common here; as is the ivory-bill woodcock, of a whitish colour, with a white plume: the bill is pure ivory. Here is an owl like ours, but different in vociferation. It makes a surprising noise, like a man in distress.

NATURAL CURIOSITIES.] The banks or rather precipices of the rivers Kentucky and Dick may be reckoned among the natural curiosities of this country. Here the astonished eye beholds 300 or 400 feet of solid perpendicular rock, in some parts of the lime stone kind, and in others of fine white marble, curiously chequered with strata of astonishing regularity. Caves are found amazingly large, in some of which you may travel several miles under a fine lime-stone rock, supported by curious arches and pillars. In most of them run streams of water. Near Lexington are to be seen curious sepulchres full of human skeletons. There are three springs or ponds of bitumen near Green river, which discharge themselves into a common reservoir, and, when used in lamps, answer all the purposes of the finest oil.* At a salt spring near the Ohio river very large bones have been found, far surpassing the size of any species of animals now in America: the head appears to have been considerably above three feet long. Dr. Hunter said it could not be the elephant, and that, from the form of the teeth, it must have been carnivorous, and belonging to a race of animals now extinct. Specimens have been sent to France and England. What animal this is, and by what means its remains are found in these regions (where none such now exist), are very difficult questions, and variously resolved. The variety of conjectures only serves to show the futility of all.

POPULATION.] The number of inhabitants in this country has increased, by emigration from the other states, with surprising rapidity. Before the year 1782, they did not exceed 3000. In 1790 they

* Morse's American Geography, p. 407.

amounted to 73,677, of whom 12,430 were slaves. At the general census in 1800, they were found to be 220,960, including 40,343 slaves; and according to M. Michaux, a late French traveller in this part of America, they were estimated in August, 1802, when he was at Lexington, in this state, at 250,000, including negroes.*

CHIEF TOWNS.] Kentucky as yet contains no very large towns; the principal are Lexington, Louisville, Washington, and Frankfort. Lexington contains nearly 300 houses, and about 3000 inhabitants. Frankfort, which is now the seat of government, is less populous.

TRADE.] Almost all the commerce of Kentucky is carried on by the merchants of Lexington. Seven-tenths of the fabricated articles consumed in Kentucky, as well as in the rest of the United States, are imported from England. They consist principally of coarse and fine iron goods, cutlery, nails, and tin-ware; drapery, mercery, drugs, and fine pottery. Muslins, nankeen, tea, &c. are imported directly from India in American vessels; and they obtain coffee, and raw sugar of different qualities, from the West Indies. These are exchanged for the produce of the country, principally by barter, on account of the extreme scarcity of coin.†

GOVERNMENT.] By the constitution of this state, formed and adopted in 1792, the legislative power is vested in a general assembly, consisting of a senate and house of representatives; the supreme executive in a governor; the judiciary in the supreme court of appeals, and such inferior courts as the legislature may establish. The representatives are chosen annually by the people; the senators and governor are chosen for four years, by electors appointed for that purpose; the judges are appointed, during good behaviour, by the governor, with the advice of the senate. The number of representatives cannot exceed one hundred, nor be less than forty; and the senate, at first consisting of eleven, is to increase with the house of representatives, in the ratio of one to four.

RELIGION.] The baptists are the most numerous religious sect in Kentucky. There are several large congregations of Presbyterians, and some few of other denominations.

COLLEGES. LEARNING.] The legislature of Virginia, while Kentucky belonged to that state, made provision for a college in it, and endowed it with very considerable funds. This college has not flourished, and another has been established, the funds for the support of which have been furnished by liberal contributions. Schools are established in the several towns, and in general regularly and properly maintained. There are two printing-offices at Lexington, and a newspaper is published by each of them, which appears twice a week.

HISTORY.] The history of this state is the same with that of Virginia, of which it made a part till the year 1792, when it was erected into an independent state. It was first discovered in 1770 by some Virginian hunters, and the favourable account they gave of it, induced others to go thither. However there was not any fixed establishment formed till 1789. At that time this extensive country was not occupied by any Indian nation: they came there to hunt, but with one accord carried on a war of extermination against all who attempted to settle there. This was the cause of giving the

* Travels to the westward of the Alleghany mountains, by F. A. Michaux, M. D.

† Michaux.

name of *Kentucky* to the country, which, in the language of the primitive Americans, signifies the *land of blood*. When the whites appeared there, the natives gave a still more obstinate opposition to their establishment: for a long time they spread devastation and slaughter through the country, and, according to their custom, put their prisoners to death with the most cruel torments. This state of things lasted until 1783, at which time the American population having become too great for them to be able to penetrate into the heart of the establishments, they were reduced to attacking the emigrants on their road. In 1782, roads for carriages were begun to be opened through the interior of the country. Before that time there were nothing but tracts, passable only by people on foot or on horseback. Until 1788 the road through Virginia was the only one followed by the emigrants who came from the eastern states to Kentucky. They went first to the block-house, situate at Houlston, to the west of the mountains, and as the government of the United States did not furnish any escort, they waited at this place until their numbers were sufficient to pass safely through the *wilderness*, an uninhabited interval of a hundred and thirty miles, which they were obliged to cross before they arrived at Crab-orchard, the first post occupied by the whites.

“The enthusiasm for emigrating to Kentucky was at this time carried to such a height in the United States, that in some years as many as 20,000 emigrants went thither, and several of them even abandoned their property, if they were unable to dispose of it in a short time. The influx of new colonists soon raised the price of land in Kentucky, so that from two or three pence an acre, at which it had been sold, it rose rapidly to forty or fifty pence. Speculators took advantage of this infatuation. A multiplicity of illicit means were employed to make these lands sell to advantage. Even forged plans were fabricated, on which rivers were laid down, calculated for the establishment of mills, and for other uses. In this manner many ideal lots from 500 to 100,000 acres were sold all over Europe, and in some of the large towns of the United States.”*

NORTH CAROLINA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 450 } Breadth 180 }	between { 76 and 83 west longitude } { 34 and 37 north latitude }	32,000

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by Virginia on the north; by the Atlantic Ocean on the east; by South Carolina on the south; and the state of Tennessee on the west.

* Michaux.

DIVISIONS.] North Carolina is divided into eight districts, in which are fifty-eight counties.

<i>Districts.</i>	<i>Counties.</i>	<i>Districts.</i>	<i>Counties.</i>	
Edenton, 9 counties.	Chowan	Hillsborough, 7 counties.	Orange	
	Currituck		Chatham	
	Cambden		Granville	
	Pasquetank		Person	
	Perquimins		Caswell	
	Gates		Wake	
	Hertford		Randolph	
	Bertie		Rowan	
	Tyrrel		Cabarras	
Wilmington, 5 counties.	New Hanover	Salisbury, 9 counties.	Mecklenburg	
	Brunswick		Rockingham	
	Duplin		Iredell	
	Bladen		Surry	
	Onslow		Montgomery	
Newbern, 10 counties.	Craven		Morgan, 5 counties.	Stokes
	Beaufort			Guildford
	Carteret			Burke
	Johnson			Rutherford
	Pitt	Lincoln		
	Glasgow	Wilkes		
	Lenoir	Buncomb		
	Wayne	Cumberland		
	Hyde	Moore		
	Jones	Richmond		
Halifax, 7 counties.	Halifax	Fayette, 6 counties.	Robinson	
	Northampton		Sampson	
	Martin		Anson	
	Edgecomb		Fayette, Hillsborough, and Halifax, are called middle districts, and Salisbury and Morgan western districts. These five districts, beginning on the Virginia line, cover the whole state west of the three maritime districts before mentioned, and the greater part of them extend quite across the state from north to south.	
	Warren			
	Franklin			
	Nash			

The above three districts are on the sea-coast, extending from the Virginia line southward to South Carolina. They are called Eastern districts.

Fayette, Hillsborough, and Halifax, are called middle districts, and Salisbury and Morgan western districts. These five districts, beginning on the Virginia line, cover the whole state west of the three maritime districts before mentioned, and the greater part of them extend quite across the state from north to south.

RIVERS AND CAPES.] The principal rivers of North Carolina are the Chowan, and its branches, Roanoke, Tar, Neus, and Cape Fear, or Clarendon. Most of these and the smaller rivers have bars at their mouths, and the coast furnishes no good harbours except Cape Fear. The principal capes are, Cape Fear, Cape Look-out, and Cape Hatteras.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] The western hilly parts of North Carolina are as healthy as any part of America; but in the flat country near the sea-coast, the inhabitants, during the summer and autumn, are subject to intermitting fevers, which often prove fatal, as bilious or nervous symptoms prevail. North Carolina, in its whole width, for sixty miles from the sea, is a dead level. A great

eight districts, in

Counties.

Orange
 Chatham
 Granville
 Person
 Caswell
 Wake
 Randolph
 Rowan
 Cabarras
 Mecklenburg
 Rockingham
 Redell
 Curry
 Montgomery
 Stokes
 Guilford
 Burke
 Wutherford
 Lincoln
 Wilkes
 Stancomb
 Cumberland
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proportion of this tract lies in forests and is barren. On the banks of some of the rivers, particularly of the Roanoke, the land is fertile and good. The western hilly parts of the state are fertile, and full of springs and rivulets of pure water interspersed; through the other parts are glades of rich swamp, and ridges of oak-land, of a black fertile soil. Sixty or eighty miles from the sea, the country rises into hills and mountains, as in South Carolina and Georgia. Wheat, rye, barley, oats, and flax, grow well in the back hilly country; Indian corn, and pulse of all kinds, in all parts. Cotton and hemp are also considerably cultivated, and might be raised in much greater plenty. The cotton is planted yearly; the stalk dies with the frost. The labour of one man will produce 1000 pounds in the seeds, or 250 fit for manufacturing. The large natural growth of the plains in the low country is almost universally pitch-pine, which is a tall handsome tree, far superior to the pitch-pine of the northern states. The swamps abound with cypress and bay trees.

POPULATION.] The number of inhabitants in North Carolina, in 1790, was 393,751, of whom 100,571 were slaves; in 1801, 478,103, including 133,296 slaves.

CHARACTER AND MANNERS OF THE INHABITANTS.] 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 accidents or misfortunes, are rendered incapable of providing for themselves. The general topics of conversation among the men, when cards, the bottle, and occurrences of the day do not intervene, are negroes, the prices of indigo, rice, tobacco, &c.

Less attention and respect are paid to the women here than in those parts of the United States where the inhabitants have made a greater progress in the arts of civilised life. Indeed, it is a truth, confirmed by observation, that in proportion to the advancement of civilisation, in the same proportion will respect for women be increased; so that the progress of civilisation in countries, in states, in towns, and in families, may be remarked by the degree of attention which is paid by husbands to their wives, and by the young men to the young women.

The North Carolinians are accused of being rather too deficient in the virtues of temperance and industry; and it is said that a strange and very barbarous practice prevailed among the lower class of people, before the revolution, in the back parts of Virginia, North and South Carolina, and Georgia, called *gouging*:* but we have lately been informed, that in a particular county, where, at the court, twenty years ago, a day seldom passed without ten or fifteen boxing matches, it is now a rare thing to hear of a fight. If indeed the barbarous practice of gouging, which certainly is a disgrace to human nature, still subsists any where, it ought to be restrained by a positive

* The delicate and entertaining diversion, with propriety called *gouging*, is thus described. When two boxers are wearied with fighting and bruising each other, they come, as it is called, to *close quarters*, and each endeavours to twist his forefingers in the ear-locks of his antagonist. When these are fast clinched, the thumbs are extended each way to the nose, and the eyes gently turned out of their sockets. The victor for his expertness receives shouts of applause from the sporting throng, while his poor *eyeless* antagonist is laughed at for his misfortune.

law inflicting on the victor, and on all who aid and abet the savage combatants, the severest punishment.

CHIEF TOWNS.] Newbern is the largest town in North Carolina, and was formerly the residence of the governors. Edenton, Wilmington, Halifax, Hillsborough, Salisbury, and Fayetteville, have each in their turns been the seat of the general assembly. Raleigh, situate near the centre of the state, has lately been established as the metropolis.

TRADE.] A great proportion of the produce of the back country, consisting of tobacco, wheat, Indian corn, &c. is carried to market in South Carolina and Virginia. The southern interior counties carry their produce to Charles-town, and the northern to Petersburg in Virginia. The exports from the lower parts of the state are tar, pitch, turpentine, rosin, Indian corn, boards, scantling, staves, shingles, furs, tobacco, pork, lard, tallow, bees-wax, myrtle-wax, and some other articles, amounting in the year, ending September 30th, 1791, to 324,518 dollars. Their trade is chiefly with the West Indies and the northern states.

GOVERNMENT.] By the constitution of this state, which was ratified in December 1796, all legislative authority is vested in two distinct branches, both dependent on the people, viz. a senate and house of commons, which, when convened for business, are styled the general assembly. The senate is composed of representatives, one from each county, chosen annually by ballot. The house of commons consists of representatives chosen in the same way, two for each county, and one for each of the towns of Edenton, Newbern, Wilmington, Salisbury, Hillsborough, Halifax, and Fayetteville.

RELIGION.] The methodists and baptists are numerous and increasing in North Carolina; the Moravians have several flourishing settlements in the upper part of this state; and the friends or quakers have a settlement in New-garden, in Guildford county, and several congregations at Perquimins and Pasquotank.

UNIVERSITY, ACADEMIES] The general assembly of North Carolina, in 1789, passed a law, incorporating forty gentlemen, five from each district, as trustees of the university of North Carolina. The general assembly, in December 1791, loaned 5000l. to the trustees, to enable them to proceed immediately with their buildings. There is a very good academy at Warenton, another at Williamsborough, in Granville, and three or four others in the state of considerable note.

HISTORY.] The history of North Carolina is less known than that of any other of the states. From the best accounts that history affords, the first permanent settlement in North Carolina was made about the year 1710, by a number of Palatines from Germany, who had been reduced to circumstances of great indigence by a calamitous war. The infant colony remained under the general government of South Carolina till about the year 1729, when seven of the proprietors, for a valuable consideration, vested their property and jurisdiction in the crown; and the colony was erected into a separate province, by the name of North Carolina, and its present limits established by an order of George II.

SOUTH CAROLINA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Square Miles.
Length 200 } Breadth 125 }	between { 32 and 35 north lat. } { 78 and 81 west long. }	20,000

BOUNDARIES, DIVISIONS.] BOUNDED by North Carolina on the north; by the Atlantic Ocean on the east; and on the south and south-west by the Savannah river, and a branch of its headwaters, called Tugulo river, which divides this state from Georgia. South Carolina is divided into nine districts, in which are 38 counties, as follow:

	Counties.		Counties.
BEAUFORT DISTRICT, on the sea-coast, between Combahee and Savannah rivers. Chief town BEAUFORT.	Hilton Lincoln Granville Shrewsbury	ORANGE DISTRICT, west of Beaufort district. Chief town ORANGEBURGH.	Lewisburg Orange Lexington Winton
CHARLES-TOWN DISTRICT, between Santee and Combahee rivers. Chief town CHARLES-TOWN. W. long. 80-39. N. lat. 32-45.	Charles-town Washington Marion Berkeley Colleton Bartholomew Winyah	CAMDEN DISTRICT, west of George town district. Chief town CAMDEN.	Clarendon Richland Fairfield Cleremont Lancaster Kershaw Salem
GEORGE-TOWN DISTRICT, between Santee river and North Carolina. Chief town GEORGETOWN.	Williamsburg Kingston Liberty	NINETY-SIX DISTRICT, Chief town CAMBRIDGE.	Abbeville Edgefield Newbury Laurens
CHERAWS DISTRICT, west of Georgetown district. Chief towns are GRENVILLE and CHATHAM.		PINCKNEY DISTRICT. Chief town PINCKNEYSVILLE.	York. Chester Union Spartenburgh
WASHINGTON DISTRICT. Chief town PINCKENSVILLE.			Marlborough, Chesterfield, Darlington.
			Pendleton, Greenville.

FACE OF COUNTRY, MOUNTAINS.] Except the high hills of Santee, the Ridge, and some few other hills, this country is like what is called the upper country, one extensive plain, till you reach the Tryon and Hog-back mountains, 220 miles north-west of Charles-town. The elevation of these mountains above their base is 3840 feet, and above the sea-coast 4640. Their summit affords an extensive view of this state, North Carolina, and Georgia. The sea-coast is bor-

dered with a chain of fine islands, the soil of which is generally better adapted to the culture of indigo and cotton than the main land, and less suited to rice. The whole state, to the distance of eighty or a hundred miles from the sea, is low and level, almost without a pebble, and is little better than an unhealthy salt marsh; but the country, as you advance in it, improves continually; and at 100 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 on the flat sandy coast.

RIVERS AND CANALS.] South Carolina is watered by many navigable rivers, the principal of which are the Savannah, Edisto, Santee, Pedee, and their branches. The Santee is the largest river in the state. Those of a secondary size are the Wakkamaw, Black, Cooper, Ashepoo, and Combahee rivers. A canal of twenty-one miles in length, connecting Cooper and Santee rivers, is nearly completed, which it is estimated will cost 400,000 dollars; and another canal is soon to be begun, to unite the Edisto with the Ashley.

METALS, MINERALS.] South Carolina abounds with precious ores, such as gold, silver, lead, black-lead, copper, and iron; but it is the misfortune of those who direct their pursuits in search of them, that they are deficient in the knowledge of chemistry, and too frequently make use of improper menstruums in extracting the respective metals. There are likewise rock-crystal, pyrites, marble beautifully variegated, abundance of chalk, crude aluni, nitre, and vitriol.

CLIMATE AND AIR.] The climate of South Carolina agrees in general with that of North Carolina and Virginia. The weather, as in all this part of America, 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 in Virginia, flourish in South Carolina, for they have oranges in great plenty near Charles-town, and excellent in their kinds, both sweet and sour. The salubrity of the air is different in different parts of the state. Along the sea-coast, bilious diseases, and fevers of various kinds, are prevalent between July and October; one cause of which is the low marshy country, which is overflowed for the sake of cultivating rice. The upper country, situate in the medium between extreme heat and cold, is as healthful as any part of the United States.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] The soil of South Carolina may be divided into four kinds: first, the pine barren, which is valuable only for its timber. Interspersed among the pine barren are tracts of land free of timber, and every kind of growth but that of grass. These tracts are called *savannas*, constituting a second kind of soil, proper for grazing. The third kind is that of the swamps and low grounds on the rivers, which is a mixture of black loam and fat clay, producing, naturally, canes in great plenty, cypress bays, loblolly pines, &c. In these swamps rice is cultivated, which constitutes the staple commodity of the state. The high lands, commonly known by the name of oak and hickory lands, constitute the fourth kind of soil. The natural growth is oak, hickory, walnut, pine, and locust. On these

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lands, in the low country, Indian corn is principally cultivated; and in the back country, likewise, they raise tobacco in large quantities, wheat, rye, barley, oats, hemp, flax, and cotton. From experiments which have been made, it is well ascertained that olives, silk, and madder, may be as abundantly produced in South Carolina, and we may add in Georgia also, as in the south of France. There is little fruit in this state, especially in the lower parts of it. They have oranges, chiefly sour, and figs in plenty; a few limes and lemons, pomegranates, pears, and peaches; apples are scarce, and are imported from the northern states; melons, especially water-melons, are raised here in great perfection.

In South Carolina vegetation is incredibly quick. The climate and the soil have something in them so kindly, that the latter, when left to itself, naturally throws out an immense quantity of flowers and flowering shrubs. All the European plants arrive at a perfection here beyond that in which their native country affords them. With proper culture and encouragement, silk, wine, and oil, might be produced in these colonies; of the first we have seen samples equal to what is brought to us from Italy. Wheat in the back parts yields a prodigious increase.

From what we have observed, it appears that the vegetable productions of this state are wheat, rice, Indian corn, barley, oats, peas, beans, hemp, flax, cotton, tobacco, indigo, olives, oranges, 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 in 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 people of Charles-town, as well as the Indians, make canoes, which serve to transport provisions from place to place; and some of them are so large, that they will carry thirty or forty barrels of pitch, though formed of one piece of timber. Of these are likewise made curious pleasure boats. There are also a variety of medicinal roots; among others, the rattle-snake root, so famous among the Indians for the cure of poison; and the venereal root, which, under a vegetable regimen, will cure a confirmed lues.

ANIMALS.] The original animals of this country do not differ much from those of Virginia; but in both the Carolinas 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 200 or 300 cows is very common, but some have 1000 or upwards. These ramble all day at pleasure in the forest; 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.

POPULATION.] The number of inhabitants in South Carolina, in 1790, was 249,073, including 107,094 slaves. In 1801, according to the census then taken, they amounted to 345,591, including 146,151 slaves.

CHIEF TOWNS.] The principal towns of South Carolina are, Charles-town, George-town, Columbia, and Camden. Charles-town is by far the most considerable town on the sea-coast for an extent of 600 miles. It is the metropolis of South Carolina, and is admirably situated 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 200 tons burthen, loaded, from entering. The fortifications, which were strong, are now demolished; 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. In 1787, it was computed that there were 1600 houses in this city, and 15,000 inhabitants, including 5400 slaves. In 1791, there were 16,369 inhabitants, of whom 7684 were slaves. This city has often suffered much by fire: the last and most destructive happened in June 1796. The neighbourhood of Charles-town is beautiful beyond description.

Columbia is a small town in Kershaw county, on the east side of the Congarce, just below the confluence of the Saluda and Broad rivers. It is now the seat of government; but the public offices have, in some measure, been divided, for the accommodation of the inhabitants of the lower counties, and a branch of each retained in Charles-town.

TRADE.] The little attention that has been paid to manufactures occasions a vast consumption of foreign imported articles; but the quantity and value of their exports generally leave a balance in favour of the state, except when there have been large importations of negroes. The principal articles exported from this state are rice, indigo, tobacco, skins of various kinds, beef, pork, cotton, pitch, tar, rosin, turpentine, myrtle-wax, lumber, naval stores, cork, leather, snake-root, and ginseng. In the most successful seasons, there have been as many as 140,000 barrels of rice, and 1,300,000 pounds of indigo, exported in a year. In 1791, the exports from this state amounted to 1,693,267 dollars, and in 1795 to 5,998,492 dollars.

GOVERNMENT.] The government of South Carolina is vested in a governor, senate of thirty-seven, and a house of representatives of one hundred and twenty-four members.

RELIGION.] Since the revolution, by which all denominations were put on an equal footing, there have been no disputes between different religious sects. They all agree to differ.* The upper parts of this state are settled chiefly by presbyterians, baptists, and methodists. There are some episcopalians, but the presbyterians and independents are most numerous.

COLLEGES, ACADEMIES.] The literature of this state is but at a low ebb. Since the peace, however, it has begun to flourish. There are several respectable academies in Charles-town, one at Beaufort,

* Dr. Morse.

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on Port-Royal island, and several others in different parts of the state. Three colleges have lately been incorporated by law; one at Charles-town, one at Wainsborough, in the district of Camden, and the other at Cambridge in the district of Ninety-six. The legislature, in their session in January 1795, appointed a committee to inquire into the practicability of, and to report a plan for, the establishment of schools in the different parts of the state.

HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT.] The first English expeditions into Carolina were unfortunate. None of them had success 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 is now, the capital of the province. In time, however, 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 Grenville, however, thought fit to retain his seventh share, which continued in the possession of his family. For the more convenient administration of affairs, Carolina was divided into two districts, and two governments. This happened in 1723, 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 advanced with wonderful rapidity.

GEORGIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 600 }	between	{ 80 and 91 West long. }	60,000
Breadth 250 }		{ 30 and 35 North lat. }	

BOUNDARIES AND DIVISIONS. } BOUNDED by South Carolina and Tennessee on the north and north-east; by the Atlantic Ocean on the east; by Florida, on the south; and by the river Mississippi on the west. Georgia was formerly divided into parishes, and afterwards into three districts, but lately into two districts, viz. Upper and Lower, which are subdivided into 21 counties, as follow:

<i>Districts.</i>	<i>Counties.</i>	<i>Chief Towns.</i>	
Lower District	Camden	St. Patrick	
	Glyn	Brunswick	
	Liberty	Sunbury	
	Chatham	SAVANNAH	{ N. lat. 32. 3. W. lon. 28. 24.
	Burke	LOUISVILLE	
	Effingham	Waynesborough	
	M ^c Intosh	Ebenezer	
	Scriven	{ New Counties	
	Bryan		
	Richmond	AUGUSTA	
	Washington	Colphinton	
	Wilkes	Washington	
	Greene	Greensborough	
	Franklin	{ New Counties.	
Montgomery			
Hancock			
Oglethorp			
Elbert			
Lincoln			
Warren			
Jefferson			
Jackson			
Bullock			
Columbia			

ISLANDS AND RIVERS.] The whole coast of Georgia is bordered with islands, the principal of which are Skidaway, Wassaw, Ossahaw, St. Catherine's, Sapelo, Frederica, Jekyl, and Cumberland. The chief rivers of Georgia are the Savannah, which separates it from South Carolina, the Ogeechee, Alatamaha, Turtle River, Little Sitilla, Great Sitilla, St. Mary's, and Apalichicola.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] The climate of Georgia is extremely temperate: the winters there are very mild and pleasant. Snow is seldom or never seen; nor is vegetation often prevented by severe frosts. The soil and its fertility are various, according to situation and different improvements. The eastern part of the state, between the mountains and the ocean, and the rivers Savannah and St. Mary's, a tract of country more than 120 miles from north to south, and from 50 to 80 east and west, is level, without a hill or stone. At the distance of about 40 or 50 miles from the sea-board or salt marsh, the lands begin to be more or less uneven, until they gradually rise to mountains. The vast chain of the Allegany, or Apalachian mountains, which commence with Kaats Kill, near Hudson River, in the state of New York, terminate in Georgia, sixty miles south of its northern boundary. From the foot of this mountain spreads a wide extended plain of the richest soil, and in a latitude and climate well adapted to the cultivation of most of the productions of the south of Europe, and of the East Indies. Rice is at present the staple commodity of the state; tobacco, wheat, and indigo, are the other great articles of produce. Besides these, the country yields cotton, silk, Indian corn, potatoes, oranges, figs, olives, and pomegranates. Most of the tropical fruits would flourish in this state with

proper attention. The south-western parts of Georgia, and the parts of East and West Florida which lie adjoining, will probably, says Dr. Morse, become the vineyard of America. The forests consist of oak, hickory, mulberry, pine, and cedar.

POPULATION.] The number of inhabitants in Georgia, according to the census of 1790, amounted to 82,518, of whom 29,264 were slaves. The increase by emigration has been very considerable since; as in 1801, according to the census then taken, they amounted to 162,684, including 59,404 slaves.

CHIEF TOWNS.] The principal towns in Georgia, are Savannah, Augusta, and Louisville. Savannah, formerly the capital of the state, is commodiously situated both for inland and foreign trade, seventeen miles from the sea, on a noble river of the same name, which is navigable for boats upwards of 200 miles. Ships of 300 tons burthen can lie within six yards of the town, and close to a steep bank, extending near a mile along the river-side. The town is regularly built, in the form of a parallelogram, and contained, in 1787, 2,300 inhabitants. In the autumn of 1796 more than two-thirds of this town was consumed by fire.

Augusta, till lately the seat of government, is situated in a fertile plain on the south-west bank of the Savannah river, at a bend of the river, where it is nearly 500 yards broad. In 1787, it contained about 200 houses.

Louisville, now the metropolis of the state, is situated on the river Ogeechee, seventy miles from its mouth. The convention for the revision of the constitution sat in this town in May 1795, and appointed the records to be removed, and the legislature to meet here in future.

TRADE.] The chief articles of export from Georgia are rice, tobacco, indigo, sago, timber, naval stores, leather, deer-skins, snake-root, myrtle, and bees' wax, corn, and live-stock. The planters and farmers raise large stocks of cattle, from 1000 to 1500 head, and some more. The value in sterling money of the exports of Georgia, in 1755, was 15,744*l.*—in 1772, 121,677*l.*—in 1791, value in dollars 491,472; and in 1796, 950,158 dollars. In 1790, the tonnage employed in this state was 28,540, and the number of American seamen 11,225. In return for her exports, Georgia receives West-India goods, teas, wines, clothing, and dry goods of all kinds: from the northern states, cheese, fish, potatoes, cyder, and shoes. The imports and exports are principally to and from Savannah, which has a fine harbour, and is the place where the principal commercial business of the state is transacted.

GOVERNMENT.] The government of Georgia is vested in a governor, executive council of twelve, and house of assembly of seventy-two representatives.

RELIGION.] The different religious sects in Georgia are presbyterians, episcopalians, baptists, and methodists. They have but few regular ministers among them.

COLLEGES, ACADEMIES.] The literature of this state, which is yet in its infancy, is commencing on a plan, which, if properly carried into effect, must be attended with great advantages. A college with ample and liberal endowments has been instituted at Louisville. There is also provision made for the institution of an academy in each county of the state, to be supported from the same funds, and considered as parts and members of the same institution, under the general superintendance and direction of a president and board of

trustees, selected for their literary accomplishments from the different parts of the state, and invested with the customary powers of corporations. This institution is denominated *The University of Georgia*. The funds for the support of literary institutions are principally in lands, amounting in the whole to 50,000 acres, a great part of which is of the best quality, and at present very valuable; together with nearly 6,000*l.* sterling, in bonds, houses, and town lots in Augusta. Other public property, to the amount of 1000*l.* in each county, has been set apart for the purposes of building, and furnishing their respective academies.

The rev. Mr. George Whitfield founded an orphan-house at Savannah, which, after his death, was converted into a college for the education of young men designed chiefly for the ministry. The funds for its support are chiefly in rice-plantations and negroes. On the death of the countess of Huntingdon, to whom Mr. Whitfield bequeathed this property as trustee, the legislature, in the year 1792, passed a law vesting it in 13 commissioners, with powers to carry the original intention of Mr. Whitfield into execution; and in memory of the countess, the seminary is styled Huntingdon college.

HISTORY.] 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, was given to provide necessaries for 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 1000 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 control 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 number and opulence, they thought it hard they should be deprived of. From these corrupt sources arose all the bad humours which tore to pieces this constitution of government. Dissensions of all kinds sprang 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.

TENNESSEE.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		Degrees.
Length	360	between	{ 81 and 91 west longitude. 35 and 36 30 north latitude.
Breadth	105		

BOUNDARIES AND DIVISIONS.] BOUNDED, north, by Kentucky, and part of Virginia; east, by the Stone, Yellow, Iron, and Bald

Mountains, which divide it from North Carolina; south, by South Carolina and Georgia; west, by the Mississippi.*

This extensive territory is divided into three districts; Washington, Hamilton, and Mero; and fourteen counties, as follow:

<i>Counties.</i>		<i>Counties.</i>			
Washington district	}	Washington	Mero district	{	Davidson
		Sullivan			Sumner
		Greene			Robertson
		Carter			Montgomery
		Hawkins			
Hamilton district	}	Knox			
		Jefferson			
		Sevier			
		Blount			
		Grainger			

MOUNTAINS.] The Cumberland mountain, in its whole extent from the great Kanhaway to the Tennessee, consists of the most stupendous piles of craggy rocks of any mountain in the western country. In several parts of it, for miles, it is inaccessible, even to the Indians on foot. In one place particularly, near the summit of the mountain, there is a most remarkable ledge of rocks, of about thirty miles in length, and 200 feet thick, showing a perpendicular face to the south-east, more noble and grand than any artificial fortification in the known world, and apparently equal in point of regularity. Through this stupendous pile, according to a modern hypothesis, had the waters of all the upper branches of the Tennessee to force their way.

RIVERS.] The Tennessee, called also the Cherokee, and, absurdly, the Hogohege river, is the largest branch of the Ohio. It rises in the mountains of Virginia, latitude 37, and pursues a course of about 1000 miles south and south-west, nearly to latitude 34, receiving from both sides a number of large tributary streams. It then wheels about to the north, in a circuitous course, and mingles with the Ohio, nearly sixty miles from its mouth. The other rivers are the Cumberland, the Holston, and the Clinch.

METALS, MINERALS.] Iron ore abounds in the districts of Washington and Mero. Several lead-mines have been discovered. The Indians say that there are rich silver-mines in Cumberland mountain, but cannot be tempted to discover any of them to the white people. It is said that gold has been found here, but the place where is not known. Ores and springs strongly impregnated with sulphur are found in various parts.

CLIMATE, SOIL, PRODUCE.] The climate of Tennessee is temperate and healthful; the summers are very cool and pleasant in that part which is contiguous to the mountains that divide this state from North Carolina; but on the western side of the Cumberland mountains the heat is more intense, which renders that part better calculated for the production of tobacco, cotton, and indigo. The soil is in general luxuriant, and will afford every production which is the growth of any of the United States. The usual crop of cotton is 800lbs. to the acre, of a long and fine staple; and of corn from 60 to 80 bushels.†

* About seven and a half millions of acres of this tract only have been yet purchased from the Indians.

† Morse.

ANIMALS.] A few years since, this country abounded with large herds of wild animals, improperly called buffaloes; but the improvident or ill-disposed among the first settlers destroyed multitudes of them out of mere wantonness. They are still to be found on some of the southern branches of Cumberland river. Elk or moose are seen in many places, chiefly among the mountains. The deer are become comparatively scarce, so that no person makes a business of hunting them for their skins only. Enough of bears and wolves yet remain. Beavers and otters are caught in plenty in the upper branches of Cumberland and Kentucky rivers.

CURIOSITIES.] The *Enchanted Mountain*, about two miles south of Brass-town, is famed for the curiosities on its rocks. There are, in several rocks, a number of impressions resembling the tracks of turkeys, bears, horses, and human beings, as visible and perfect as they could be made in snow or sand. The latter were remarkable for having uniformly six toes each, one only excepted, which appeared to be the print of a negro's foot. One of these tracks was very large; the length of the feet sixteen inches, the distance of the extremities of the outer toes thirteen inches. One of the horse-tracks was of an uncommon size. The transverse and conjugate diameters were eight by ten inches; perhaps the horse which the great warrior rode. What appears most in favour of their being the real tracks of the animals they represent, is the circumstance of the horses' feet having slipt several inches, and recovered again, and the figures having all the same direction, like the trail of a company on a journey. If it be a *lusus nature*, the old dame never sported more seriously: if the operation of chance, perhaps there was never more apparent design. If it be the work of art, it may be intended to perpetuate the remembrance of some remarkable event of war, or some battle fought there. The vast heaps of stones near the place, said to be tombs of warriors slain in battle, seem to favour the latter supposition. The texture of the rocks is soft: the part on which the sun had the greatest influence, and which was the most indurated, could easily be cut with a knife, and appeared to be of the nature of the pipe-stone. Some of the Cherokees entertain an opinion that it always rains when any person visits the place, as if sympathetic nature wept at the recollection of the dreadful catastrophe which these figures were intended to commemorate.

POPULATION.] The population of this state in November 1795, was estimated at 77,262. By the census taken in 1800, it was found to have increased to 105,602, including 13,584 slaves.

CHIEF TOWNS.] Knoxville is the seat of government in Tennessee. It is regularly laid out, in a flourishing situation, and enjoys a communication with every part of the United States by post. It contains about 200 houses. The other principal towns are Nashville and Jonesborough.

TRADE.] This country furnishes many valuable articles of export, such as fine waggon and saddle horses, beef, cattle, ginseng, deer-skins, and furs, cotton, hemp, and flax, which may be transported by land; also iron, lumber, pork, and flour, which might be exported in great quantities, if the navigation of the Mississippi were opened; but there are few of the inhabitants who understand trade, or are possessed of proper capitals; of course, it is badly managed.

GOVERNMENT.] In 1785, in conformity to the resolves of congress, of April 23, 1784, the inhabitants of this district essayed to form

themselves into a body politic, by the name of the State of Frankland ; but differing among themselves, as to the form of government, and other matters, in the issue of which some blood was shed, and being opposed by some leading persons in the eastern parts, the scheme was given up, and the inhabitants remained in general peaceable until 1796, when a convention was held at Knoxville, and on the 6th of February the constitution of the state of Tennessee was signed by every member of it. Its principles promise to ensure the happiness and prosperity of the people.

RELIGION.] The presbyterians are the prevailing denomination of Christians in this district. They have a presbytery, called the Abingdon presbytery, established by act of synod, which, in 1788, consisted of twenty-three large congregations.

COLLEGES.] Besides private schools there are three colleges established by law : Greenville college in Green's county : Blount college at Knoxville, and Washington college in the county of that name. Here is likewise a society for promoting useful knowledge.

HISTORY.] The eastern parts of this district were explored by colonels Wood, Patton, Buchanan, captain Charles Campbell, and Dr. T. Walker (each of whom were concerned in large grants of land from the government), as early as between the years 1740 and 1750. In 1755, at the commencement of the French war, not more than fifty families had settled here, who were either destroyed or driven off by the Indians before the close of the following year. It remained uninhabited till 1765, when the settlement of it recommenced ; and, in 1773, the country as far west as the long island of Holstein, an extent of more than 120 miles in length from east to west, had become tolerably well peopled. In 1780, a party of about 40 families, under the guidance and direction of James Robertson (since brigadier-general Robertson of Mero district) passed through a wilderness of at least 300 miles, and founded Nashville. Their nearest neighbours were the settlers of the infant state of Kentucky, between whom and them was a wilderness of 200 miles. This territory then appertained to North Carolina, which in 1789 ceded it to the United States on certain conditions, and congress provided for its government.

TERRITORY NORTH-WEST OF THE OHIO.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 600 } Breadth 700 }	between { 37 and 50 north latitude 81 and 98 west longitude }	411,000

BOUNDARIES AND DIVISIONS.] THIS extensive tract of country is bounded, north, by part of the northern boundary line of the United States ; east, by the lakes, and Pennsylvania ; south, by the Ohio river ; west, by the Mississippi. Mr. Hutchins, the late geographer of the United States, estimates that this tract contains 263,040,000 acres, of which 43,040,000 are water.

That part of this territory in which the Indian title is extinguished by being purchased from them, and which is settling under the government of the United States, is divided into the following five counties:

<i>Counties.</i>	<i>When erected.</i>	<i>Counties.</i>	<i>When erected.</i>
Washington,	July 26, 1788	Knox,	June 20, 1790
Hamilton,	Jan. 2, 1790	Wayne,	1796
St. Clair,	April 27, 1790		

This territory has lately been admitted into the union, under the denomination of the State of the Ohio.*

RIVERS.] The Muskingum is a gentle river, confined by banks so high as to prevent its overflowing. It is 250 yards wide at its confluence with the Ohio, and navigable by large bateaux and barges to the Three Legs, and by small ones to the lake at its head. The Hocking resembles the Muskingum, though somewhat inferior in size. The Scioto is a larger river than either of the preceding, and opens a more extensive navigation. One hundred and seventy-six miles above the Ohio, and eighteen miles above the Missouri, the Illinois empties itself into the Mississippi, from the north-east, by a mouth about 400 yards wide.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, SOIL, PRODUCTIONS, &c.] The lands on the various streams which fall into the Ohio are interspersed with all the variety of soil that conduces to pleasantness of situation, and lays the foundation for the wealth of an agricultural and manufacturing people.

The sugar-maple is a most valuable tree. Any number of inhabitants may be constantly supplied with a sufficiency of sugar by preserving a few of these trees for the use of each family. One tree will yield about ten pounds of sugar a year, and the labour is very trifling.

Springs of excellent water abound in every part of this territory; and small and large streams, suitable for mills and other purposes, are interspersed, as if to prevent any deficiency of the conveniences of life.

No country is better stocked with wild game of every kind. Innumerable herds of deer and wild cattle are sheltered in the groves, and fed in the extensive bottoms that every where abound; an unquestionable proof of the great fertility of the soil. Turkeys, geese, ducks, swans, teal, pheasants, partridge, &c. are, from observation, believed to be in greater plenty here than the tame poultry are in any part of the old settlements in America.

The rivers are well stored with fish of various kinds, and many of them of an excellent quality. They are generally large, though of different sizes; the cat-fish, which is the largest, and of a delicious flavour, weighs from six to eighty pounds.

POPULATION.] According to the census taken by order of congress in the year 1800, the population of the north-western territory amounted to 45,369; that of what is called the Mississippi territory to 8850, and that of the Indian territory to 5611.

CHIEF TOWNS.] The chief towns in this territory are Marietta, Chillicothe, and Gallipoli. According to M. Michaux, Marietta is the largest, containing upwards of 200 houses; Chillicothe is the seat of government of the new state of the Ohio, and contains about 150 houses. The inhabitants of Gallipoli are almost entirely French: it contains about 100 houses.

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GOVERNMENT.] By an ordinance of congress, passed the 13th of July, 1787, this country, for the purposes of temporary government, was erected into one district, subject, however, to a division, when circumstances shall make it expedient.

In the same ordinance it is provided, that congress shall appoint a governor, whose commission shall continue in force three years, unless sooner revoked.

The governor must reside in the district, and have a freehold estate therein of 1000 acres of land, while in the exercise of his office.

Congress, from time to time, are to appoint a secretary, to continue in office four years, unless sooner removed, who must reside in the district, and have an estate of 500 acres of land while in office.

The same ordinance of congress provides that there shall be formed in this territory not less than three nor more than five states; and when any of the said states shall have 60,000 free inhabitants therein, such state shall be admitted by its delegates into the congress of the United States, on an equal footing with the original states, and shall be at liberty to form a permanent constitution and state-government, provided the constitution and government so to be formed shall be republican, and, so far as it can be consistent with the general interest of the confederacy, such admission shall be allowed at an earlier period, and when there may be a less number of inhabitants in the state than 60,000.

The settlement of this country has been checked for several years past by the unhappy Indian war. Of this, however, an amicable termination took place on the third of August, 1793, when a treaty was concluded; since which a trade has been opened, by a law of congress, with the Indians, on such a liberal footing as promises to give permanency to the treaty, and security to the frontier inhabitants.

The number of old forts found in this western country are the admiration of the curious. They are mostly of an oblong form, situated on strong well-chosen ground, and contiguous to water. When, by whom, and for what purpose, these were thrown up, is uncertain. They are undoubtedly very ancient, as there is not the least visible difference in the age or size of the timber growing on or within these forts and that which grows without; and the natives have lost all tradition respecting them.

LOUISIANA.

BOUNDARIES.] THIS extensive country, which has been lately ceded by Spain to the French government, and sold by the latter to the United States, is bounded on the east by the river Mississippi, by the gulf of Mexico on the south, by New Mexico on the east; to the north its boundaries are as yet undefined. Its dimensions consequently cannot be very exactly ascertained; but it has been estimated to extend 1200 miles in length, 610 in breadth, and to contain 460,000 square miles.

RIVERS.] Besides the Mississippi, which forms the eastern boundary of this country, Louisiana is watered by a number of fine rivers, among which are the Missouri, the St. Francis, the Natchitoches, the Adayes or Mexicano, the Rouge or Red river, and the Noir or Black river.

METALS, MINERALS.] Iron and lead mines are found here in sufficient quantity to afford an abundant supply of those necessary articles; and it has been said that on the river Rouge there are mines of silver as rich as any in Mexico.

CLIMATE.] Louisiana is agreeably situate between the extremes of heat and cold. Its climate varies as it extends towards the north. The southern parts, lying within the reach of the refreshing breezes from the sea, are not scorched like those in the same latitudes in Africa; and its northern regions are colder than those of Europe under the same parallels, with a wholesome serene air.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] The soil is particularly adapted to hemp, flax, and tobacco, and indigo is a staple commodity. The timber is as fine as any in the world; and the quantities of live-oak, ash, mulberry, walnut, cherry, cypress, and cedar, are astonishing. The neighbourhood of the Mississippi furnishes the richest fruits in great variety; and the soil, with little cultivation, would produce grain of every kind in the greatest abundance.

CHIEF TOWNS.] New Orleans is the capital of this country. It was built by the French in 1720 under the regency of the duke of Orleans. In 1788 there were 1100 houses in this town; but in the month of March of that year they were reduced by a dreadful fire to 200. The town has since been rebuilt. It stands on the east bank of the Mississippi, 105 miles from its mouth: in lat. 30°, 2', N. long. 89°, 50' W.

In the northern part of Louisiana, about 45 miles from the mouth of the river Ohio, a settlement was commenced, some years ago, conducted by colonel Morgan of New Jersey, under the patronage of the king of Spain. A city was proposed to be built, called New Madrid, and a street 120 feet wide, on the bank of the Mississippi, laid out; but the building of this city either advances very slowly, or the plan has been abandoned.

TRADE.] The chief articles of exportation are indigo, cotton, rice, beans, wax, and lumber.

HISTORY.] The Mississippi, on which this country is situate, was first discovered by Ferdinand de Soto, a Spaniard, in 1541; but no settlement was attempted till the latter end of the next century. In the year 1682, M. de la Salle, a Frenchman, travelled through it, and, on his return to France, gave such a flattering account of the country, and the advantages that might be expected to accrue from settling a colony in it, that Louis XIV. was induced to establish a company for that purpose. The attempt, however, had very little success, and in 1763 Louisiana was ceded to Spain. By late treaties it has been again restored to the French, by whom it has been sold to the United States, to whose territory it now appertains.

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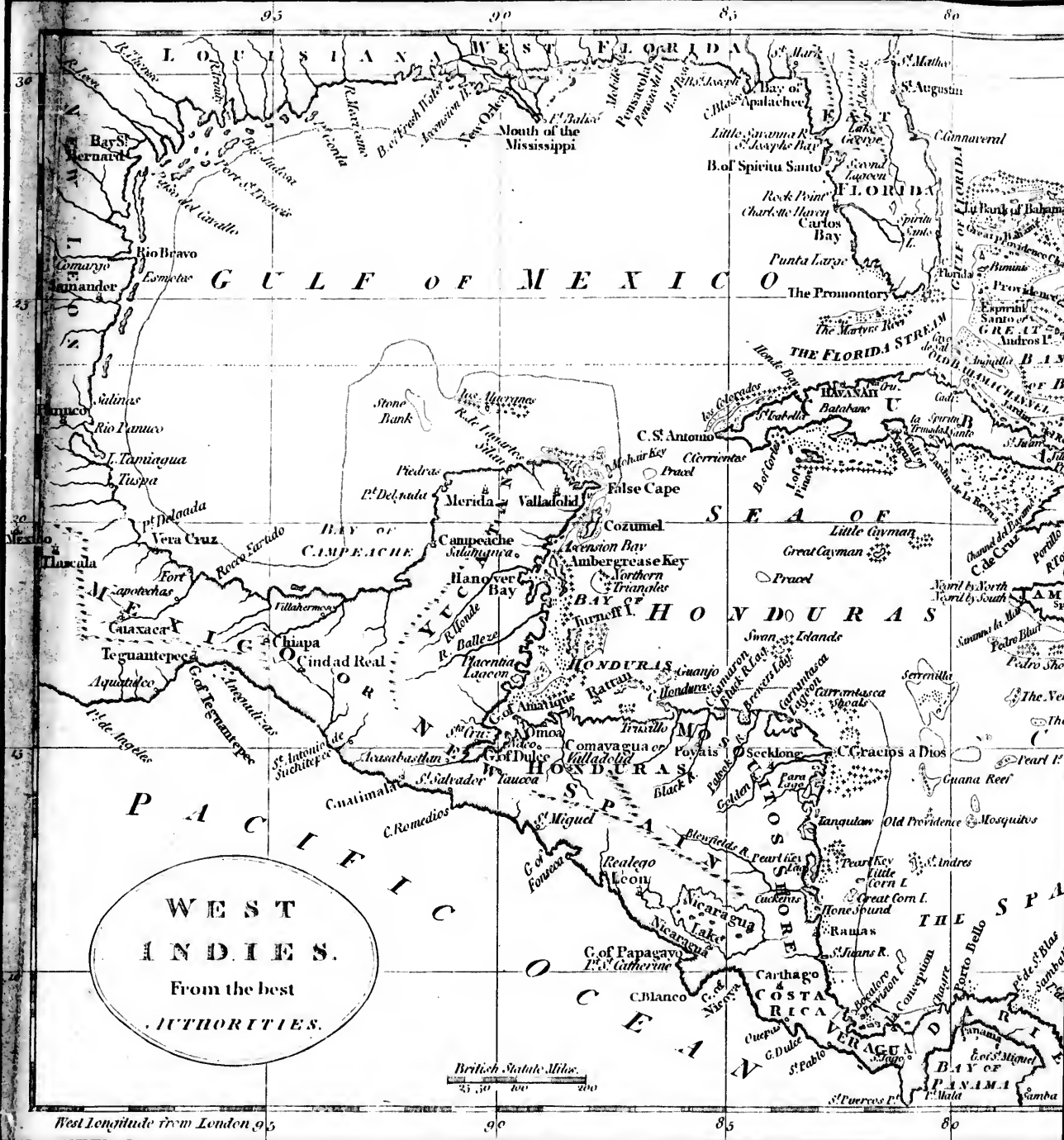
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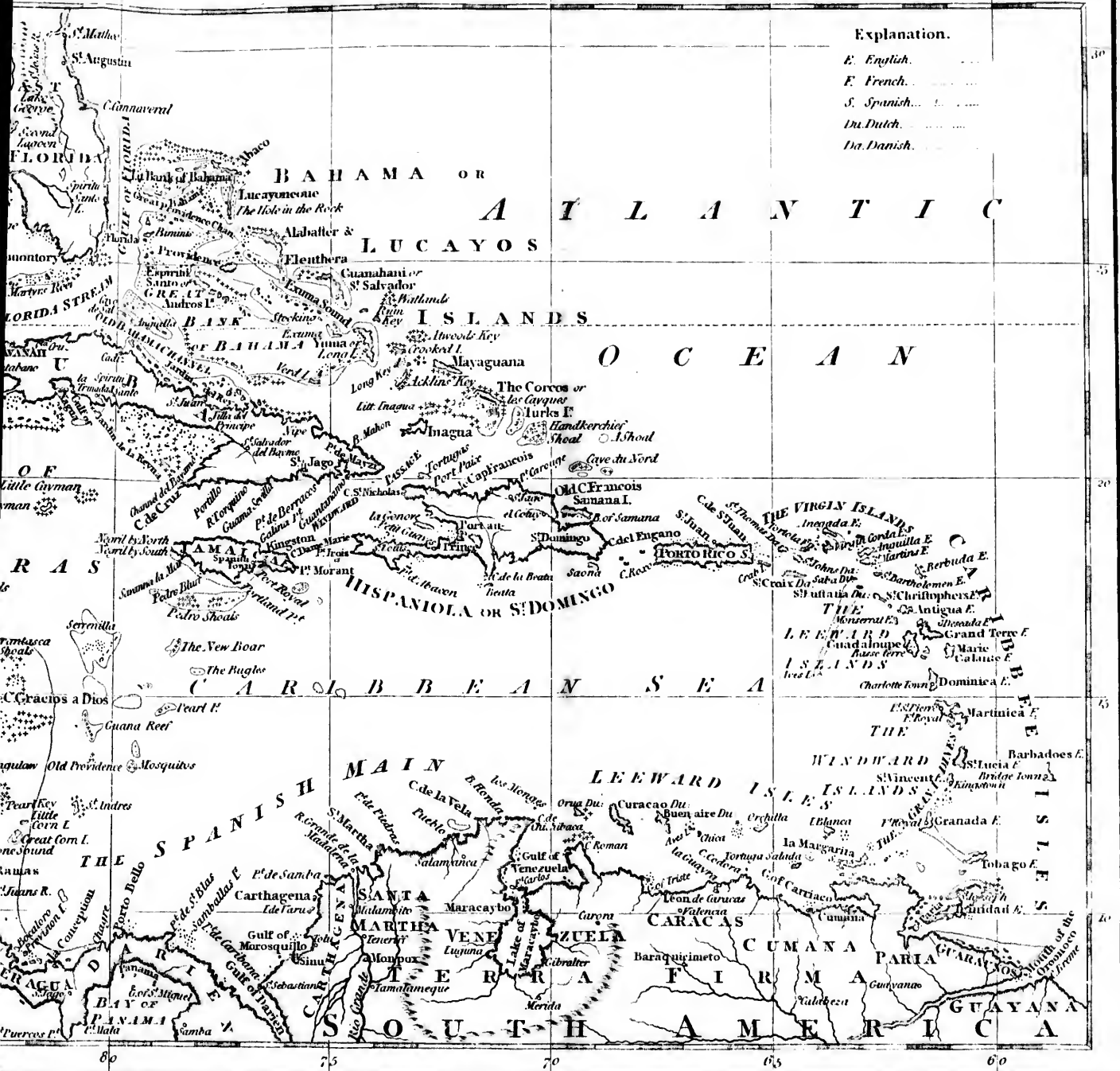
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Explanation.

- E. English.
- F. French.
- S. Spanish.
- Du. Dutch.
- Da. Danish.

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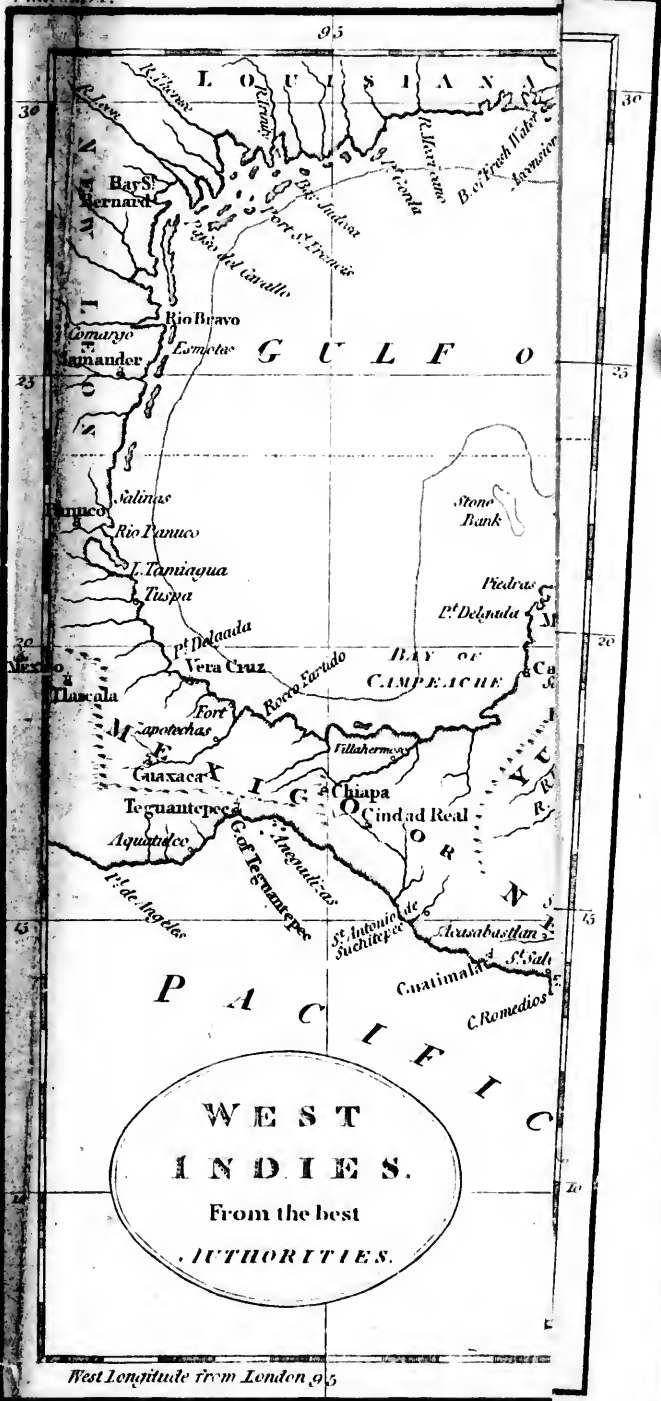
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WEST INDIES.

WE have already observed, that between the two continents of America lie a multitude of islands which we call the West Indies, and which, such as are worth cultivation, now belong to five European powers, 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 by what we perceive at home, we shall, to avoid repetitions, speak of them in general, and mention 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 the sun goes quite over their heads, passing beyond them to the north, they are continually subjected to the extreme of a 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 the cultivator to attend to his business, 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 the centre, towards the sea, to all points of the compass at once.

In the same manner, when the sun advances towards the tropic of Cancer, and becomes vertical, he draws after him such a vast body of clouds, as shield the earth from his direct beams; and dissolving into rain, cool the air, and refresh the country, thirsty 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, the rivers which have their source within the tropics swell and overflow their banks at a certain season; but so mistaken were the ancients in their idea of the torrid zone, that they imagined it to be dried and scorched up with a continued 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 large and heavy.

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 from the climate; these destroy, at a stroke, the labours of many years, and prostrate the hopes of the planter, often just at the moment when he thinks

* See Watson's Journey across the Isthmus of Darien.



himself out of the reach of fortune. The hurricane 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 wind-mills 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 irresistible violence.

The grand staple commodity of the West Indies is sugar: this commodity was not 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 agreed whether the cane from which this substance is extracted, be a native of America, or brought thither, to their colony of Brasil, by the Portuguese, from India and the coast of Africa; but, however that may be, in early times 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 and least cloying sweet in nature, and, sucked raw, has proved extremely nutritive and wholesome. From the melasses, rum is distilled, and from the scummings of sugar a meaner spirit is procured. Rum finds its market in North America, where it is consumed by the inhabitants, or employed in the African trade, or distributed from thence to the fishery of Newfoundland, and other parts, besides what comes to Great Britain and Ireland. However, a very great quantity of melasses 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 the cattle; and the refuse of the cane, after grinding, serves for fire; so that no part of this excellent plant is without its use.

It is computed that, when things are well managed, the rum and melasses 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*. There are, however, no parts of the world in which great estates are made in so short a time, from the productions of the earth, as in the West Indies. The produce of a few good seasons generally provides 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 over-

seers under him in proportion to the extent of the plantation; one to about thirty negroes, with a salary of about 40l. 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 rent, and the keeping up repairs and stock. The estate is generally estimated to such a tenant at half the net 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 a certain portion of Guinea and 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, and a blanket; and the profit of their labour yields 10l. or 12l. annually. The price of men negroes, upon their first arrival, is from 46 to 50l. women and grown boys 20s. less; but such negro families as are acquainted with the business of the islands generally bring above 60l. upon an average one with another; and there are instances of a single negro man, expert in business, bringing 150 guineas; and the wealth of a planter is generally computed from the number of slaves he possesses.

To particularise 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 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 carry 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.

The present state of the population in the British West Indies appears to be about 65,000 whites, and 455,000 blacks. There is likewise in each of the islands a considerable number of mixed blood, and native blacks of free condition. In Jamaica they are reckoned at 10,000; and they do not fall short of the same number in all the other islands collectively taken. The whole inhabitants, therefore, may properly be divided into four great classes: 1. European whites; 2. Creole or native whites; 3. Creoles of mixed blood and free native blacks; 4. Negroes in a state of slavery.

The islands of the West Indies lie in the form of a bow, or semicircle, 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 dis-

tinguish them into Windward and Leeward Islands, with regard to the usual courses of ships from Old Spain, or the Canaries, to Carthageua, or New Spain and Portobello.—The geographical tables and maps distinguish them into the great and little Antilles.

JAMAICA.] This island, which is the first belonging to Great Britain, and also the most important that we arrive at after leaving Florida, lies between the 76th and 79th degrees of west longitude from London, and between 17 and 18 north latitude. From the east and west it is in length about 140 miles, and in the middle about 60 in breadth, growing less towards each end, in the form of an egg. It contains 4,050,000 acres, of which 900,000 were planted in 1675; and in November 1789 there were no more than 1,907,589 acres located, or taken up by grants from the crown.

This island is intersected with a ridge of steep rocks, heaped 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 continually hang on the mountains; and 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 of pure wholesome waters, 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 chain of mountains are ridges of lower ones, which diminish as they remove from it. On these coffee grows in great plenty. The valleys or plains between those 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, excessively hot, and unfavourable to European constitutions; but the cool sea-breezes, which set in every morning at ten o'clock, render the heat more tolerable: and the air upon the high grounds is temperate, pure and cooling. 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. During the months of May and October, the rains are extremely violent, and continue sometimes for a fortnight together. 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, which, excepting the bilious and yellow fever, is one of the most terrible endemial distempers of Jamaica.

Sugar is the principal and most valuable production of this island. Cocoa was formerly cultivated in it to a 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 a most virulent poison; the mahogany, in such use with our cabinet-makers, and of the most valuable quality; but this wood begins to wear out, and of late is very dear: excellent cedars, of a large size, and durable; the cabbage-tree, remarkable for the

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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 natives, 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 red-wood, to the dyers; and lately the log-wood. The indigo plant was formerly much cultivated; and the cotton tree is still so. No sort of European grain grows here; they have only maize or Indian-corn, Guinea-corn, peas of various kinds, but none of them resembling ours, with variety of roots. Fruits, as has been already observed, grow in great plenty; citrons, Seville and China oranges, common and sweet lemons, limes, shadocks, pomegranates, mamees, soursops, papas, pine-apples, custard-apples, star-apples, prickly pears, allicada-pears, melons, pompions, guavas, and several kinds of berries, also garden vegetables in great plenty and good. Jamaica likewise supplies the apothecary with guaiacum, sarsaparilla, china, cassia, and tamarinds. 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 exceedingly sweet and delicate. Their horses are small, mettlesome, and hardy. 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 paroquets, pelicans, snipes, teal, Guinea-hens, geese, ducks, and turkeys; the humming-bird, and a great variety of others. The rivers and bays abound with fish. The mountains breed numerous adders, and other noxious animals, as the fens and marshes do the guana and the gallewasp; but these last are not venomous. Among the insects are the ciror, or chegoe, which eats into the nervous or membranous parts of the flesh of the negroes, and sometimes of the white people. 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 been in the body, they pick them out with a needle, or point of a penknife; taking care to destroy the bag entirely, that none of the breed, which are like nits, may be left behind. They sometimes get into the toes, and eat the flesh to the very bone.

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 Penn 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 British 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.

Jamaica is divided into three counties, Middlesex, Surry, and Cornwall, which contain, in the whole, twenty parishes. The town of Port-Royal, which now has not above 200 houses, 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 of containing a thousand sail of large ships, and of such depth as to allow them to load and unload with the greatest ease, induced the inhabitants 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 inconsiderate bravery, and then spent their fortune in this capital with an 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, so 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 wrecked in the harbour; and the Swan frigate, which lay in the dock to careen, was carried over the tops of 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 1722, 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 remove to the opposite side of the bay, where they built Kingston, which has become the capital of the island. It consists of upwards of sixteen hundred houses, many of them handsomely built, and, in the taste of these islands, as well as the neighbouring continent, one story high, with porticoes, and every conveniency for a comfortable habitation in that climate. The number of inhabitants is between 26 and 27,000. Kingston now ranks as a city, having been incorporated by charter bearing date January 12, 1803. Not far from Kingston stands St. Jago de la Vega, or Spanish-Town; which, though at

present inferior to Kingston, not containing more than 3000 inhabitants, was once the capital of Jamaica, and is still the seat of government, and the place where the courts of justice are held.

On the 3d of October, 1780, was a dreadful hurricane, which almost overwhelmed the little sea port town of Savanna la Mar, and part of the adjacent country. Very few houses were left standing, and a great number of lives were lost. Much damage was also done, and many persons perished, in other parts of the island.

The number of white inhabitants in this island in 1787 was 30,000; freed negroes 10,000; maroons 1400; and slaves 250,000; in all 304,000. The value of this island as British property is estimated as follows; 250,000 negroes, at 50l. sterling each, twelve millions and a half; the landed and personal property, and buildings to which they are appurtenant, twenty-five millions more; the houses and property in the towns, and the vessels employed in trade, one million and a half; in all thirty-nine millions. The exports of Jamaica for one year, ending the 5th of January, 1788, amounted in sterling money to 2,136,421. 17s. 3d. In 1787, the exports to the United States amounted to 60,095l. 18s. and importations from the United States to the value of 90,000l.

The whole produce of the island may be reduced to these heads: First, sugars, of which article was exported to Great Britain in 1787, 824,706 cwt. In 1790, 1,185,519 cwt. 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, staves, planks, pitch, and tar, which they have from hence. 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, melasses, 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. According to the late testimony of a respectable planter in Jamaica, that island has 280,000 acres in canes, of which 210,000 are annually cut, and make from 68 to 70,000 tons of sugar, and 4,200,000 gallons of rum. Fourth, cotton, of which they send out two thousand bags. The indigo, formerly much cultivated, is now inconsiderable; but some cocoa and coffee are exported, with a considerable quantity of pepper, ginger, drugs for dyers and apothecaries, sweet-meats, mahogany, and manchined 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 carry on a vast and profitable trade in negroes, and all kinds of European goods.

BARBADOES.] This island, the most easterly of all the Caribbees, is situate in 59 degrees west long. and 13 degrees north lat. It is 21 miles in length, and in breadth 14. It contains 106,470 acres of land, most of which is under cultivation; and is divided into five districts and eleven parishes, and contains four towns: Bridgetown, the capital, where the governor resides; Ostins, or Charles town; St. James, formerly called the Hole; and Speight's-town. 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 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. Those prospects, together with the disputes between the king and parliament, which were 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 50,000 whites, and a much greater number of negroes 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 was supposed that their number amounted to 100,000, which, together with 50,000, make 150,000 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 400 sail of ships, one with another, of 150 tons, in their trade. Their annual exports, in sugar, indigo, ginger, cotton, and citron-water, were 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. In 1786 the numbers were, 16,167 whites; 838 free people of colour; and 62,115 negroes. Their commerce consists in the same articles as formerly, though they deal in them to less extent. The exports on an average of the years 1784, 1785, 1786, were 9554 hogsheads of sugar; 5448 puncheons of rum; 6320 bags of ginger; 8331 bags of cotton, exclusive of small articles, as aloe, sweetmeats, &c. In 1787, 243 vessels cleared outwards, and the London market price of their cargoes amounted to 539,605*l.* 1*l.* 10*s.* of which the value exported to the United States was 23,217*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.* Here is a college (the only one in the West Indies) 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. On the 10th of October, 1780, a dreadful hurricane occasioned vast devastation in Barbadoes: great numbers of dwellings were destroyed, not one house in the island was wholly free from damage, many persons were buried in the ruins of the buildings, and many more were driven into the sea, and there perished. By this storm no less than 4,326 of the inhabitants lost their lives; and the damage done to the property was computed at 1,320,564*l.*

[*St. CHRISTOPHER's.*] This island, commonly called by the sailors *St. Kitt's*, is situate in 62 degrees west long. and 17 degrees north lat. about 14 leagues from Antigua, and is 20 miles long and

7 broad. It has its name from the famous Christopher Columbus, who discovered it for the Spaniards. That nation, however, abandoned it, as unworthy of their attention: and in 1626 it was settled by the French and English conjointly, but entirely ceded to the latter by the peace of Utrecht. Great quantities of indigo were formerly raised here. In 1770 the exports amounted to above 419,000*l.* sterling in sugar, melasses, and rum, and near 8000*l.* for cotton. Besides cotton, ginger, and the tropical fruits, it produced in 1787, 231,397 cwt of sugar, but in 1790 only 113,000 cwt. It is computed that this island contains 6000 whites, and 36,000 negroes. In February 1782 it was taken by the French, but was restored again to Great Britain by the treaty of 1783. The capital is Basseterre.

ANTIGUA.] Situate in 61 degrees west long. and 17 degrees north lat. is of a circular form, near 20 miles over every way. This island, which was formerly thought useless, is now preferred to any of the rest of the English harbours, being the best and safest as a dock-yard and an establishment for the royal navy. St. John's is the port of greatest trade; and this capital, which, before the fire in 1769, was large and wealthy, is the ordinary seat of the governor of the Leeward Islands. In 1774, the white inhabitants of Antigua of all ages and sexes were 2500, and the enslaved negroes 37,508.

NEVIS AND MONTSERRAT.] Two small islands, lying between St. Christopher's and Antigua, neither of them exceeding 18 miles in circumference. In the former of these islands the present number of whites is stated not to exceed 600, while the negroes amount to about 10,000; a disproportion which necessarily converts all such white men as are not exempted by age and decrepitude into a well-regulated militia, among which there is a troop consisting of fifty horse, well mounted and accoutred. English forces, on the British establishment, they have none. The inhabitants of Montserrat amount to 1300 whites, and about 10,000 negroes. The soil in these islands is pretty much alike, light and sandy, but, notwithstanding, fertile in a high degree; and their principal exports are derived from the sugar-cane. Both were taken by the French in the year 1782, but restored at the ensuing peace.

BARBUDA.] Situate in 18 degrees north lat. and 62 west long. 35 miles north of Antigua, is 20 miles in length, and 12 in breadth. It is fertile, and has an indifferent 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 1500.

ANGUILLA.] Situate in 19 degrees north lat. 60 miles north-west of St. Christopher's, is about 30 miles long and 10 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.

DOMINICA.] Situate in 16 deg. north lat. and in 62 west long. lies about half-way between Guadaloupe and Martinico. It is near 28 miles in length, and 16 in breadth: it received its name from being discovered by Columbus on a Sunday. The soil of this island is thin, and better adapted to the rearing of coffee than sugar; but the sides of the hills bear the finest trees in the West Indies, and the island is well supplied with rivulets of fine water. The French have always opposed our settling here, because it must cut off their

communication, in time of war, between Martinico and Guadaloupe. However, by the peace of Paris in 1763, it was ceded in express terms to the English. On account of its situation between the principal French islands, and Prince Rupert's Bay being one of the most capacious in the West Indies, it has been judged expedient to form Dominica into a government of itself, and to declare it a free port. It was taken by the French in 1778; but restored again to Great Britain by the peace of 1783.

St. VINCENT.] Situate in 13 deg. north lat. and 61 deg. west long. 50 miles north-west of Barbadoes, 30 miles south of St. Lucia, is about 17 miles in length, and 10 in breadth. It is extremely fruitful, being a black mould upon a strong loam, the most proper for the raising of sugar. Indigo thrives here remarkably well, but this article is less cultivated than formerly throughout the West Indies. Many of the inhabitants are Caribbeans, and many here are also fugitives from Barbadoes and the other islands. The Caribbeans were treated with so much injustice and severity, after this island came into possession of the English, to whom it was ceded by the peace of 1763, that they greatly contributed towards enabling the French to get possession of it again in 1779; but it was restored to Great Britain by the treaty of 1783.

GRANADA AND THE GRANADINES.] Granada is situate in 12 degrees north lat. and 62 degrees west long. about 30 leagues south-west of Barbadoes, and almost the same distance north of New Andalusia, on the Spanish Main. This island is 28 miles in length, and 13 in breadth. Experience has proved that the soil is extremely proper for producing sugar, coffee, tobacco, and indigo; and upon the whole it is 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 with numerous streams, which adorn and fertilise it. Several bays and harbours lie round the island, which render it very convenient for shipping; and it is not subject to hurricanes. St. George's bay has a sandy bottom, and is extremely capacious, but open. In its harbour or careening-place, one hundred large vessels may be moored with perfect safety. This island was taken from the French in 1762; confirmed to the English in 1763; taken by the French in 1779; and restored to the English in 1783. In 1795 the French landed some troops and raised an insurrection here, which was not finally quelled till June 1796.

TRINIDAD.] Situate between 59 and 62 deg. west long. and in 10 deg. north lat. lies between the island of Tobago and the Spanish Main, from which it is separated by the Straits of Paria. It is about 90 miles long, and 60 broad; and is an unhealthy 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. It was captured by the British arms in February 1797; and finally ceded to England by the treaty of Amiens.

VIRGIN ISLANDS.] A number of small islands between Porto Rico and the Leeward Caribbee islands, in about 18 deg. of north lat. The Spaniards gave them the name of the Virgin Islands in honour of the 11,000 virgins of the legend. They belong principally to the English and the Danes, though the Spaniards claim some small ones near Porto Rico. Tortola, the principal of those

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which belong to the English, is about 18 miles long and seven broad: it produces excellent cotton, sugar and rum. Virgin Gorda, another of these islands belonging to the English, is about the same size. The islands of St. Thomas, St. John, and St. Croix, which are a part of this groupe, belong to the Danes.

LUCAYOS, or BAHAMA ISLANDS.] The Bahamas are situate to the south of Carolina, between 12 and 27 degrees north lat. and 73 and 81 degrees west long. They extend along the coast of Florida quite down to the isle of Cuba; and are said to be 500 in number, some of them only mere rocks; but 12 of them are large, fertile, and in nothing different from the soil of Carolina: they are, however, almost uninhabited, except Providence, which is 200 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 Gulf of Bahama, or Florida. These islands were the first fruits 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 upon it, gave it the name of Providence. The English, observing the advantageous situation of these islands for a check on the French and Spaniards, attempted to settle on them in the reign of Charles II. Some unlucky incidents prevented this settlement from being of any advantage, and the Isle of Providence became a 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. The Spaniards captured these islands during the American war; but they were retaken by a detachment from St. Augustine, April 7, 1783.

SPANISH DOMINIONS IN NORTH AMERICA.

OLD MEXICO, OR NEW SPAIN.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 2000 } Breadth 600 }	between { 83 and 110 W. long. } { 8 and 30 N. lat. }	{ 318,000.

BOUNDARIES, DIVISIONS.] BOUNDED by New Mexico, or Granada, on the north; by the Gulf of Mexico, on the north-east; by Terra Firma, on the south-east; by the Pacific Ocean, on the south-west. It contains three audiences, viz.

Audiences.	Chief Towns.
1. Galicia, or Guadalajarra . .	{ Guadalajara Mexico, W. long. 100. N, lat. 19-25. Acapulco Vera Cruz Guatemala*
2. Mexico Proper	
3. Guatimala	

BAYS.] On the North Sea are the gulfs or bays of Mexico, Campeachy, Vera Cruz, and Honduras; in the Pacific Ocean, or South Sea, are the bays of Micoya and Amapalla, Acapulco, and Salinas.

WINDS.] In the Gulf 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 tropics. Near the coast, in the South Sea, they have periodical winds, viz. monsoons, and sea and land breezes, as in Asia.

RIVERS, LAKES.] This country has many large rivers, some of which run into the Gulf of Mexico, and others into the Pacific Ocean. Among the former are the Alvarado, the Coatzacoalco, and the Tabasco; among the latter is the Guadalaxara, or great river. The principal lakes are those of Nicaragua, Chappalan, and Pazaquaro; those of Tetzuco and Chalco occupy a great part of the vale of Mexico, which is the finest tract of country in New Spain. The waters of Chalco are sweet; those of Tetzuco brackish. These two lakes are united by a canal. The lower lake, or lake Tetzuco, was formerly 20 miles long and 17 broad; and, lying at the bottom of the vale, is the reservoir of all the waters from the surrounding mountains. The city of Mexico stands on an island in this lake.

METALS, MINERALS.] Mexico abounds in mines of gold and silver, of the latter of which it is said they reckon above 1000. Gold is also found in the brooks and rivers, as well as in the mines. The chief mines of gold are in Veragua and New Granada, bordering 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 parts 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 broken 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. It has been computed that the revenues of Mexico amount to 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.

* This city was swallowed up by an earthquake on the 7th of June, 1773, when eight thousand families instantly perished. New Guatimala is built at some distance, and is well inhabited.

The mountains of Mexico likewise abound in mines of iron, copper, and lead. Here are also found various kinds of precious stones; as emeralds, turquoises, amethysts, and a few diamonds. Mineral springs are likewise abundant.

CLIMATE, SOIL.] 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. Mexico produces also a prodigious quantity of sugar, especially towards the Gulf of Mexico, and the provinces of Guaxaca and Guatemala; so that here are more sugar-mills than in any other part of Spanish America. Cedar-trees and logwood abound about the bays of Campeachy and Honduras; the maho-tree also, which has a bark with such strong fibres that they twist and make ropes of it. They have also a tree which is called light-wood, being as light as cork, of which they make floats to carry their merchandise on the sea-coasts. But the two most valuable products of this country, next to its gold and silver, are cochineal and cocoa. The former 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 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 cocoa, of which chocolate is made, grows on a tree of a middling size, which bears a pod about the size and shape of a cucumber, containing the cocoa. The Spanish commerce in this article is immense; and such is the general consumption, as well as the external call for it, that a small garden of cocoa-trees 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 silks, but not in such quantity as to make any remarkable part of its export. Cotton is here in great abundance, and, on account of its lightness, is the common wear of the inhabitants.

ANIMALS.] Horses, asses, sheep, goats, hogs, dogs, and cats, have been transported into this country from the old continent, and have all multiplied. Horned cattle are found wild, in herds of from 30 to 40,000, and are killed merely for the sake of their hides. Among the native animals are the puma and jaguar, or American lion and tiger; the Mexican or hunchback dog, a kind of porcupine; wild cats, foxes, squirrels, and armadillos. The prodigious number of birds, their variety and qualities, have occasioned some authors to observe that, as Africa is the country of beasts, so Mexico is the

country of birds. It is said there are 200 species peculiar to this part of America.

POPULATION.] The population of Mexico has been estimated at 500,000 Spaniards, one million of negroes and mulattoes, and two millions of native Indians. The number of inhabitants in all the Spanish provinces in North America has been computed at about seven millions; of whom the Spaniards are supposed to amount to one million, the native Indians to four millions, and the persons of mixed races to two millions.

CHARACTER OF INHABITANTS.] 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 greater 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 constitute the praiseworthy 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 convenience, 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 and domestic virtues. The Indians, who, notwithstanding the devastations of the first invaders, remain in great numbers, are become, by continual oppressions and indignity, a dejected, timorous, and miserable race of mortals. The negroes here, like those in other parts of the world, are stubborn, hardy, and as well adapted for the slavery they endure as any human creatures can be. Such is the general character of the inhabitants, not only in Mexico, but the greatest part of Spanish America.

CITIES, CHIEF TOWNS, EDIFICES.] The city of Mexico, the capital of this part of Spanish America, is situate in the delightful vale of Mexico, on several small islands in the lake Tetzcuco. It is built with admirable regularity, the streets being straight and crossing each other at right angles. It is the see of an archbishop, and contains 20 churches and 22 monasteries and nunneries; there is also a tribunal of the inquisition, a mint and a university. All the public edifices, especially the churches, are magnificent, and the most profuse display of wealth is seen in every part of the city. The number of inhabitants, by a late accurate enumeration made by the magistrates and priests, exceeds 200,000.

Vera Cruz, situate on the Gulf of Mexico, is the great commercial port of New Spain. It is perhaps one of the most considerable places for trade in the world; being the centre of the American treasure, and the magazine for all the mechandize sent from New Spain, or that is transported thither from Europe. It is, however, unhealthy from the marshy ground in which it stands; most of the houses are of wood; and the inhabitants, it is said, do not exceed 3000.

Acapulco is situate on a bay of the Pacific Ocean, and is the chief port on this sea, the harbour being so spacious that several hundred ships may ride in it without inconvenience opposite to the town; on the east side is a high and strong castle, with guns of a large size. It is a place of great trade, in consequence of being the port from which the galleon annually sails for Manilla.

COMMERCE.] The trade of this country is immense. From the port of Vera Cruz, Mexico pours her wealth over the whole world; and receives in return the numberless luxuries and necessaries which Europe affords to her, and which the indolence of her inhabitants will never permit them to acquire for themselves. To this port (before the galleons were laid aside, and the subsequent new arrangements) the fleet from Cadiz, called the Flota, consisting of three men of war as a convoy, and fourteen large merchant ships, annually arrived about the beginning of November. Its cargo consisted 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, are almost the only advantages which Spain derives from her American commerce. When all the goods were landed and disposed of at La Vera Cruz, the fleet took in the plate, precious stones, and other commodities, for Europe. Some time in May they were ready to depart. From La Vera Cruz they sailed to the Havannah, in the isle of Cuba; which was the rendezvous where they met the galleons, another fleet, which carried on the trade of Terra Firma by Carthagena, and of Peru by Panama and Porto Bello. When all were collected, and provided with a convoy necessary for their safety, they steered 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 galleon, attended by a large ship as a convoy, annually arrived here. The cargoes of these ships (for the convoy, though in an under-hand manner, likewise carried goods) consisted of all the rich commodities and manufactures of the East. At the same time the annual ship from Lima, the capital of Peru, came in, and was 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 galleon's cargoes. Several other ships, from different parts of Chili and Peru, met upon the same occasion. A great fair, in which the commodities of all parts of the world were bartered for one another, lasted thirty days. The galleon then prepared for her voyage, loaded with silver, and such European goods as had been thought necessary. The Spaniards, though this trade was carried on entirely through their hands, and in the very heart of their dominions, were comparatively but small gainers by it. For as they allowed 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, permitted the Chinese merchants to furnish the greater part of the cargo of the galleon. Since 1748, however, the galleons have been laid aside; and smaller vessels, called register ships, employed. In 1764 monthly packets were established between Corunna and the Havannah. The trade to Cuba, as also to Yucatan and Campeachy, has been laid open to all Spain; and in 1774 a free

intercourse was permitted between Mexico and Peru. This liberal policy will, no doubt, considerably increase the trade and wealth of these countries.

GOVERNMENT.] The civil government of Mexico is administered by tribunals called Audiences, which bear a resemblance to the old 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 politics in whatever regards America, no officer is allowed to retain 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.

RELIGION.] The established religion of this country, and throughout Spanish America, is the Roman catholic, in all its bigotry and superstition. 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. 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.

HISTORY.] The history of Mexico has already been given in our account of the discovery and conquest of America.

NEW MEXICO INCLUDING CALIFORNIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 2000	between { 94 and 126 west longitude. 23 and 43 north latitude.	} 600,000.
Breadth 1400		

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED 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 FE, W. lon: 104, N. lat. 36.
South-east division	Apacheira - - -	St. Antonio
South division	Sonora - - -	Tuape
Western division	California, a peninsula	St. Juan

CLIMATE, SOIL.] 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, the heat is great in summer, particularly

towards the sea-coast; but in the inland country the climate is more temperate, and in winter even cold.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, PRODUCE.] The natural history of these countries is as yet in its infancy. The Spaniards themselves know little of them, and the little they know they are unwilling to communicate. 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 these countries nothing positive can be asserted. Their natural productions are undoubtedly sufficient 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 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 the coasts, might render it an invaluable acquisition to any industrious nation.

INHABITANTS, GOVERNMENT.] The Spanish settlements here are comparatively weak: though they are increasing 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 civilised life, and to raise corn and wine, which they now export pretty largely to Old Mexico. The inhabitants and government here do not materially differ from those of Old Mexico.

HISTORY.] 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.

EAST AND WEST FLORIDA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 600 } Breadth 400 }	between { 80 and 91 west longitude { 25 and 32 north latitude	} 60,000.

BOUNDARIES.] THIS country is bounded by Georgia on the north; by the Mississippi on the west; by the Gulf of Mexico on the south; and by the Bahama Straits on the east.

RIVERS.] The principal of these is the Mississippi, which is one of the finest rivers in the world, as well as the largest; for, including its turnings and windings, it is supposed to run a course of more than 3000 miles. The Mobile, the Apalachicola, and St. John's rivers, are also large and noble streams.

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METALS, MINERALS.] This country produces iron ore, copper, quicksilver, and pit-coal; amethysts, turquoises, and other precious stones, it is said, have also been found here.

CLIMATE, SOIL, PRODUCE.] The climate is little different from that of Georgia. The soil is various in different parts. East Florida, 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 large 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. This country also produces rice, indigo, and cochineal: mahogany grows on the southern parts of the peninsula, but inferior in size and quality to that of Jamaica.

ANIMALS.] Horses, cattle, sheep, and hogs, are numerous, especially in the western part of this country. Among the wild animals are the buffalo, panther, wild-cat, otter, racoon, flying squirrel, opossum, armadillo, and several kinds of serpents. Birds are in great variety and numerous; and the rivers abound in fish, but are, at the same time, infested with voracious alligators.

CHIEF TOWNS.] The chief town in West Florida is Pensacola, N. lat. 30-22, W. long. 87-20; which is situated 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 Gulf of Mexico; in which ships may lie in safety against any kind of wind, being surrounded by land on every side.

St. Augustine, the capital of East Florida, N. lat. 29-45, W. long. 81-12, 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 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.

GOVERNMENT.] The government is in general like that of the other Spanish colonies in America: but all the settlers from the United States, or other countries, are under the immediate orders of the military commandants, and subject to martial law, with an appeal, from stage to stage, up to the viceroy of Mexico.

HISTORY.] This country was discovered by Sebastian Cabot, in 1497. It has frequently changed masters, belonging alternately to the French and Spaniards. The French first formed a small establishment in Florida in 1564, from which they were driven in the following year by the Spaniards, who then began to form settlements themselves. At the peace of 1763 Florida was ceded to England, in exchange for the Havannah, which had been taken from the Spaniards. While it was in possession of the English, it was divided into East and West Florida, separated by the Apalachicola. During the American war, in the year 1781, both the Floridas were reduced by the Spaniards, to whom they were confirmed by the peace of 1783.

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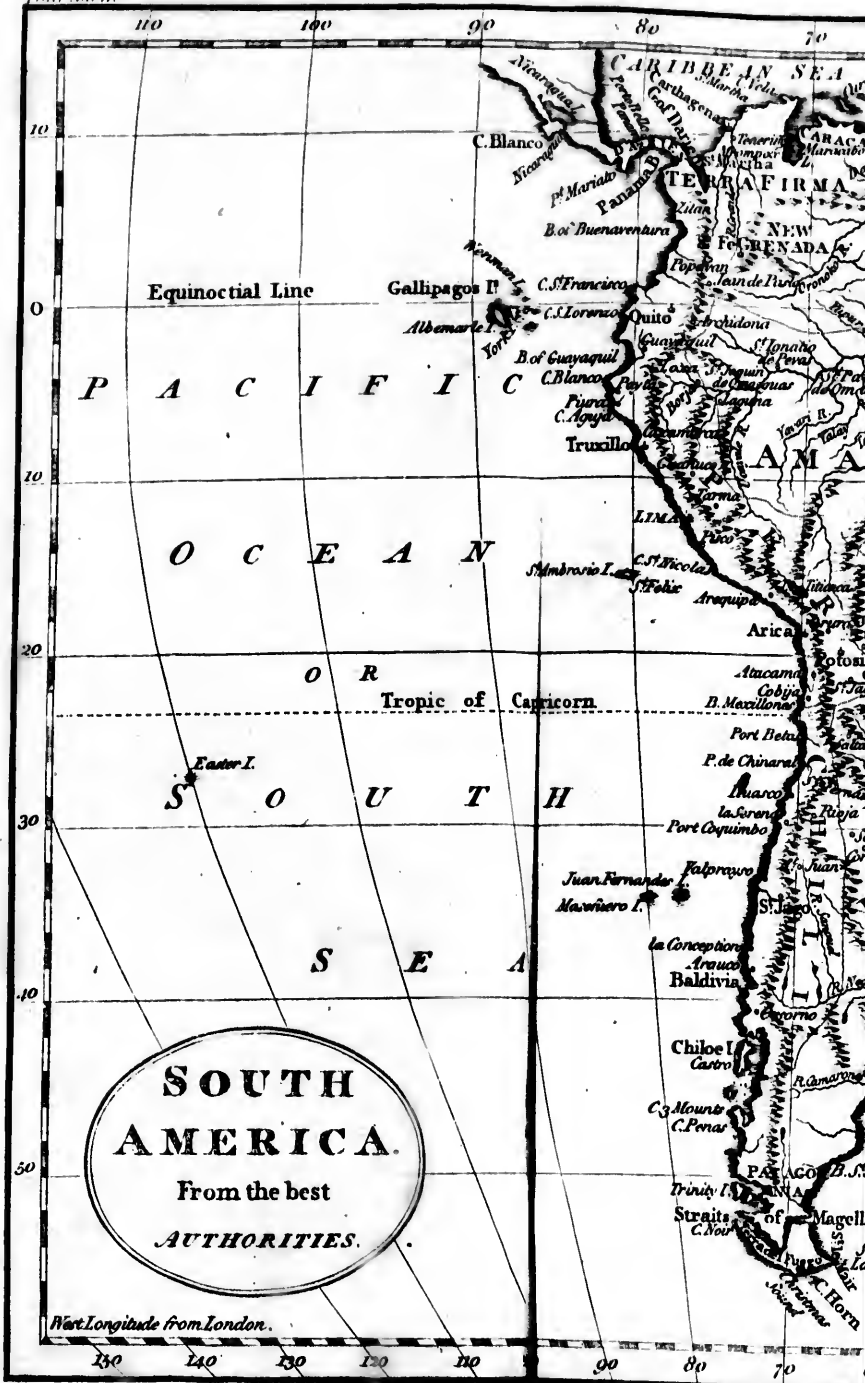
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SPANISH DOMINIONS IN SOUTH AMERICA, TERRA FIRMA, OR CASTILE DEL ORO.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length	1400	between } 60 and 82 west long. the equator, and 12 N. lat.	} 700,000
Breadth	700		

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 by the Pacific Ocean and New Spain on the west,

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.
The northern division contains the provinces of	1. Terra Firma Proper, or Darien	Porto Bello PANAMA, W. long. 80-21. N. lat. 8-47.
	2. Carthagena	Carthagena
	3. St. Martha	S. Martha
	4. Rio de la Hacha	Rio de la Hacha
	5. Venezuela	Venezuela
	6. Comana	Comana
	7. New Andalusia, or Paria	St. Thomas
The southern division contains the provinces of	1. New Granada	Santa Fé de Bagota
	2. Popayan	Popayan

ISTHMUS OF DARIEN.] The Isthmus of Darien, or Terra Firma Proper, joins North and South America. A line drawn from Porto Bello, in the North, to Panama in the South Sea, or rather a little west of these two towns, is the proper limit between North and South America; and here the isthmus or neck of land is only sixty miles over.

BAYS.] The principal bays in Terra Firma are, the Bay of Panama and the Bay of St. Michael's, in the South Sea; the Bay of Porto Bello, the Gulf of Darien, Sino Bay, Carthagena Bay and harbour, the Gulf of Venezuela.

RIVERS.] The chief rivers are the Rio Grande, the Darien, the Chagre, and the Oronoque, or Oronoko, which latter is remarkable for its singularly winding course, the length of which, with all its windings, is estimated at 1380 miles. It is also remarkable for rising and falling once a year only; rising gradually during the space of five months, continuing stationary one month and then falling for five months, and again continuing stationary one month. This is probably occasioned by the rains which fall on the mountains called the Andes, where it has its source.

METALS, MINERALS.] There were formerly rich mines of gold here, which are now in a great measure exhausted. The silver, iron, and copper mines, have been since opened, and the inhabitants find emeralds, sapphires, and other precious stones.



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 in 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 luxuriance 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 manchineel-tree is particularly remarkable: it bears a fruit resembling an apple, but which, under this specious appearance, contains a most subtle poison, against which common oil is found to be the best antidote. 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.

ANIMALS.] In treating of North America, we have taken notice of many of the animals that are found in the southern parts. 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 the utmost 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 into a ball, and with a shriek drops to the ground.

The monkeys in these countries are very numerous; they keep together twenty or thirty in 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

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NATIVES.] Besides the Indians in this country, who fall under our general description of the Americans, 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 moonlight, and from which they are therefore called Moon-eyed Indians.

INHABITANTS, COMMERCE, CHIEF TOWNS.] We have already mentioned how this country fell into the hands of the Spaniards. The inhabitants therefore do not materially differ from those of Mexico. To what we have observed with regard to this 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 a mulatto. From the intermarriage with these and the whites, arise the Quarterones, who, though still near the former, are disgraced with a tint of the negro blood. But the produce of these and the whites are the Quinterones, who, it is said, 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: besides 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, Carthagena, and Porto 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 on 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, who have arrived at wonderful dexterity in this occupation. They are sometimes, however, devoured by fish, particularly the sharks, while they dive to the bottom, or are crushed against the shelves of the rocks. The government of Terra Firma is on the same footing with that of Mexico.

PERU.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 1800	between { the equator and 25 S. lat. } { 60 and 81 W. long. }	} 970,000
Breadth 500		
3 P 2		

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by Terra Firma on the north; by Amazonia and Paraguay on the east; by Chili on the south; and by the Pacific Ocean on the west.

<i>Divisions.</i>	<i>Provinces.</i>	<i>Chief Towns.</i>
The northern division	{ Quito	{ Quito Payta
The middle division	{ Lima, or Los Reyes	{ LIMA, 76-49 W. long. 12-11. S. lat. Cusco, and Callao
The southern division	{ Los Charcos	{ Potosi Porco

MOUNTAINS.] Peru is separated from Amazonia and Paraguay by a chain of mountains the most extensive, and of which some of the summits are the highest in the world. These are the Cordellira de los Andes, or chain of the Andes, of which an account has already been given in the general description of America.

RIVERS.] The rivers Granada, or Cagdalená, Oronoque, Amazon, or Plate, rise in the Andes. Many other rivers rise also in the Andes, and fall into the Pacific Ocean.

METALS, MINERALS.] 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 90,000 souls, Spaniards and Indians, of which the latter were six to one. 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, discovered in 1567, where it is found in a whitish mass, resembling brick ill burned. The substance is volatilized by fire, and received in steam by a combination of glass vessels, in which it condenses by means of a little water at the bottom of each vessel, and forms a pure heavy liquid. In Peru likewise is found the new substance called *platina*, which may be considered as an eighth metal, and, from its superior qualities, may almost vie with gold itself.

CLIMATE, SOIL, PRODUCE.] 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 hot as other tropical countries. The sky too, which is generally cloudy, defends it from the direct rays of the sun; yet, what is extremely singular, it never rains in Lower Peru: but this defect is sufficiently supplied by a soft kindly dew which falls gradually every night on the ground, and so refreshes the plants and grass, as to produce in many places the greatest fertility. In Quito, however, they have prodigious rains, attended with violent storms of thunder and lightning. Along the sea-coast in 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. This country produces fruits peculiar to the climate and most of those of Europe. The culture of maize, of pimento, and cotton, which was found established there, has not been neg-

lected, and that of wheat, barley, cassava, potatoes, sugar, as also of the olive and vine is attended to. A principal article in the produce and commerce of this country is the Peruvian bark, known better by the name of Jesuits' 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 those 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 Africa, a district in the southern parts of Peru, from whence it is annually exported to the value of 600,000 crowns.

ANIMALS.] The principal animals peculiar to Peru are the lama, the vicunna, and the guanaco. The lama has a small head, resembling that of a horse and a 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 inflames the part it falls on. The flesh of the lama is agreeable and salutary, and the animal is not only useful in affording a fine kind of 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. 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 is found the bezoar stone, regarded as a specific against poison. The guanaco is much larger than the lama, its wool is long and harsh; but in shape they are nearly alike.

NATURAL CURIOSITIES.] Among these may be classed the volcanoes of the Andes, which, from the midst of immense heaps of snow, pour forth torrents of fiery matter and clouds of smoke. Here are streams which, in their course, cover whatever they pass over with a stony incrustation; and fountains of liquid matter, called coppey, resembling pitch and tar, and used by seamen for the same purpose.

POPULATION, CHARACTER OF INHABITANTS.] The population of Peru has never been ascertained with any degree of precision. The number of inhabitants in the principal cities has been estimated at about 200,000. The manners of the people in this country do not remarkably differ from those of the whole Spanish dominions. Pride and laziness are the two predominant passions. It is said, 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.

CITIES, MANUFACTURES, COMMERCE.] We join these articles 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 : 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 54,000 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 Paluda, made his entry into Lima, in 1682, the inhabitants, to do him honour, caused the streets to be paved with ingots of silver, to the amount of 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 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 products 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 fleets 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 sale 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, a most tremendous earthquake laid three-fourths of this city level with the ground, and entirely demolished Callao, the port town belonging to it. Never was any destruction more terrible or complete ; not more than one of three thousand inhabitants being left to record this dreadful calamity, and he by a providence the most singular and extraordinary imaginable.—This man, who happened to be on a fort which overlooked the harbour, perceived in one minute the inhabitants running from their houses in the utmost terror and confusion ; the sea, as usual on such occasions, receding to a considerable distance, returned in mountainous waves, foaming with the violence of the agitation, buried the inhabitants for ever in its bosom, and immediately all was silent ; but the same wave which destroyed the town drove a little boat by the place where the man stood, into which he threw himself, and was saved. Cusco, the ancient 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 26,000 inhabitants, three parts Indians, and very industrious in manufacturing baize, cotton, and leather. They have also, both here and in Quito, a particular taste for painting ; and their productions in this way, some of

which have been admired in Italy, are dispersed all over South America. Quito is next to Lima in populousness, 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 throughout Peru.

GOVERNMENT.] Peru is under the government of a viceroy, who resides at Lima, and whose authority formerly extended over all the three districts; but that of Quito has since been detached from 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 audiences 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.

HISTORY.] For the history of Peru, see the account of the discovery and conquest of America.

CHILI.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 1260	between { 25 and 44 S. lat. 65 and 85 W. long. }	} 206,000
Breadth 580		

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.

<i>Divisions.</i>	<i>Provinces.</i>	<i>Chief Towns.</i>
On the west side of the Andes,	} Chili Proper	} St. JAGO, W. long. 77. S. lat. 34.
On the east side of the Andes,	} Cuyo, or Cutio	} St. John de Frontiera.

RIVERS, LAKES.] The chief rivers are the Salado or Salt River, the Guasco, Coquimbo, Chiapa, Bohio, and the Baldivia, all scarcely navigable but at their mouths.

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 fish; but in the hot season the water congeals, leaving a crust of fine white salt a foot thick.

METALS, MINERALS.] Mines of gold, silver, copper, tin, quick-silver, iron, and lead, abound in this country. Vast quantities of gold are washed down from the mountains by brooks and torrents, the annual amount of which, when manufactured, is estimated at not less than eight millions of dollars.

CLIMATE, SOIL, PRODUCE.] The climate of Chili is one of the most delightful in the world, being a medium between the intense heat of the torrid and the piercing cold of the frigid zones. The soil is extremely fertile. 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.

ANIMALS.] The wild animals of this country are nearly the same as in Peru. The horses of Chili are in great esteem; and prodigious numbers of oxen, goats, and sheep, are fattened in the luxuriant pastures of Chili, the breeding of which is almost the only species of husbandry attended to in this country. Turkeys, geese, and all kinds of poultry, are found here in the same profusion. The coasts abound with various kinds of excellent fish: there are also many whales and seals.

POPULATION, 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. According to some accounts, the Spaniards do not amount to above 20,000; and the Indians, negroes, and mulattoes, not to above thrice that number. The Abbé Raynal, however, says there are 40,000 Spanish inhabitants in the city of St. Jago, in which case the aggregate number in all the provinces of Chili must be much more considerable than has generally been supposed. Other accounts estimate the population of this country at 80,000 whites, and 240,000 negroes.

CHIEF TOWNS.] St. Jago, the capital, is a large and handsome town, situate on the river Mapocho, which runs through it from east to west, in the midst of an extensive and beautiful plain. Valdivia or Valdivia is another large town, situate between the rivers Calacalles and Portero, where they fall into the South Sea. There are several strong forts and batteries to defend the entrance of the harbour, as it is considered as the key of the South Sea.

TRADE.] Chili supplies Peru with hides, dried fruits, salted meat, horses, hemp, and corn; and receives in exchange tobacco, sugar, cocoa, the manufactures of Quito, and articles of luxury brought from Europe. Paraguay receives from Chili wine, brandy, oil, and chiefly gold; and returns, in payment, mules, wax, cotton, negroes, &c. The commerce between the two countries is not carried on by sea, it having been found more expeditious, safer, and even less expensive to go by land, though it is 354 leagues from St. Jago to Buenos Ayres, and more than 40 leagues of the way are amid the snows and precipices of the Andes.

GOVERNMENT.] The seat of government is at St. Jago: the commandant there is, however, subordinate to the viceroy of Peru in all matters relating to the government, to the finances, and to war; but he is independent of him in the administration of justice, and as president of the royal audience.

HISTORY.] This country was first discovered by Diego Almagro, in 1525. He passed the Andes from Peru; and, though he had lost a great part of the soldiers who attended him in his expedition, he was received with great submission by the inhabitants of the country, who had formerly been under the dominion of the Peruvians. The Spaniards again entered Chili in 1541, under their general Valdivia,

the founder of the city which bears his name. They at first met with no opposition, the people of the country being gathering in their harvest; but when that was finished they took up arms, and never laid them down for ten years. The natives have at all times bravely defended themselves against the Spanish yoke: they are still in a great degree unsubdued, and are engaged in frequent struggles for their independence.

PARAGUAY, OR LA PLATA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length	1500	between { 12 and 37 S. lat. } { 50 and 75 W. long. }	} 1,000,000
Breadth	1000		

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by Amazonia on the north; by Brasil on the east; by Patagonia on the south; and by Peru and Chili on the west.

<i>Divisions.</i>	<i>Provinces.</i>	<i>Chief Towns.</i>
East division contains	Paraguay	Assumption
	Parana	St. Anne
	Guaira	Ciudad Real
	Uragua	Los Reyes
South division	Tucuman	St. Jago
	Rio de la Plata	BUENOS AYRES, W. long. 57-54. S. lat. 34-35.

RIVERS, LAKES.] This country, besides an infinite number of small rivers, is watered by three principal ones, the Paragua, Uragua, and Parana, 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.

The Rio de la Plata has a course of about 1900 miles in length, but it is principally remarkable for its breadth at its mouth. It falls into the South Atlantic Ocean, between the capes St. Anthony and St. Mary, which are 150 miles distant from each other, and at Monte Video, a fort above 100 miles from the sea, the land of either shore cannot be seen from a vessel in the middle of the channel. This country abounds with lakes, one of which, Casacores, is 100 miles long.

CLIMATE, SOIL, 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 in 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, not interrupted by the least hill for several hundred miles every way. The climate is in some parts extremely hot, in

others temperate and pleasant. The soil is very fertile, 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 the hides of the beasts are all that is properly bought, the carcasses being given into the bargain. A horse some years ago might be bought for a dollar; and the usual price for a bullock, chosen out of the 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 sweet and serene, and the waters of La Plata are equally pure and wholesome.

FIRST SETTLEMENT, CHIEF CITY, AND COMMERCE.] The Spaniards first discovered this country, by sailing up the river La Plata, in 1515, and in 1535 founded the town of Buenos Ayres, so called on account of the excellence of the air, on the south side of the river, 50 leagues within the mouth of it, where the river is seven leagues broad. This is one of the most considerable towns in South America, containing above 30,000 inhabitants, and the only place of traffic to the southward of Brasil. Here we meet with the merchants of Europe and Peru; but no regular fleet comes here; 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 Brasil as lie near this country. 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 farther can be said on those articles. But we cannot quit this country without saying something of that extraordinary species of commonwealth which the Jesuits erected in the interior parts, and of which these crafty priests endeavoured to keep all strangers in the dark.

About the middle of the 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, uncontrouled 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 this pale, without licence 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:

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suaded to settle:

and they united them into a little township. This was the slight foundation upon which they built a superstructure that amazed the world, and added so much power, at the same time that it occasioned so much envy and jealousy of their society. For when they had made this beginning, they laboured with such indefatigable pains, and such masterly policy, that, by degrees, they mollified the minds of the most 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 confirm their subjection or increase their numbers; and it is said, that above 340,000 families were subject to them; 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 these missions, except their contentment under it. Some writers 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 not only persons of both sexes, but even the magistrates, who were always chosen from among the Indians, to be corrected before them with stripes, and to suffer persons of the highest distinction within their jurisdiction, to kiss the hem of their garments, as the greatest honour. The priests themselves possessed large property; all manufactures were theirs; the natural produce of the country was brought to them; and the treasures, annually remitted to the superior of the order, seemed to evince that zeal for religion was not the only motive of their forming these missions. The fathers would not permit any of the inhabitants of Peru, whether Spaniards, Mestizos, or even Indians, to come within their missions in Paraguay. In the year 1757, when part of the territory was ceded by Spain to the court of Portugal, in exchange for Santo Sacramento, to make the Oragua the boundary of their possessions, 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 the Indians actually took up arms; but, notwithstanding the exactness of their discipline, they were easily, and with considerable slaughter, defeated by the European troops who were sent to quell them. In 1767, the Jesuits were sent out of America by royal authority, and their late subjects were put upon the same footing with the rest of the inhabitants of the country.

SPANISH ISLANDS IN AMERICA.

CUBA.] The island of Cuba is situate between 20 and 25 deg. north lat. and between 74 and 85 deg. west long. 100 miles to the south of Cape Florida, and 75 north of Jamaica, and is near 700 miles in length, and generally about 70 miles in breadth. A chain of hills runs 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 commodities known in the West Indies, particularly ginger, long pepper, and other spices, cassia, fistula, mastic 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 said that its exports do not equal in quantity those of 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. Jagó, facing Jamaica, strongly situate and well fortified, but neither populous nor rich; and that of the Havannah, facing Florida, which is the capital of Cuba, and a place of great strength and importance, containing about 2000 houses, with a great number of convents and churches: it was taken, however, by the courage and perseverance of the English troops in the year 1762, but restored in the subsequent treaty of peace. Besides these, there is likewise Cumberland harbour, and that of Santa Cruz, a considerable town thirty miles east of the Havannah.

PORTO RICO.] Situate between 64 and 67 deg. west long. and in 18 deg. north lat. lying between Hispaniola and St. Christopher's, is 100 miles long and 40 broad. The soil is beautifully diversified with woods, valleys 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 unhealthy 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 sidé, forming a capacious harbour, and joined to the chief island by a causeway, 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 centre of contraband trade carried on by the English and French with the king of Spain's subjects.

MARGARETTA.] Situate in 64 deg. west long. and 11-30 north lat. separated from the northern coast of New Andalusia, in Terra Firma, by a strait of 24 miles, is about 40 miles in length, and 24 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 the coast, which is now discontinued.

There are many other small islands in these seas, to which the Spaniards have paid no attention; we shall therefore proceed towards and round Cape Horn into the South Sea, in our way to which we arrive at the

FALKLAND OR MALOUIN ISLANDS.] These islands, situate between 51 and 53 deg. of south lat. and 57 and 62 deg. of west long. were first discovered by Sir Richard Hawkins, in 1594, the principal of which he named Hawkins' Maidenland, in honour of queen Elizabeth. The present English name, Falkland, was probably given them by captain Strong, in 1639, and being adopted by Halley, it has from that time been received into our maps. The French call them the Malouin Isles from the people of St. Maloes, whom they consider as their discoverers. They have occasioned some contest between Spain and Great Britain; but being of very little worth, seem to have been silently abandoned by the latter in 1774, in order to avoid giving umbrage to the Spanish court.

The island of **TIERRA DEL FUEGO**, at the southern extremity of America, situate between 52 deg. 30 min. and 55 deg. 35 min. south lat. and 66 and 75 deg. west long derives its name from the volcanoes observed on it. It is a large island containing about 42,000 square miles; the aspect of the country is dreary and uncomfortable, and the climate is cold as that of Lapland, though the latitude is only that of the north of England. The natives are of a middle stature, with broad flat faces, high cheek bones, and flat noses: they are dressed in the skins of seals, and their only food seems to be shell fish. The isle called Staten-land is divided from Tierra del Fuego by the strait of Le Maire. Cape Horn is a promontory on another small island to the south of Tierra del Fuego.

Tierra del Fuego is separated from the main land of South America by the Straits of Magellan. These straits were first discovered by Magellan, or Magelhaens, a Portuguese in the service of Spain, who sailed through them in the year 1520, and thereby discovered a passage from the Atlantic to the Pacific or Southern Ocean. He has been since considered as the first navigator that sailed round the world: but having lost his life in a skirmish with some Indians before the ships returned to Europe, the honour of being the first circumnavigator has been disputed in favour of the brave Sir Francis Drake, who, in 1574, passed the same strait in his way to India, from which he returned to Europe by the Cape of Good Hope. In 1616, Le Maire, a Dutchman, keeping to the southward of these straits, discovered, in lat. fifty-four and a half, another passage, since known by the name of the Straits of Le Maire; and this passage, which has been generally preferred by succeeding navigators, is called doubling Cape Horn. The author of Anson's Voyage, however, from fatal experience, advises mariners to keep clear of these straits and islands, by running down to sixty-one or sixty-two deg. south lat. before they attempt to set their face westward, towards the South Seas; but the extreme long nights, and the intense cold in those latitudes, render that passage practicable only in the months of January and February, which is there the middle of summer.

Beyond Cape Horn and the Straits of Magellan, proceeding northwards in the Great South Sea, or Pacific Ocean, the first Spanish island of any importance is **CHILOE**, on the coast of Chili, which has a governor, and some harbours well fortified. It is situate be-

tween 42 and 44 deg. of south lat. and 75 and 76 west long. and about 150 miles long, and 21 broad.

JUAN FERNANDES.] Lying in 83 deg. west long. and 33 south lat. 300 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. This island is famous for having given rise to the celebrated romance of Robinson Crusoe. It seems that one Alexander Selkirk, a Scotchman, 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 forgotten 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 water, and it was some time before he could relish the ship's victuals. During his abode in this island he had killed 500 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 is said to have put his papers into the hands of Daniel Defoe, to prepare them for publication; but that writer, by the help of these papers and a lively fancy, transformed Alexander Selkirk into Robinson Crusoe, and returned Selkirk his papers again; so that the latter derived no advantage from them. They were probably too indigested for publication, and Defoe might derive little from them but those hints which gave rise to his own celebrated performance.

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 BRASIL.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 2500	} between	{ the equator and 35 south latitude.
Breadth 700		

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 on the south; and by a chain of mountains, which divide it from Paraguay and the country of the Amazons, on the west.

<i>Divisions.</i>	<i>Provinces.</i>	<i>Chief Towns.</i>
Northern division contains the captainships of	Para	Para, or Belim
	Marignan	St. Lewis
	Siara	Siara
	Petagues	St. Luc
	Rio Grande	Tignares
	Payraba	Payraba
Middle division contains the captainships of	Tamara	Tamara
	Pernambuco	Olinda
	Serigippe	Serigippe
	Bahia, or the bay of All Saints	St. Salvador
	Ilheos	Paya
	Porto Seguro	Porto Seguro
Southern division contains the captainships of	Spirito Santo	Spirito Santo
	Rio Janeiro	St. Sebastian
	St. Vincent	St. Vincent
	Del Rey	St. Salvador

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 Brasil on the north-east and east, upwards of 3000 miles, forming several fine bays and harbours; as the harbours of Pernambuco, 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 La Plata.

METALS, MINERALS.] Gold and diamond mines are found in Brasil. The former were discovered in the year 1681, and have since yielded about five millions sterling annually, of which sum a fifth belongs to the crown. The diamond mines are situate near the little river Milho Verde, not far from Villa Nova do Principe. They are farmed at about 30,000l. yearly, which is thought to be scarcely a fifth of what they actually produce. The diamonds, however, are not of so fine water as those of Hindoostan, but are of a brownish obscure hue.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, CLIMATE, AND RIVERS.] The name of Brasil was given to this country, because it was observed to abound with a wood of that name. To the northward of Brasil, 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 exceedingly 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 Copaiba, Brasil wood, which is of a red colour, hard and dry, and is chiefly used in dyeing, but not the red of the best kind; it has likewise some place in medicine, as a stomachic and restringent.

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 is neglected, and, in consequence, Brasil depends upon Europe for its daily food.

The animals here are the same as in Peru and Mexico.*

POPULATION.] According to Sir George Staunton, the whole number of whites in the Brasils is about 200,000, and that of the negroes 600,000: the natives may perhaps be about a million or a million and a half.

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 show, 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 serpentines, 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 curtain aside, and salutes his acquaintance whom he meets in the streets; for they take a pride in complimenting each other in their hammocks, and 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. Scarcely any man of fashion, or any lady, will pass the streets without being carried in this manner.

CHIEF TOWNS.] The capital of Brasil is St. Salvador, frequently called Bahia, where all the fleets rendezvous on their return to Portugal. This city commands a noble, spacious, and commodious harbour. It is built upon a 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. The situation makes it in a manner impregnable by nature; and it has very strong fortifications. It is populous, magnificent, and, beyond comparison, the most gay and opulent city in all Brasil.

St. Sebastian, more usually called Rio de Janeiro, from the name

of the province, is situate on a spacious and commodious bay: it is a rich and populous city, containing, it is said, 200,000 inhabitants. On the south side of a spacious square is the palace of the viceroy, and there are several other squares, in which are fountains supplied with water by an aqueduct of considerable length brought over valleys by a double row of arches. In an island in the harbour, called Serpent island, is a dock-yard, magazines, and naval store-houses.

TRADE.] The trade of Brasil is very great, and increases every year; which is the less surprising as the Portugues: 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, whence they import between forty and fifty thousand negroes annually, all of which go into the amount of the cargo of the Brasil 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, and 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 that European ships carry thither in return, are not the fiftieth part of the produce of Portugal; they consist of woollen goods of all kinds from England, France, and Holland; the linen 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, flour, 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 Brasils.

Brasil is a very wealthy and flourishing settlement. The 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. The tobacco is remarkably good, though not raised in such large quantities as in the United States. The northern and southern parts of Brasil abound with horned cattle: these are hunted for their hides only, of which no less than twenty thousand are sent annually to Europe.

GOVERNMENT.] Brasil is now divided into nine governments, each of which has its particular chief. Of these the governor of Rio Janeiro alone has the style of viceroy. They are appointed for three years, which term is prolonged at pleasure. Each district has a particular judge, from whose decision there lies an appeal to the superior tribunals of Rio Janeiro or Lisbon.

REVENUE.] The revenue arising to the crown of Portugal from this colony, amounts, according to some writers, to two millions sterling in gold, besides the duties and customs on merchandise imported from the country. This, indeed, is more than a fifth of the precious metal produced by the mines; but every consequent advantage considered, it probably does not much exceed the truth.

RELIGION.] The religion of Portugal, or the Roman catholic, is established here. Six bishoprics have been successively founded under the archbishopric of Bahia, or St. Salvador, which see was established in 1552.

[*HISTORY.*] This country was first discovered by Amerigo Vespuccio, in 1498; but the Portuguese did not plant it till 1519, 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 1580, when, in the very meridian of prosperity, they were struck by one of those blows which generally decide the fate of kingdoms. Don Sebastian, the king of Portugal, lost his life in an expedition against the Moors in Africa; and by that event the Portuguese lost their independence, being absorbed into the Spanish dominions.

The Dutch, soon after this, having thrown off the Spanish yoke, and being not satisfied with supporting their independence by a successful defensive war, but flushed with the juvenile ardor of a growing commonwealth, 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 Brasil, where they took seven of the captainships, or provinces; and would have subdued the whole colony, had not their career been stopped by the archbishop, at the head of his monks, and a few scattered forces. The Dutch were, about the year 1654, entirely driven out of Brasil; but their West India company still continuing their pretensions to this country, and harassing the Portuguese at sea, the latter agreed, in 1661, to pay the Dutch eight tons of gold, to relinquish their interest in that country; which was accepted: and the Portuguese have remained in peaceable possession of all Brasil from that time, till about the end of the year 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 fortress called St. Sacramento; but, by the treaty of peace of the following year, it was restored.

FRENCH AMERICA.

THE possessions of the French on the continent of America are at present inconsiderable. They were masters of Canada and Louisiana; but they have now lost all footing in North America; though in the southern continent they have still a settlement, which is called

CAYENNE, OR EQUINOXIAL FRANCE.

IT is situate between the equator and 5th degree of north latitude, and between the 50th and 55th of west longitude. It extends 240 miles along the coast of Guiana, and nearly 300 miles within land;

it is 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 45 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 among 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.

St. DOMINGO, or HISPANIOLA.] This island was at first possessed by the Spaniards alone; but by far the most considerable part has been long in the hands of the French, to whom the Spanish part was likewise ceded by the treaty of peace between the two nations in 1795. It must now, therefore, be considered as a French island.

It is situate between the 17th and 21st deg. north lat. and the 67th and 74th of west long. lying in the middle between Cuba and Porto Rico, and is 450 miles long and 150 broad. When Hispaniola was first discovered by Columbus, the number of its inhabitants was computed to be at least a million. But such was the cruelty of the Spaniards, and to so infamous a height did they carry their oppression of the poor natives, that they were reduced to sixty thousand in the space of fifteen years. The face of the island presents an agreeable variety of hills, valleys, 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 were 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 population of this island was estimated, in 1788, at 27,717 white people; 21,808 free people of colour; and 405,528 slaves. Its trade employed 580 large ships, carrying 189,679 tons, in which the imports amounted to twelve millions of dollars, of which more than eight millions were in manufactured goods of France, and the other

four millions in French produce. The Spanish ships exported, in French goods or money, 1,400,000 dollars, for mules, imported by them into the colony; ninety-eight French ships, carrying 40,130 tons, imported 26,506 negroes, who sold for eight millions of dollars.

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 named, especially by the French. It is situate on a spacious harbour, and is a large well-built city, inhabited, like the other Spanish towns, by a mixture of Europeans, Creoles, Mulattoes, Mestizos, and Negroes.

The French towns are, Cape François, the capital, which is neither walled nor paled in, and is said to have only two batteries, one at the entrance of the harbour, and the other before the town. Before its destruction in 1793, it contained about eight thousand inhabitants, whites, people of colour, and slaves. It was the governor's residence in time of war, as Port-au-Prince was in time of peace. The Mole, though inferior to these in other respects, is the first port in the island for safety in time of war, being by nature and art strongly fortified. The other towns and ports of any note are, Fort Dauphin, St. Mark, Leogane, Petit Goave, Jeremie, Les Cayes, St. Louis, and Jacmel.

Since the French revolution, in consequence of some injudicious decrees of the National Assembly of France, this island has been a scene of confusion and bloodshed. In the night between the 22d and 23d of August, 1791, a most alarming insurrection of the negroes began on the French plantations upon this island, and a scene of the most horrid cruelties ensued. In a little time no less than one hundred thousand negroes were in rebellion; and all the manufactories and plantations of more than half the northern province appeared as one general conflagration. The plains and the mountains were filled with carnage and deluged with blood. The negroes who were slaves were emancipated from their chains, and trained to arms; which they never afterwards laid down. An African by birth, who had received the French name of Toussaint l'Ouverture, was afterwards invested with the chief command of the negroes and mulattoes. He appears to have been a man of some ability, and to have exercised his authority in many instances with prudence and moderation. When, however, the peace of Amiens had set at liberty the French fleets, Bonaparte sent out an expedition to reduce Toussaint to dependence upon France, and restore order in the colony. After several encounters, in which the negro chief, unable to resist the regular forces of France, was almost constantly defeated, Toussaint was induced to submit and accept of apparently favourable terms. But the French, soon after, most perfidiously seized on him, under a charge, probably without foundation, of treacherous practices, and sent him in irons to France, where he perished in a dungeon. The other black chiefs who had submitted with him, Christophe and Dessalines, saved themselves by flight; the negroes and mulattoes again flew to arms, and the French troops rapidly fell victims to the climate. Dessalines has since succeeded to the authority of Toussaint, and, following the example set him in Europe, has caused himself to be proclaimed emperor of *Hayti*,* by the title of *Jaques I.* He carries on a war of

* The ancient native name of the island.

extermination, which has hitherto been but too successful, against the French, who are on the point of being compelled entirely to abandon the island.

MARTINICO, which is situate between 14 and 15 degrees of north latitude, and in 61 degrees west longitude, lying about 40 leagues north-west of Barbadoes, is about 60 miles in length, and half as much in breadth. The inland part of it is hilly, from which are poured out, on 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 neighbouring islands. But sugar is here, as in all the West-India islands, the principal commodity, of which a considerable quantity is exported annually. Martinico was 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, often attempted this place. However, in the war of 1756, 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. It was again taken by the English in 1794, but restored by the treaty of Amiens.

GUADALOUPE, so called by Columbus from the resemblance of its mountains to those of that name in Spain, is situate in 16 degrees north latitude, and in 62 west longitude, about 30 leagues north of Martinico, and about as much south of Antigua; being 45 miles long, and 38 broad. It is divided into two parts by a small arm of the sea, or rather a narrow channel, through which no ships 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. It was again reduced by the English in 1794, but evacuated a few months after.

St. LUCIA, situate in 14 degrees north latitude, and in 61 degrees west longitude, 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 war of 1756 broke out, began to settle these islands; which, by the treaty of peace, were yielded up to Great Britain, and this island to France. The soil of St. Lucia, in the valleys, is extremely rich. It produces excellent timber, and abounds in pleasant rivers and well situated harbours; and is now declared a free port under certain restrictions. The English made themselves masters of it in 1778; but it was restored again to the French in 1783. It was taken by the English in 1794, surrendered again to the French in 1795, and re-captured by Great Britain in 1796; it was restored by the treaty of Amiens, but retaken soon after the recommencement of hostilities in 1803.

TOBAGO.] This island is situate in 11 degrees north latitude,

120 miles south of Barbadoes, and about the same distance from the Spanish main. It is about 32 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. It is well watered with numerous springs; and its bays and creeks are so disposed as to be very commodious for all kinds of shipping. The value and importance of this island appear 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. In June 1781 it was taken by the French; and was ceded to them by the treaty of 1782. In 1793 it was again captured by the British arms, but restored by the late peace.

ST. BARTHOLOMEW, DESEADA, AND MARIGALANTE, are three small islands lying in the neighbourhood of Antigua and St. Christopher's and 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. The former was given to Sweden in 1785.

The small islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, situated near Newfoundland, have been already mentioned in our account of that island.

DUTCH AMERICA.

Containing SURINAM, on the Continent of SOUTH AMERICA.

AFTER the Portuguese had dispossessed the Dutch of Brasil 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; with two or three small and barren islands in the north sea, not far from the Spanish main.

Dutch Guiana is situate between five and seven degrees north lat. extending 100 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 unwholesome; 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. This was one of the richest

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and most valuable colonies belonging to the United Provinces; but it is in a less prosperous situation than it was some years since, owing, among other causes, to the wars with the fugitive negroes, whom the Dutch treated with great barbarity, and who are become so numerous, having increased from year to year, that they have formed a kind of colony in the woods, which are almost inaccessible, along the rivers of Surinam, Saramaca, and Copename, and are become very formidable enemies to their former masters. Under the command of chiefs, whom they have elected among themselves, they have cultivated lands for their subsistence, and make frequent incursions into the neighbouring plantations. The chief trade of Surinam consists in sugar, a great deal of cotton, coffee of an excellent kind, tobacco, flax, skins, and some valuable dyeing drugs. They trade with the North American colonies, who bring hither horses, live cattle, and provisions, and take home a large quantity of melasses. Surinam was taken by the English in August 1799, but restored by the treaty of Amiens. In May 1804, it was retaken.

Connected with Surinam, we shall mention the two Dutch colonies of Demerary and Issequibo on the Spanish main, which surrendered to the English in the year 1781, and were represented as a very valuable acquisition, which would produce more revenue to the crown than all the British West-India islands united. But the report was either not believed or slighted; for the colonies were left defenceless, and soon were retaken by a French frigate. In the present war, however, they again surrendered to the British arms, April 21, 1796. They were restored by the treaty of Amiens, but since the renewal of the war they have been retaken.

Dr. Bancroft observes, that the inhabitants of Dutch Guiana are either whites, blacks, or the reddish-brown aboriginal natives of America. The promiscuous intercourse of these different people has likewise generated several intermediate casts, whose colours immutably depend on their degree of consanguinity to either whites, Indians, or negroes. These are divided into Mulattoes, Tercerones, Quarterones, and Quinterones, with several intermediate subdivisions, proceeding from their retrograde intercourse. There are so great a number of birds, of various species, and remarkable for the beauty of their plumage, in Guiana, that several persons in this colony have employed themselves advantageously, with their slaves and dependents, in killing and preserving birds for the cabinets of naturalists in different parts of Europe. The torporific eel is found in the rivers of Guiana, which, when touched either by the hand, or by a rod of iron, gold, silver, copper, or by a stick of some particular kinds of heavy American wood, communicates a shock perfectly resembling that of electricity. There are an immense number and variety of snakes in this country, which form one of its principal inconveniences. A snake was killed some years since, on a plantation which had belonged to Peter Anyatt, esq. which was upwards of thirty-three feet in length, and in the largest place near the middle three feet in circumference. It had a broad head, large prominent eyes, and a very wide month, in which was a double row of teeth. Among the animals of Dutch Guiana is the Laubba, which is peculiar to this country. It is a small amphibious creature, about the size of a pig four months old, covered with fine short hair: and its flesh, by the Europeans who reside here, is preferred to all other kinds of meat.

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DUTCH ISLANDS IN AMERICA.

St. EUSTATIUS, OR EUSTATIA.] Situate in $17^{\circ} 29'$ N. lat. $63^{\circ} 10'$ W. long. and three leagues north-west of St. Christopher's, is only a mountain, about 29 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 has made it to turn to very good account, and it is said to contain 5000 whites and 15,000 negroes. The sides of the mountain are disposed 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 situate; and it has drawn the same advantage from its constant neutrality. The Dutch first took possession of this island in the year 1635.

CURASSOU, OR CURAÇAO.] Situate in 12 degrees north lat. 9 or 10 leagues from the continent of Terra Firma, is 30 miles long, and 10 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 this island is not only barren, and dependent upon the rains for 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 one of 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 the 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 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. Martin's, situate at no great distance from St. Eustatia, are of very little importance.

DANISH ISLANDS IN AMERICA.

St. THOMAS.] An inconsiderable island of the Caribbees, is situate in $6\frac{1}{2}$ degrees west long. and 18 north lat. about 15 miles in circumference, and has a safe and commodious harbour.

STE. 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 3000 hogsheads of sugar of 1000 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 merchandise. As for Santa Cruz, from a perfect desert a few years since, it is beginning to thrive very fast; several persons from the English islands, some of them of very great wealth, have gone to settle there, and have received very great encouragement. These islands were taken by the English in 1801, during the short war between England and Denmark on account of the convention of neutrality, but restored a few months afterwards when that dispute was adjusted.

ISLANDS OF THE SOUTH SEA, AND LATE DISCOVERIES.

OUR knowledge of the globe has been considerably augmented by many late discoveries, and especially by those that have been made by British navigators in the present reign, which have been numerous and important. Of these discoveries we shall here give a compendious account.

OTAHEITE, OR KING GEORGE'S ISLAND.

THIS island was discovered by captain Wallis, in the *Dolphin**,

* The *Dolphin* was sent out under the command of captain Wallis, with the *Swallow*, commanded by captain Carteret, at the expense of the British government, in August, 1766, in order to make discoveries in the southern hemisphere. These vessels proceeded together, till they came within sight of the South Sea, at the western entrance of the Strait of Magellan, and from thence returned by different routes to England. On the 6th of June, 1767, captain Wallis discovered an island, about four miles long and three wide, to which he gave the name of Whitsun-Island, it being discovered on Whitsun-eye. Its latitude is $19^{\circ} 26'$ S. and its longitude $137^{\circ} 56'$ W. The next day he discovered another island, to which he gave the name of Queen Charlotte's Island. The inhabitants of this island, captain Wallis says, were of a middle stature, dark complexion, and long

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on the 19th of June, 1767. It is situate between the 17th degree 28 min. and the 17th degree 53 min. south latitude, and between the 149th degree 11 min. and the 149th degree 39 min. west longitude. It consists of two peninsulas, of a somewhat circular form, joined by an isthmus, and is surrounded by a reef of coral rocks, which form several excellent bays and harbours, where there is room and depth of water for almost any number of the largest ships. The face of the country is very extraordinary; for a border of low land almost entirely surrounds each peninsula, and behind this border the land rises in ridges that run up into the middle of these divisions, and these form mountains that may be seen at sixty leagues distance. The soil, except upon the very tops of the ridges, is remarkably rich and fertile, watered by a great number of rivulets, and covered with fruit-trees of various kinds, forming the most delightful groves. The border of low land that lies between the ridges and the sea is in few places more than a mile and a half broad; and this, together with some of the valleys, are the only parts that are inhabited. Captain Wallis made some stay at this island; and it was afterwards visited again by captain Cook, in the Endeavour, in April, 1769. That commander was accompanied by Joseph Banks, Esq. now sir Joseph Banks, and Dr. Solander; and these gentlemen, together with the captain, made a very accurate survey of the island.

Some parts of the island of Otahcite are very populous; and cap-

black hair, which hung loose over their shoulders. The men were well made, and the women handsome. Their clothing was a kind of coarse cloth or matting, which was fastened about their middle, and seemed capable of being brought up round their shoulders. This island is about six miles long, and one mile wide, and lies in latitude $19^{\circ} 18' S.$ longitude $138^{\circ} 4' W.$ In the space of a few days after, he also discovered several other small islands, to which he gave the names of Egmont Island, Gloucester Island, Cumberland Island, Prince William Henry's Island, and Osnaburgh Island.

On the 19th of the same month he discovered the island of Otahcite; and after he had quitted that island, he discovered, on the 28th of July 1767, another island about six miles long, which he called Sir Charles Saunders's Island; and on the 30th of the same month, another about ten miles long and four broad, which he called Lord Howe's Island. After having discovered some other small islands, one of which was named Wallis's Island, he arrived at Batavia on the 30th of November; at the Cape of Good Hope on the 4th of February, 1768; and his ship anchored safely in the Downs on the 20th of May following.

Captain Carteret, in the Swallow, after he had parted with captain Wallis in the Dolphin, having passed through the Strait of Magellan, and made some stay at the island of Masafuero, discovered, on the 2d of July, 1767, an island about five miles in circumference, to which he gave the name of Pitcairn's Island. It lies in latitude $25^{\circ} 2' S.$ longitude $133^{\circ} 21' W.$ and about a thousand leagues to the westward of the continent of America. The 11th of the same month he discovered another small island, to which he gave the name of the Bishop of Osnaburgh's Island. The next day he discovered two other small islands, which he called the Duke of Gloucester's Islands. The following month he discovered a cluster of small islands, to which he gave the name of Queen Charlotte's Islands, and also three others, which he named Gower's Island, Simpson's Island, and Carteret's Island. On the 24th of the same month he discovered Sir Charles Hardy's Island, which lies in latitude $4^{\circ} 50' S.$ and the next day Winchelsea's Island, which is distant about ten leagues in the direction of S. by E. He afterwards discovered several other islands, and proceeded round the Cape of Good Hope to England, where he arrived in March 1769.

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tain Cook was of opinion, that the number of inhabitants on the whole island amounted to 204,000, including women and children. They are of a clear olive complexion, the men are tall, strong, well-limbed, and finely shaped; the women are of an inferior size, but handsome and very amorous. Their clothing consists of cloth or matting of different kinds; and the greatest part of the food eaten here is vegetable, as cocoa nuts, bananas, bread-fruit, plantains, and a great variety of other fruit. Their houses, those which are of a middling size, are of an oblong square, about twenty-four feet long, and eleven wide, with a shelving roof supported on three rows of posts, parallel to each other, one row on each side, and one in the middle. The utmost height within is about nine feet, and the eaves on each side reach to within about three feet and a half from the ground. All the rest is open, no part being inclosed with a wall. The roof is thatched with palm-leaves, and the floor covered some inches deep with soft hay, over which they lay mats, upon which they sit in the day, and sleep in the night. They have no tools among them made of metal; and those they use are made of stones, or some kind of bones. The inhabitants of Otaheite are remarkable for their cleanliness; for both men and women constantly wash their whole bodies in running water three times a day. Their language is soft and melodious, and abounds with vowels. There were no tame animals upon the island but hogs, dogs, and poultry; but the English and Spaniards have since carried thither bulls, cows, sheep, goats, a horse and mare, geese, ducks, peacocks, turkeys, and also cats. The only wild animals are tropical birds, paroquets, pigeons, ducks, and a few other birds; rats, and a very few serpents. The sea, however, supplies the inhabitants with a very great variety of the most excellent fish.

In other countries the men cut their hair short, and the women pride themselves on its length; but here the women always cut it short round their ears, and the men (except the fishers, who are almost continually in the water) suffer it to spread over their shoulders, or tie it up in a bunch on the top. They have the custom of discolouring the skin, by pricking it with a small instrument, the teeth of which are dipped into a mixture of a kind of lamp-black, and this is called tattooing. This is performed upon the youth of both sexes, when they are about twelve or fourteen years of age, on several parts of the body, and in various figures. Their principal manufacture is their cloth, of which there are three kinds, made of the bark of three different kinds of trees. The finest and whitest is made of the Chinese paper-mulberry-tree, and this is chiefly worn by the principal people. Another considerable manufacture is matting, some of which is finer, and in every respect better, than any we have in Europe. The coarser sort serves them to sleep upon, and the finer to wear in wet weather. They are likewise very dexterous in making wicker-work; their baskets are of a thousand different patterns, and many of them exceedingly neat. The inhabitants of Otaheite believe in one supreme Deity, but at the same time acknowledge a variety of subordinate Deities; they offer up their prayers without the use of idols, and believe the existence of the soul in a separate state, where there are two situations, of different degrees of happiness. Among these people a subordination is established, which somewhat resembles the early state of the European nations under the feudal system. If a general attack happens to be made upon the island, every district is obliged to furnish its proportion of soldiers

for the common defence. Their weapons are slings, which they use with great dexterity, and clubs of about six or seven feet long, and made of a hard heavy wood. They have a great number of boats, many of which are constructed for warlike operations.

THE SOCIETY ISLANDS.

OF the several islands so called, and which were discovered by captain Cook*, in the year 1769, the principal are HUAHEINE, ULI-

* At the close of the year 1767, it was resolved by the Royal Society, that it would be proper to send persons into some parts of the South Sea, to observe a transit of the planet Venus over the Sun's disk, which, according to astronomical calculation, would happen in the year 1769: and that the islands called Marquesas de Mendoza, or those of Rotterdam or Amsterdam, were the properest places then known for making such observations. In consequence of these resolutions, it was recommended to his majesty, in a memorial from the society, dated February 1768, that he would be pleased to order such an observation to be made; upon which his majesty signified to the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty his pleasure that a ship should be provided to carry such observers as the society should think fit, to the South Seas; and accordingly a bark, of three hundred and seventy tons, was prepared for that purpose. It was named the Endeavour, and commanded by captain James Cook, who was soon after, by the Royal Society, appointed, with Mr. Charles Green, a gentleman who had long been assistant to Dr. Bradley at the Royal Observatory at Greenwich, to observe the transit. But while this vessel was getting ready for her expedition, captain Wallis returned; and it having been recommended to him by lord Morton, when he went out, to fix on a proper place for this astronomical observation, he, by letter, dated on board the Dolphin, the 18th of May, 1768, the day before he landed at Hastings, mentioned Port Royal harbour, in the island of Otaheite: the Royal Society, therefore, by letter, dated the beginning of June, in answer to an application from the Admiralty, to be informed whither they would have their observers sent, made choice of that place. Captain Cook set sail from Plymouth, in the Endeavour, on the 26th of August, 1768. He was accompanied in his voyage by Joseph Banks, Esq. and Dr. Solander. They made no discovery till they got within the tropic, where they fell in with Lagoon Island, Two Groups, Bird Island, and Chain Island; and they arrived at Otaheite on the 13th of April, 1769. During their stay at that island, they had the opportunity of making very accurate inquiries relative to its produce and inhabitants; and, on the 4th of June, the whole passage of the planet Venus over the Sun's disk was observed by them with great advantage. The result of their observations may be found in the Philosophical Transactions. After his departure from Otaheite, captain Cook discovered and visited the Society Islands and Oheeroa, and thence proceeded to the south till he arrived in the latitude of 40 degrees 22 minutes, longitude 147 degrees 29 minutes W. and afterwards made an accurate survey of the coast of New Zealand. In November he discovered a chain of islands, which he called Barrier Islands. He afterwards proceeded to New Holland, and from thence to New Guinea; and in September, 1770, arrived at the island of Savu, from whence he proceeded to Batavia, and from thence round the Cape of Good Hope to England, where he arrived on the 12th of June, 1771.

Soon after captain Cook's return home in the Endeavour, it was resolved to equip two ships, in order to make farther discoveries in the southern hemi-

TEA, OTAHA, and BOLABOLA. HUAHEINE is about 31 leagues to the north-west of Otaheite, and its productions are exactly the same,

sphere. Accordingly the Resolution and the Adventure were appointed for that purpose; the first was commanded by captain Cook, and the latter by captain Tobias Furneaux. They sailed from Plymouth Sound on the 13th of July, 1772; and on the 29th of the same month arrived at the island of Madeira. From thence they proceeded to the Cape of Good Hope; and in February, 1773, arrived at New Zealand, having sought in vain for a southern continent. In that month the Resolution and the Adventure separated, in consequence of a thick fog, but they joined company again in Queen Charlotte's Sound, on the 18th of May following. In August they arrived at Otaheite; and in September they discovered Harvey's Island. On the second of October they came to Middleburgh, one of the Friendly Islands; and about the close of that month the Resolution and the Adventure were separated, and did not join company any more. Captain Cook, however, proceeded in the Resolution, in order to make discoveries in the southern polar regions, but was stopped in his progress by the ice, in the latitude of 71 degrees 19 minutes south; longitude 100 degrees 54 minutes west. He then proceeded to Easter Island, where he arrived in March, 1774, as he did also in the same month at the Marquesas Islands. He afterwards discovered four islands, which he named Palliser's Islands; and again steered for Otaheite, where he arrived on the 22d of April, and made some stay, and also visited the neighbouring isles. In August he came to the New Hebrides, some of which were first discovered by him. After leaving these islands, he steered to the southward a few days, and discovered New Caledonia. Having surveyed the south-west coast of this island, captain Cook steered again for New Zealand, in order to refresh his crew, and put his ship into a condition to encounter the danger attending the navigation in the high southern latitudes. Directing his course to the south and east, after leaving New Zealand, till he arrived in the latitude of 55 degrees 6 minutes south, longitude 138 degrees 56 minutes west, without meeting with any continent, captain Cook gave up all hopes of discovering any in this ocean; and therefore came to a resolution to steer directly for the west entrance of the Straits of Magellan, with a view of coasting and surveying the outermost or south side of Terra del Fuego. Keeping accordingly in about the latitude of 53 or 55, and steering nearly east, he arrived off the western mouth of the Straits of Magellan, without meeting with any thing remarkable in his new route. In January, 1775, he discovered a large and dreary island, to which he gave the name of South Georgia. He afterwards discovered various capes and elevated snow-clad coasts, to the most southern part of which he gave the name of the Southern Thule, as being the nearest land to that pole which has yet been discovered. In February he discovered Sandwich Land, and several islands covered with snow. He then proceeded round the Cape of Good Hope to England, where he arrived on the 30th of July, 1775. Captain Furneaux had returned to England in the Adventure a year before, having proceeded home round the Cape of Good Hope without making any remarkable discovery. Ten of his men, a boat's crew, had been murdered and eaten by some of the savages of New Zealand; so that this voyage afforded a melancholy proof that cannibals really exist; and, indeed, in the course of these voyages of discovery, other evidence appeared of this fact. As to captain Cook, in the course of his voyage in the Resolution, he had made the circuit of the southern ocean, in a high latitude, and had traversed it in such a manner, as to leave not the least room for the possibility of there being a southern continent, unless near the pole, and out of the reach of navigation. It deserves also to be remembered, in honour of that able commander, captain Cook, that, with a company of a hundred and eighteen men, he performed this voyage of three years and eighteen days, throughout all the climates, from fifty-two degrees north to seventy-one degrees south, with the loss of only one man by sickness; and this appears, in a considerable degree, to have arisen from the great humanity of the commander, and his uncommon care and attention to adopt every method for preserving the health of his men.

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but it appears to be a month forwarder. The inhabitants seem to be larger made, and more stout, than those of Otaheite. Mr. Banks measured one of the men, and found him to be six feet three inches and a half high; yet they are so indolent, that he could not persuade one of them to go up to the hills with him; for they said, if they were to attempt it the fatigue would kill them. The women are fairer than those of Otaheite, and both sexes appear less timid and less curious; though in their dress, language, and almost every other circumstance, they are the same. Their houses are neat, and they have boat-houses that are remarkably large. Ulitea is about seven or eight leagues to the south-westward of Huaheine, and is a much larger island, but appears neither so fertile nor so populous. The principal refreshments to be procured here are plantains, cocoa-nuts, yams, hogs, and fowls; but the two last are rather scarce. Otaha is divided from Ulitea by a strait, that in the narrowest part is not above two miles broad. This island affords two good harbours, and its produce is of the same kind as that of the other islands. About four leagues to the north-west of Otaha lies Bolabola, which is surrounded by a reef of rocks and several small islands, all of which are no more than eight leagues in compass. To these islands, and those of Marua, which lie about fourteen miles to the westward of Bolabola, containing six in all, captain Cook gave the name of Society Islands.

OHETEROA.

THIS island is situate in the latitude of 22 deg. 27 min. south, and in the longitude of 150 deg. 47 min. west from Greenwich. It is thirteen miles in circuit, and rather high than low, but neither so populous nor so fertile as some of the other islands in these seas. The inhabitants are lusty and well made, but are rather browner than those of Otaheite. Their principal weapons are long lances made of etoa wood, which is very hard, and some of them are nearly twenty feet long.

THE NAVIGATORS' ISLANDS.

THESE islands, which were discovered by M. de Bougainville, and explored by the unfortunate De la Pérouse, in 1787, are ten in number, and called by the natives Opoun, Leone, Fanfoue, Maouna, Oyolava, Calinasse, Pola, Shika, Ossamo, and Ogera. Opoun, the most southerly as well as the most easterly of these islands, lies in 14° 7' south latitude, and 169° 7' west longitude. At Maouna, M. de la Pérouse, commander of the French ships the Boussole and Astrolabe, met with his first fatal accident: M. de Langle, captain of the Astrolabe, and eleven officers and sailors, being massacred by the natives. Oyolava is separated from Maouna by a channel

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about nine leagues wide, and is at least equal to Otahaite in extent, fertility, and population. The island of Pola is somewhat smaller than that of Oyolava, but equally beautiful. The eastern islands, Opoun, Leone, and Fanfoue, are small, especially the last two, which are about five miles in circumference; but Maouna, Oyolava, and Pola, may be numbered amongst the largest and most beautiful islands of the South Sea. They combine the advantages of a soil fruitful without culture, and a climate that renders clothing unnecessary. They produce in abundance the bread-fruit, cocoa-nut, the banana, the guava, and the orange. The inhabitants are a strong and handsome race of men. Their usual height is five feet ten or eleven inches, and six feet; but their stature is less astonishing than the colossal proportions of the different parts of their bodies. The men have the body painted or tattooed, so that any one would suppose them clothed, though they go almost naked. They have only a girdle of sea-weeds, encircling their loins, which comes down to their knees, and gives them the appearance of the river gods of mythology. Their hair is very long, and they often twist it round their heads, and thus add to their native ferocity of countenance, which always expresses either surprise or anger. The stature of the women is proportional to that of the men. They are tall, slender, and not without grace, though in general disgusting from their gross effrontery and indecency. The inhabitants of these islands cultivate several arts with success. Their houses have even a kind of elegance, and they finish their work very neatly, with tools made of a very fine and compact species of basalt, in the form of an adze. They manufacture very fine mats, and some paper-stuffs. They are almost continually on the water, and do not go so much as from one village to another on foot, but perform all their journeys in canoes; on which account M. de Bougainville called these islands the Navigators' Islands. Their villages are all situate in creeks by the sea-side, and have no paths from one to the other. In their disposition they appear to be thievish, treacherous, and ferocious.

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THESE islands were so named by captain Cook, in the year 1778, on account of the friendship which appeared to subsist among the inhabitants, and from their courteous behaviour to strangers. Abel Jansen Tasman, an eminent Dutch navigator, first touched here in 1643, and gave names to the principal islands. Captain Cook laboriously explored the whole cluster, which he found to consist of more than sixty. The three islands which Tasman saw, he named New Amsterdam, Rotterdam, and Middleburg. The first is the largest, and extends about twenty-one miles from east to west, and about thirteen from north to south. These islands are inhabited by a race of Indians, who cultivate the earth with great industry. The island of Amsterdam is intersected by straight and pleasant roads, with fruit trees on each side, which afford shade from the scorching heat of the sun.

The principal of these islands are, Tongataboo, or Amsterdam; Eaoowe, or Middleburg; Annamooka, or Rotterdam; Hapae, and Lefooga. The first, which is the largest, lies in $21^{\circ} 9'$ south latitude, and $174^{\circ} 46'$ west longitude. Eaoowe, when viewed from the ship at anchor, formed one of the most beautiful prospects in nature, and very different from the others of the Friendly Isles; which, being low and perfectly level, exhibit nothing to the eye but the trees which cover them: whereas here the land, rising gently to a considerable height, presented an extensive prospect, with groves of trees interspersed at irregular distances, in beautiful disorder; the rest is covered with grass, except near the shores, which are entirely covered with fruit and other trees; amongst which are the habitations of the natives. In order to have a view of as great a part of the island as possible, captain Cook and some of his officers walked up to the highest point of it. From this place they had a view of almost the whole island, which consisted of beautiful meadows, of prodigious extent, adorned with tufts of trees, and intermixed with plantations. "While I was surveying this delightful prospect," says captain Cook, "I could not help flattering myself with the pleasing idea, that some future navigator may, from the same station, behold these meadows stocked with cattle, brought to these islands by the ships of England; and that the completion of this single benevolent purpose, independent of all other considerations, would sufficiently mark to posterity that our voyages had not been useless to the general interests of humanity."

THE MARQUESAS ISLANDS.

THESE islands were first discovered by Quiros in 1595: their situation was better ascertained by captain Cook in 1774. They are five in number, and named St. Christina, Magdalena, St. Dominica, St. Pedro, and Hood. Captain Cook, in his second voyage, lay some time at the first of these, which is situate in $9^{\circ} 55'$ south latitude, and $139^{\circ} 9'$ west longitude. St. Dominica is the largest, about 16 leagues in circuit. The inhabitants, their language, manners, and clothing, with the vegetable productions, are nearly the same as those of the Society Isles.

THE NEW HEBRIDES.

THIS name was given by captain Cook to a cluster of islands, the most northerly of which was seen by Quiros, the Spanish navigator, in 1606, and by him named Terra del Espiritu Santo. From that time until captain Cook's voyage in the Endeavour, in 1769, this land was supposed to be part of a great southern

continent, called *Terra Australis Incognita*. But when captain Cook had sailed round New Zealand, and along the eastern coast of New Holland, this opinion was fully confuted. On his next voyage, in the Resolution, he resolved to explore those parts accurately; and, accordingly, in 1774, besides ascertaining the extent and situation of these islands, discovered several in the group which were before unknown. The New Hebrides are situated between the latitudes of 14 deg. 20 min. and 20 deg. 4 min. south; and between 166 deg. 41 min. and 170 deg. 21 min. east long. They consist of the following islands, some of which have received names from the different European navigators, and others retain the names which they bear among the natives, viz. Terra del Espiritu Santo, Mallicollo, St. Bartholomew, Isle of Lepers, Aurora, Whitsuntide, Ambrym, Immer, Appee, Three Hills, Sandwich, Montagu, Hinchinbrook, Shepherd, Eorromanga, Ironnan, Annatom, and Tanna.

Not far distant from the New Hebrides, and south-westward of them, lies NEW CALEDONIA, a very large island, first discovered by captain Cook, in 1774. It is about eighty-seven leagues long, but its breadth does not any where exceed ten leagues. It is inhabited by a race of stout, tall, well-proportioned Indians, of a swarthy or dark chesnut brown. A few leagues distant, are two small islands, called the Island of Pines, and Botany Island.

NEW ZEALAND.

THIS country was first discovered by Tasman, the Dutch navigator, in the year 1642, who gave it the name of Staten Land, though it has been generally distinguished in our maps and charts by the name of New Zealand, and was supposed to be part of a southern continent; but it is now known, from the late discoveries of captain Cook, who sailed round it, to consist of two large islands, divided from each other by a strait four or five leagues broad. They are situate between the latitudes of 34 and 48 degrees south, and between the longitudes of 166 and 180 degrees east from Greenwich. One of these islands is for the most part mountainous, rather barren, and but thinly inhabited; but the other is much more fertile, and of a better appearance. In the opinion of sir Joseph Banks and Dr. Solander, every kind of European fruits, grain, and plants, would flourish here in the utmost luxuriance. From the vegetables found here, it is supposed that the winters are milder than those in England, and the summers not hotter, though more equably warm: so that it is imagined, that if this country were settled by people from Europe, they would, with moderate industry, be soon supplied not only with the necessaries, but the luxuries of life, in great abundance. Here are forests of vast extent, filled with very large timber trees; and near four hundred plants were found here that had not been described by naturalists. The inhabitants of New Zealand are stout and robust, and equal in stature to the largest Europeans. Their colour in general is brown, but in few deeper than that of a Spaniard who has been exposed to the sun, and in many not so deep; and both

sexes have good features. Their dress is very uncouth, and they mark or tattoo their bodies in a manner similar to the inhabitants of Otaheite. Their principal weapons are lances, darts, and a kind of battle-axes; and they have generally shown themselves very hostile to the Europeans who have visited them.

NEW HOLLAND,

THE largest island in the world, and formerly supposed to be a part of that imaginary continent, called Terra Australis Incognita, lies between 10 deg. 30 min. and 43 deg. south latitude, and between 110 and 153 deg. 30 min. east longitude; equalling in extent the whole continent of Europe, the eastern coast running not less than 2000 miles in length from north-east to south-west. Its dimensions from east to west have not been so exactly ascertained, as we are obliged to take our information concerning them from the accounts of navigators of different nations, who visited this part of the world at a time when the method of making observations, and finding the latitudes and longitudes of places, was less accurate than it is now. Different parts of the country have been called by the names of the discoverers, as Van Diemen's land*, Carpentaria, &c. and though the general appellation of the whole was New Holland, it is now applied by geographers to the north and west parts of the country. The eastern part, called New South Wales, was taken possession of in his majesty's name by captain Cook, and now forms a part of the British dominions, a colony having been formed there, chiefly of the convicts sentenced to transportation.

The accounts of the climate and soil of this extensive country, now become an object of importance to Great Britain, are very various: different parts have been explored at different times, and at different seasons of the year. In general, however, the relations are by no means favourable; the sea-coast, the only place on which any inhabitants have been discovered, appear to be sandy and barren; and as for the inland parts, which might reasonably be supposed more fertile, they are now thought to be wholly uninhabited; but whether this proceeds from the natural sterility of the soil, or the barbarity of the inhabitants, who know not how to cultivate it, is not yet discovered.

That celebrated navigator, captain Cook, spent upwards of four months in surveying the eastern coast, the extent of which, as has already been mentioned, is nearly 2000 miles. The bay in which he anchored, from the great quantity of undescribed plants found on the shore, was called Botany Bay, and is the place for which the convicts were originally destined; though now they are settled in another part of the island, about fifteen miles to the northward, named, by captain Cook, Port Jackson, the principal settlement being called Sydney Cove.

* This has lately been discovered to be an island 160 miles long and 80 broad, separated from New Holland by a channel 30 leagues wide.

This was not visited or explored by captain Cook; it was seen at the distance of between two and three miles from the coast; but, had fortune conducted him into the harbour, he would have found it much more worthy of his attention, as a seaman, than Botany Bay, where he passed a week. From an entrance not more than two miles broad, Port Jackson gradually extends into a noble and capacious basin, having sounding sufficient for the largest vessels, and space to accommodate, in perfect security, any number that could be assembled. It runs, chiefly in a western direction, about thirteen miles into the country, and contains no less than a hundred small coves formed by narrow necks of land, whose projections afford shelter from the winds.

SYDNEY COVE lies on the south side of the harbour, between five and six miles from the entrance. The neck of land that forms this cove is mostly covered with wood, yet is so rocky, that it is not easy to comprehend how the trees could have found sufficient nourishment to bring them to so considerable a magnitude. The soil in other parts of the coast, immediately about Port Jackson, is of various qualities. This neck of land, which divides the south end of the harbour from the sea, is chiefly sand. Between Sydney Cove and Botany Bay the first space is occupied by a wood, in some parts a mile and a half, in others three miles broad. Beyond that, is a kind of heath, poor, sandy, and full of swamps; but as far as the eye can reach to the westward, the country is one continued wood.

The climate at Sydney Cove is considered, on the whole, as equal to the finest in Europe. The rains are never of long duration, and there are seldom any fogs. The soil, though in general light and rather sandy in this part, is full as good as usually is found so near the sea-side. All the plants and fruit-trees brought from Brasil and the Cape, which were not damaged in the passage, thrive exceedingly; and vegetables have now become plentiful, both the European sorts, and such as are peculiar to New South Wales.

The natives of New Holland, in general, seem to have no great aversion to the new settlers; the only acts of hostility they ever committed were on account of their occupying the fishing-grounds which the New Hollanders justly supposed to belong to themselves. They appear, however, to be in too savage a state to be capable as yet of deriving any instruction from their new neighbours. They are so ignorant of agriculture, that it seems most probable they do not even know the use of corn, and therefore, perhaps more from ignorance than malice, set fire to that which the colonists had raised for their own use. They are of a low stature and ill made: their noses are flat, their nostrils wide, their eyes sunk, their eye-brows and lips thick, with a mouth of prodigious width, but the teeth white and even. Both sexes go entirely naked, and seem to have no more shame in discovering the whole body than we have in discovering our hands and face. They however have their ornaments: they paint themselves with various colours; and some of them perforate the cartilage of the nose and thrust a large bone or reed through it, which captain Cook's sailors humorously called their *sprit-sail-yard*. Most of the men want one of the foreteeth in the upper jaw; and it is common for the women to cut off two joints of the little finger. They are extremely superstitious, but active, vigorous, and display great personal bravery on the appearance of danger.

For a more particular account of this new settlement, we refer our readers to the Voyage of Governor Philip to Botany Bay; and Collins's History of the Colony of New South Wales.

NEW GUINEA,

TILL the late discoveries, was thought to be the north coast of an extensive continent, and to be joined to New Holland; but captain Cook discovered a strait between them, which runs north-east, through which he sailed. Thus it was found to be a long narrow island, extending north-east from the second degree of south latitude to the twelfth, and from one hundred and thirty-one to one hundred and fifty degrees east longitude; but in one part it does not appear to be above fifty miles broad. The country consists of a mixture of very high hills and valleys, interspersed with groves of cocoa-nut trees, plantains, bread fruit, and most of the trees, shrubs, and plants, that are found on the other South Sea islands. It affords from the sea a variety of delightful prospects. The inhabitants make nearly the same appearance as the New Hollanders on the other side of the straits.

To the north of New Guinea is New Britain, which is situate in the fourth degree of south latitude, and one hundred and fifty-two deg. nineteen min. east longitude from Greenwich. It was supposed to be part of an imaginary continent, till captain Dampier found it to be an island, and sailed through a strait which divides it from New Guinea. Captain Carteret, in his voyage round the world, in 1767, found it was of much less extent than it was till then imagined to be, by sailing through another strait to the north, which separates it from a long island, to which he gave the name of New Ireland. There are many high hills in New Britain, and it abounds with large and stately trees. To the eastward of New Britain, and in both the above straits, are many islands, most of which are said to be extremely fertile, and to abound with plantains and cocoa-nut trees.

NEW IRELAND extends in length, from the north-east to the south-west, about two hundred and seventy miles, but is in general very narrow. It abounds with a variety of trees and plants, and with many pigeons, parrots, rooks, and other birds. The inhabitants are black and woolley-headed, like the negroes of Guinea, but have not their flat noses and thick lips. North-westward of New Ireland, a cluster of islands was seen by captain Carteret, lying very near each other, and supposed to consist of twenty or thirty in number. One of these, which is of very considerable extent, was named NEW HANOVER; the rest of the cluster received the name of the ADMIRALTY ISLANDS.

THE PELEW ISLANDS.

THE existence and situation of these islands were probably known to the Spaniards at a distant period ; but from a report among the neighbouring islands, of their being inhabited by a savage race of canibals, it appears that there never had been the least communication between them and any of the Europeans, till the Antelope packet (belonging to the East-India company) was wrecked on one of them, in August 1783. From the accounts given of these islands, by captain Wilson, who commanded the packet, it appears that they are situate between the 5th and 9th degrees north latitude, and between 130 and 136 degrees of east longitude from Greenwich, and lie in a N. E. and S. W. direction. They are long but narrow, of a moderate height, and well covered with wood ; the climate temperate and agreeable ; the lands produce sugar-cane, yams, cocoa-nuts, plantains, bananas, oranges, and lemons ; and the surrounding seas abound with the finest and greatest variety of fish.

The natives of these islands are a stout, well-made people, above the middle stature ; their complexions are of a far deeper colour than what is understood by the Indian copper, but not black. The men go entirely naked, and the women wear only two small aprons, one behind and one before, made of the husks of the cocoa-nut dyed with different shades of yellow.

The government is monarchical, and the king is absolute, but his power is exercised more with the mildness of a father than a sovereign. In the language of Europeans, he is the fountain of honour ; he occasionally creates his nobles, called Rupacks or chiefs, and confers a singular honour of knighthood, called the Order of the Bone, the members of which are distinguished by wearing a bone on their arm.

The idea which the account published by captain Wilson gives us of these islanders, is that of a people who, though naturally ignorant of the arts and sciences, and living in the simplest state of nature, yet possess all that genuine politeness, that delicacy, and chastity of intercourse between the sexes, that respect for personal property, that subordination to government, and those habits of industry, which are so rarely united in the more civilised societies of modern times.

It appears that when the English were thrown on one of these islands, they were received by the natives with the greatest humanity and hospitality ; and, till their departure, experienced the utmost courtesy and attention. " They felt our people were distressed, and in consequence wished they should share whatever they had to give. It was not that worldly munificence that bestows and spreads its favours with a distant eye to retribution. It was the pure emotion of native benevolence. It was the love of man to man. It was a scene that pictures human nature in triumphant colouring ; and whilst their liberality gratified the sense, their virtue struck the heart."

INGRAHAM'S ISLANDS.

THESE islands were discovered by captain Joseph Ingraham, of Boston, commander of the brigantine Hope, on the 19th of April, 1791. They lie N. N. W. from the Marquesas Islands, from 35 to 50 leagues distant, in about 9 of south latitude, and from 140 to 141 west longitude from London. They are seven in number, and were named by captain Ingraham, Washington, Adams, Lincoln, Federal, Franklin, Hancock, Knox.

Most, if not all of these islands are inhabited, and appear generally to be diversified with hills and valleys, and to be well wooded, and very pleasant. The people resemble those of the Marquesas Islands, as do their canoes, which are carved at each end. They appeared friendly.

SANDWICH ISLANDS.

BESIDES the voyages of discovery already mentioned, another voyage was performed by captain Cook and captain Clerke, in the Resolution and Discovery, during the years 1776, 1777, 1778, and 1779, in search of a north-west passage between the continents of Asia and America. After they arrived at the Cape of Good Hope, they proceeded from thence to New Holland. In their course they discovered two islands which captain Cook called Prince Edward's Isles. The largest, about 15 leagues in circuit, is in latitude 46-58 south; long. 37-46; the other, about nine leagues in circuit, lat. 46-40; and long. 38-8, east, both barren, and almost covered with snow. From New Holland they sailed to New Zealand, and afterwards they visited the Friendly and the Society Isles. In January, 1777, they arrived at the Sandwich Isles, which are twelve in number, and are situate between 22 deg. 15 min. and 18 deg. 53 min. north lat. The air of these islands is in general salubrious, and many of the vegetable productions are the same with those of the Society and Friendly Isles. The inhabitants are of a middle size, stout, and well made, and their complexion in general a brown olive. On the 7th of February, being nearly in lat. 44 deg. 33 min. north, and long. 235 deg. 36 min. east, they saw part of the American continent, bearing north-east. They afterwards discovered King George's Sound, which is situate on the north-west coast of America, and is extensive: that part of it where the ships under the command of captain Cook anchored, is in lat. 49 deg. 36 min. north, and long. 233 deg. 28 min. east. The whole sound is surrounded by high land, which in some places appears very broken and rugged; and is in general covered with wood to the very top. They found the inhabitants here rather below the middle size, and their complexions approaching to a copper colour. On the 12th of May, they discovered Sandwich Sound in lat. 59 deg. 54 min. north. The harbour, in which the ships anchored, appeared to be almost surrounded

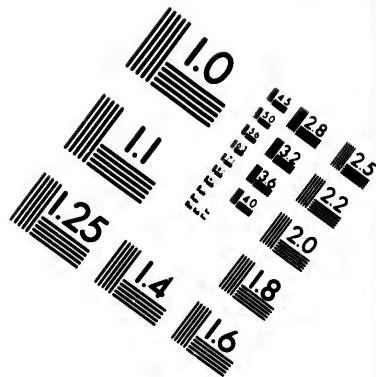
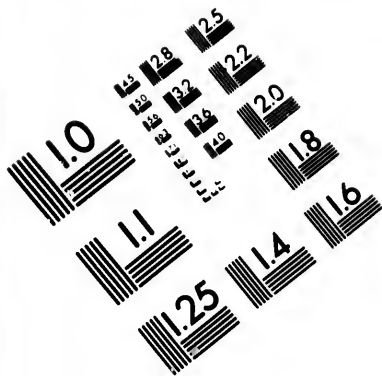
with high land, which was covered with snow; and here they were visited by some of the Americans in their canoes. They afterwards proceeded to the island of Unalashka; and after their departure from thence, still continued to trace the American coast, till they discovered the strait which separates it from the continent of Asia. Here both the hemispheres presented to the view a naked and flat country, without any defence, and the sea between them not very deep. They passed the strait, and arrived on the 20th of August, 1778, in lat. 70 deg. 54 min. long. 194 deg. 55 min. where they found themselves almost surrounded with ice, and the farther they proceeded to the eastward the closer the ice became compacted. They continued labouring among the ice till the 25th, when a storm came on, which made it dangerous for them to proceed; and a consultation was therefore held on board the Resolution, as soon as the violence of the gale abated, when it was resolved, that as this passage was impracticable for any useful purpose of navigation, which was the great object of the voyage, it should be prosecuted no farther; and especially on account of the condition the ships were in, the approach of winter, and their great distance from any known place of refreshment. The voyage, indeed, afforded sufficient evidence, that no practicable passage exists between the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans towards the north; and this voyage also ascertained the western boundaries of the great continent of America. On their return, it unfortunately happened that the celebrated and able navigator, captain Cook, was killed in an affray with the natives on the island of O'why'hee, one of the Sandwich Isles, on the 14th of February, 1779; not so much by his own rashness, as through the inadvertence and neglect of some of his own people. His death was universally regretted, not only in Great Britain, but also in other parts of Europe, by those to whom his merits and public services were known. In his last voyage he had explored the coast of America, from 42 deg. 27 min. to 70 deg. 40 min. 57 sec. north. After the death of captain Cook, the command devolved on captain Clerke, who died at sea on his return to the southward on the 22d day of August, 1779. The two ships returned home by the Cape of Good Hope, and on the 5th of October, 1780, anchored at the Nore.

We cannot conclude this article without inserting the following character of captain Cook, to perpetuate the memory and services of so excellent a navigator.

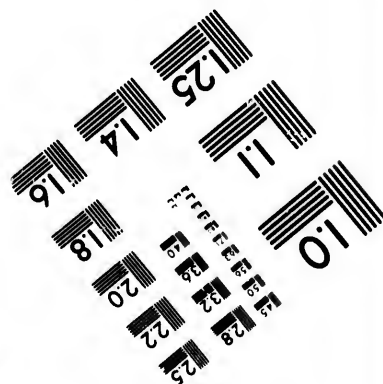
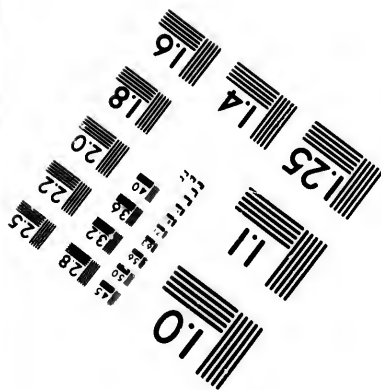
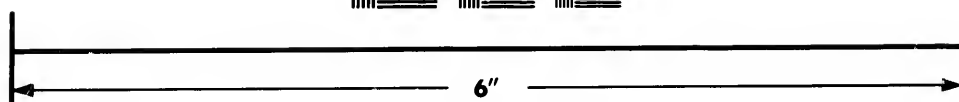
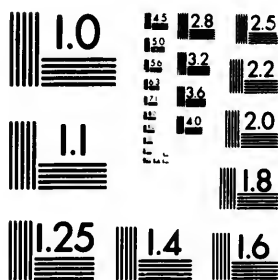
“ Perhaps no science ever received greater additions from the labours of a single man than geography has done from those of captain Cook. In his first voyage to the South Seas, he discovered the Society Islands; determined the insularity of New Zealand; discovered the straits which separate the two islands, and are called after his name; and made a complete survey of both. He afterwards explored the eastern coast of New Holland, hitherto unknown—an extent of twenty-seven degrees of latitude, or upwards of two thousand miles.

“ In his second expedition, he resolved the great problem of a southern continent, having traversed that hemisphere between the latitude of forty and seventy degrees, in such a manner as not to leave a possibility of its existence, unless near the pole, and out of the reach of navigation. During this voyage he discovered New Caledonia, the largest island in the Southern Pacific Ocean, except New Zealand; the Island of Georgia; and an unknown coast.





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which he named Sandwich Land, the *Thule* of the southern hemisphere; and having twice visited the tropical seas, he settled the situations of the old, and made several new discoveries.

“ But the last voyage is distinguished above all the rest, by the extent and importance of its discoveries. Besides several smaller islands in the Southern Pacific, he discovered to the north of the equinoctial line the group called the Sandwich Islands, which, from their situation and productions, bid fairer for becoming an object of consequence in the system of European navigation than any other discovery in the South Sea. He afterwards explored what had hitherto remained unknown of the western coast of America, from the latitude of forty-three to seventy degrees north, containing an extent of three thousand and five hundred miles; ascertained the proximity of the two great continents of Asia and America; passed the straits between them, and surveyed the coast on each side, to such a height of northern latitude, as to demonstrate the impracticability of a passage, in that hemisphere, from the Atlantic into the Pacific Ocean, either by an eastern or a western coast. In short, if we except the Sea of Amur, and the Japanese archipelago, which still remain imperfectly known to Europeans, he has completed the hydrography of the habitable globe.

“ The method which he discovered, and so successfully pursued, of preserving the health of seamen, forms a new era in navigation, and will transmit his name to future ages amongst the friends and benefactors of mankind.

“ Those who are conversant in naval history need not be told at how dear a rate the advantages which have been sought through the medium of long voyages at sea have always been purchased. That dreadful disorder which is peculiar to their service, and whose ravages have marked the tracks of discoverers with circumstances almost too shocking to relate, must, without exercising an unwarrantable tyranny over the lives of our seamen, have proved an insuperable obstacle to the prosecution of such enterprises. It was reserved for captain Cook to show the world, by repeated trials, that voyages might be protracted to the unusual length of three, or even four years, in unknown regions, and under every change and rigour of the climate, not only without affecting the health, but even without diminishing the probability of life, in the smallest degree.”

NORTH WEST COAST OF AMERICA.

FROM the observations made by captain Cook on the inhabitants of the western coast of North America, in the neighbourhood of Prince William's Sound, and to the latitude of 64 deg. north, it appeared that a strong similarity was discernible between them and the Esquimaux on the eastern coast; whence it was conjectured by some that a communication by sea existed between the eastern and western sides of that continent. In support of this conjecture old accounts were revived of the discoveries of John de Fuca, and De Fonte or De Fuentes; the one a Greek pilot, who made his voyage in 1492

and the other a Spanish or Portuguese admiral, who sailed in 1640. John de Fuca had related that between the 47th and 48th degrees of north latitude he had entered a broad inlet which led him into a far broader sea, wherein he sailed above twenty days; and De Fonte had sailed through crooked channels in an extensive archipelago 260 leagues, and 60 leagues up a navigable river which flowed into it, in 53 degrees of north latitude, and communicated, by other lakes and rivers, with a passage in which a ship had arrived from Boston in New England. The truth of these ancient accounts appeared to be strongly corroborated, some years since, by the discovery said to be made by one Mr. Etches, who had fitted out some ships for the fur trade, that all the western coast of America, from lat. 48° to 57° north, was no continued tract of land, but a chain of islands which had never been explored, and that these concealed the entrance to a vast inland sea, like the Baltic or Mediterranean in Europe, and which seemed likewise to be full of islands. Among these, Mr. Etches' ship, the *Princess Royal*, was said to have penetrated several hundred leagues, in a north-east direction, till they came within 200 leagues of Hudson's Bay; but as the intention of their voyage was merely commercial, they had not time fully to explore the archipelago just mentioned, nor did they arrive at the termination of this new Mediterranean sea.

The existence of any such inland sea is, however, now completely disproved by the voyage of the late captain Vancouver, who, during the summers of 1792, 1793, and 1794, explored and accurately surveyed the whole western coast of North America, from lat. 30° to 60°. Between the 47th and 57th degrees of north latitude, there is indeed an archipelago, composed of innumerable islands and crooked channels; but he no where found either the inlet of John de Fuca, the river of De Fonte, or the inland sea of Mr. Etches' ship.—“The precision,” says captain Vancouver, “with which the survey of the coast of North-West America has been carried into effect, will, I trust, remove every doubt, and set aside every opinion of a *north-west passage*, or any water communication navigable for shipping, existing between the North Pacific and the interior of the American continent, within the limits of our researches.”

This coast, with very little deviation, has the appearance of one continued forest, being covered with pines of different species, intermixed with alder, birch, and other trees. The natives of the northern parts are in general short in stature, with faces flat and round, high cheek-bones, and flat noses. They have some very peculiar customs of mutilating or disfiguring their persons, probably by way of ornament, though to us they appear disgusting and even hideous. At Port Trinidad, in lat. 41 deg. north, the custom, says captain Vancouver, “was particularly singular, and must be attended with much pain in the first instance, and great inconvenience ever after. All the teeth of both sexes were, by some process, ground uniformly down, horizontally to the gums; the women especially, carrying the fashion to an extreme, had their teeth reduced even below this level; and ornamented the lower lip with three perpendicular rows of puncturation, one from each corner of the mouth, and one in the middle, occupying three-fifths of the lip and chin.” On other parts of this coast the women make a horizontal incision in the under lip, extending from one corner of the mouth to the other, entirely through the flesh, which bridle is by degrees sufficiently stretched to admit an

AMERICA.

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his voyage in 1592

ornament made of wood, which is confined close to the gums of the lower jaw, with the external surface projecting horizontally. These wooden ornaments are oval, and resemble a small oval platter or dish, made concave on both sides: they are of various sizes; some of them above three inches in length, and an inch and a half broad. The chief object of civilized nations in navigating this coast, hitherto, has been to traffic with the natives for furs, which they give in exchange for pieces of iron, nails, beads, pen-knives, and other trifling trinkets. These furs are carried to China, and disposed of at a great profit. The skins obtained are those of the sea-otter, racoon, pine-martin, land-beaver, and earless marmot. Ginseng, copper, oil, and some other commodities, might also be procured.

In 1788, some English merchants, engaged in this trade, formed a settlement in King George's Sound, since called Nootka Sound, from the name by which it is called by the natives. The Spaniards, however, being jealous of the intrusion of the English into a part of the world which they long regarded as their exclusive property, sent a frigate from Mexico, which captured two English vessels, and took possession of the settlement. The British ministry, on receiving intelligence of this transaction, fitted out a powerful armament to give weight to their demand of reparation; but the affair was amicably terminated by a convention in 1790.

Nootka Sound is situate in lat. $49^{\circ} 33'$ north, long. $126^{\circ} 48'$ west, on an island about 300 miles in length and 80 in breadth, named by captain Vancouver, in 1792, Quadra and Vancouver's Island, in compliment to senor Quadra, the spanish commandant at Nootka.

A NEW GEOGRAPHICAL TABLE,

Containing the Names and Situations of the chief Cities, Towns, Seas, Gulfs, Bays, Straits, Capes, and other remarkable Places in the known World. Collected from the most authentic Charts, Maps, and Observations.

<i>Names of Places.</i>	<i>Provinces.</i>	<i>Countries, or Seas.</i>	<i>Quarter.</i>	<i>Lat. D.M.</i>	<i>Long. D.M.</i>
Abbeville,	Somme,	France,	Europe	50-7 N.	1-50 E.
Aberdeen,	Aberdeenshire,	Scotland,	Europe	57-22 N.	1-45 W.
Abo,	Finland,	Sweden,	Europe	60-27 N.	22-13 E.
Acapulco,		Mexico,	N. America	17-10 N.	101-20 W.
Achem,	Sumatra,	East India,	Asia	5-22 N.	95-34 E.
Adrianople,	Romania,	Turkey,	Europe	41-45 N.	26-27 E.
Adriatic sea, or Gulf of Venice		between Italy and Turkey,	Europe		Mediterranean Sea.
Adventure Isle		Pacific Ocean,	Asia	17-05 S.	144-17 W.
Agde,	Herault,	France,	Europe	43-18 N.	3-27 E.
Agen,	Aveiron,	France,	Europe	44-12 N.	0-36 E.
St. Agnes (lights),	Scillies,	Atlant. Ocean,	Europe	49-56 N.	6-46 W.
Agra,	Agra,	East India,	Asia,	26-43 N.	76-44 E.
Aix,	Mouths of the Rhone,	France,	Europe	43-31 N.	5-8 E.
Albany,	New York,	United States,	N. America	42-39 N.	73-30 W.
Alby,	Tarn,	France,	Europe	43-55 N.	2-08 E.
Aleppo,	Syria,	Turkey,	Asia	35-11 N.	37-10 E.
Alexandretta,	Syria,	Turkey,	Asia	36-35 N.	36-25 E.
Alexandria,	Lower Egypt,	Turkey,	Africa	31-11 N.	30-10 E.
Algiers,	Algiers,	Barbary,	Africa	36-49 N.	2-12 E.
Amboyna,	Amboyna Isle,	East India,	Asia	4-25 S.	127-25 E.
Ambryn Isle,		S. Pacific Ocean,	Asia	16-09 S.	168-12 E.
Amiens,	Somme,	France,	Europe	49-53 N.	2-18 E.
AMSTERDAM,	Holland,	Netherlands,	Europe	52-21 N.	4-51 E.
Amsterdam Isle,		Pacific Ocean,	Asia	21-09 S.	174-46 W.
Ancona,	March of Ancona,	Italy,	Europe	43-37 N.	13-29 E.
Angra,	Tercera Isle,	Atlantic Ocean,	Europe	38-39 N.	27-12 W.
Antigua (St. John's town)	Antigua Isle,	Carib. Sea,	N. America	17-04 N.	62-09 W.
Antioch,	Syria,	Turkey,	Asia	36-10 N.	36-40 E.
Antwerp,	Brabant,	Netherlands,	Europe	51-13 N.	04-23 E.
Archipelago,		Islands of Greece,	Europe		Mediterranean Sea.
Apø Isle,		Pacific Ocean,	Asia	16-46 S.	168-27 E.
Archangel,	Archangel,	Russia,	Europe	64-34 N.	38-59 E.
Ascension Isle,	South Atlant. Ocean,	Africa		7-56 N.	14-00 W.
Astracan,	Astracan,	Russia,	Asia	46-00 N.	47-40 E.
Athens,	Livadia,	Turkey,	Europe	38-05 N.	23-52 E.
St. Augustin,	Madagascar,	South Ind. Sea,	Africa	23-35 S.	43-08 E.
Aurora Isle,		S. Pacific Ocean,	Asia	15-08 S.	168-17 E.

Names of Places.	Provinces.	Countries, or Seas.	Quarter.	Lat. Long.	
				D. M.	D. M.
Ava,	Ava,	East India,	Asia	20-20N.	95-30 E.
Avignon,	Vaucluse,	France,	Europe	43-57N.	04-53 E.
Ayr,	Ayrshire,	Scotland,	Europe	55-30N.	4-40W.
B agdad,	Eyrac Arabia,	Turkey,	Asia	33-20N.	43-51 E.
Balasure,	Orissa,	East India,	Asia	21-20N.	86-05 E.
Balbec,	Syria,	Turkey,	Asia	33-30N.	37-00 E.
Baldivia,	Chili,	South America	39-35S.	73-20W.	
Baltic sea,	between	Ger.andSwed.	Europe		
Barcelona,	Catalonia,	Spain,	Europe	41-23N.	02-13 E.
Barbuda Isle,		Atlant. Ocean,	N. Ame-rica	17-49N.	61-50W.
Basse Terre,	Guadaloupe,	Carib. Sea,	N. Ame-rica	15-59N.	61-59W.
Basil,	Basil,	Switzerland,	Europe	47-35N.	07-30 E.
Bassora,	Eyrac Arabia,	Turkey,	Asia	30-45 N.	47-00 E.
Bastia,	Corsica,	Italy,	Europe	42-30 N.	09-40 E.
Batavia,	Java,	East India,	Asia	06-12 S.	106-53 E.
Bath,	Somersetshire,	England,	Europe	51-22N.	02-16W.
Bay of Bengal,	Coast of	India,	Asia		Indian Ocean.
Bay of Biscay,	Coast of	France,	Europe		Atlantic Ocean.
Bayeux,	Calvados,	France,	Europe	49-16N.	00-43W.
Bayonne,	Lo. Pyrenes,	France,	Europe	43-29N.	01-25W.
Belfast,	Autrim,	Ireland,	Europe	54-35N.	5-52W.
Belgrade,	Servia,	Turkey,	Europe	45-00 N.	21-20 E.
Bencoolen,	Sunatra,	East India,	Asia	03-49 S.	102-15 E.
Bender,	Bessarabia,	Turkey,	Europe	46-40 N.	29-00 E.
BERLIN,	Brandenburg,	Germany,	Europe	52-32 N.	13-22 E.
Bermudas,	Bermuda Isles,	Atlant. Ocean,	N. Ame-rica	32-35N.	63-23W.
Bern,	Bern,	Switzerland,	Europe	47-00 N.	07-20 E.
Berwick,	Berwickshire,	Scotland,	Europe	55-48 N.	01-45W.
Bilboa,	Biscay,	Spain,	Europe	43-26N.	03-18W.
Birmingham,	Warwicksh.,	England,	Europe	52-30N.	01-50W.
Black, or Eux- ine sea,		Turkey in Europe and Asia			
Bolabola Isle,		Pacific Ocean,	Asia	16-32 S.	151-47W.
Bologna,	Bolognese,	Italy,	Europe	44-29 N.	11-26 E.
Bolscheriskoi,	Siberia,	Russia,	Asia	52-54 N.	156-42 E.
Bombay,	Bombay Isle,	East India,	Asia	18-56 N.	72-43 E.
Boroughston-Linlithgowsh. ness,		Scotland,	Europe	53-48N.	03-44W.
Boston,	Lincolnshire;	England,	Europe	53-10 N.	00-25 E.
Boston,	New England,	North America	42-25N.	70-32W.	
Boulogne,	Straits of Calais,	France,	Europe	50-43 N.	1-31 E.
Bourbon Isle,		Indian Ocean,	Africa	20-51 S.	55-25 E.
Bourdeaux,	Gironde,	France,	Europe	44-50N.	00-29W.
Breda,	Brabant,	Netherlands,	Europe	51-40 N.	04-40 E.
Bremen,	Low. Saxony,	Germany,	Europe	53-25 N.	08-20 E.
BRESLAW,	Silesia,	Bohemia,	Europe	51-03 N.	17-13 E.
Brest,	Finisterre	France,	Europe	48-22N.	04-29W.
Bridge-town,	Barbadoes,	Atlant. Ocean,	N. Ame-rica	13-05N.	58-35W.

<i>Lat.</i> D. M.	<i>Long.</i> D. M.	<i>Names of Places. Provinces.</i>	<i>Countries, or Seas.</i>	<i>Quarter.</i>	<i>Lat.</i> D. M.	<i>Long.</i> D. M.
20-20N.	95-30 E.	Bristol,	Somersetshire, England,	Europe	51-33N.	02-40W.
43-57N.	04-53 E.	Bruges,	Flanders, Netherlands,	Europe	51-16 N	03-05 E.
55-30N.	4-40W.	Brunswick,	Low. Saxony, Germany,	Europe	52-30 N.	10-30 E.
		Brussels,	Brabant, Netherlands,	Europe	50-51 N.	04-26 E.
33-20N.	43-51 E.	Bucharia,	Usbec Tartary,	Asia	39-15 N.	67-00 E.
21-20N.	86-05 E.	Bucharest,	Walachia, Turkey,	Europe	44-26 N.	26-13 E.
33-30N.	37-00 E.	Buda,	Lower Hungary,	Europe	47-40 N.	19-20 E.
39-35S.	73-20W.	Buenos Ayres,	La Plata, Paraguay,	South America	A-34-35 S.	58-26W.
41-23N.	02-13 E.	Burlington,	Jersey,	N. America	40-08N.	75-00W.
e-17-49N.	61-50W.					
e-15-59N.	61-59W.	Cabello P.,	Terra Firma,	South America	10-30N.	67-27W.
		CACHAO,	Touquin, East India,	Asia	21-30N.	105-00 E.
		Cadiz,	Andalusia, Spain,	Europe	36-31N.	6-06W.
47-35N.	07-30 E.	Caen,	Calvados, France,	Europe	49-11N.	0-16 W.
30-45 N.	47-00 E.	Cagliari,	Sardinia, Italy,	Europe	39-25 N.	9-38 E.
42-30N.	09-40 E.	Cahors,	Lot, France,	Europe	44-26 N.	1-31 E.
06-12 S.	106-53 E.	Cairo,	Lower Egypt,	Africa	30-02 N.	31-23 E.
51-22N.	02-16W.	Calais,	Straits of Calais, France,	Europe	50-57 N.	1-55 E.
	Indian Ocean.	Calcutta,	Bengal, East India,	Asia	22-34 N.	88-34 E.
	Atlantic Ocean.	Callao,	Peru,	S. America	12-01 N.	76-53W.
49-16N.	00-43W.	Calmar,	Smaland, Sweden,	Europe	56-40 N.	16-26 E.
43-29N.	01-25W.	Cambodia,	Cambodia, East India,	Asia	13-30 N.	105-00 E.
54-35N.	5-52W.	Cambray,	North, France,	Europe	50-10 N.	3-18 E.
45-00 N.	21-20 E.	Cambridge,	Cambridge-shire, England,	Europe	52-12 N.	0-00 E.
03-49 S.	102-15 E.	Cambridge,	New England,	N. Ame-	42-25N.	71-05W.
46-40 N.	29-00 E.			rica		
52-32 N.	13-23 E.	Campbeltown,	Argyleshire, Scotland,	Europe	55-30 N.	5-40W.
e-32-35N.	63-23W.	Canary, N. E. Canary Isles,	Atlant. Ocean, Africa	23-13 N.	15-33W.	
		Point,				
47-00 N.	07-20 E.	Candia,	Candia Island, Mediterr. Sea,	Europe	35-18 N.	25-23 E.
55-48N.	01-45W.	Candy,	Ceylon, Indian Ocean,	Asia	7-54 N.	79-00 E.
43-26N.	03-18W.	Canso Port,	Nova Scotia,	North America	45-20 N.	60-50W.
52-30N.	01-50W.	Canterbury,	Kent, England,	Europe	51-18 N.	1-14 E.
		Canton,	Canton, China,	Asia	23-07 N.	113-07 E.
16-32 S.	151-47W.	Cape Clear,	Irish Sez.,	Europe	51-18 N.	9-50W.
44-29 N.	11-26 E.	— Comorin,	East India,	Asia	7-56 N.	78-10 E.
52-54 N.	156-42 E.	— Finisterre,	Galicia, Spain,	Europe	42-51 N.	9-12W.
18-56 N.	72-43 E.	— Florida,	East Florida,	North America	24-57 N.	80-30W.
e 53-48N.	03-44W.	— of Good Hope,	Caffraria,	Africa	34-29 S.	18-28 E.
53-10 N.	00-25 E.	— Horn,	Terra del Fu-	South America	55-58 S.	67-21W.
a 42-25N.	70-32W.		ego Island,			
e 50-43 N.	1-31 E.	— Verd,	Negroland,	Africa	14-45 N.	17-28W.
e 20-51 S.	55-25 E.	— St. Vincent,	Algarve, Portugal,	Europe	37-02 N.	8-57W.
e 44-50N.	00-29W.	Cardigan,	Cardiganshire, Wales,	Europe	52-10 N.	4-38W.
e 51-40 N.	04-40 E.	Carlescroon,	Schonen, Sweden,	Europe	56-07 N.	15-31 E.
e 53-25 N.	08-20 E.	Carlisle,	Cumberland, England,	Europe	54-47 N.	2-53W.
e 51-03 N.	17-13 E.	Carthagena,	Murcia, Spain,	Europe	37-37 N.	1-08W.
e 48-22N.	04-29W.	Carthagena,	Terra Firma,	South America	10-26N.	75-42W.
ce-13-05N.	58-35W.	Casan,	Casan, Russia,	Asia	55-43 N.	49-13 E.
		Caspian Sea,	Russia, Tartary,	Asia		

<i>Names of Places.</i>	<i>Provinces.</i>	<i>Countries, or Seas.</i>	<i>Quarter.</i>	<i>Lat. D. M.</i>	<i>Long. D. M.</i>
Cassel,	Hesse Cassel,	Germany,	Europe	51-19 N.	9-34 E.
Castres,	Tarn,	France,	Europe	43-37 N.	2-19 E.
St. Catherine's Isle,	Atlant. Ocean,		South America	27-35 S.	49-12 W.
Cattegat,		betw. Swed. & Den.	Europe		Atlantic Ocean.
Cavan,	Cavan,	Ireland,	Europe	54-51 N.	7-18 W.
Cayenne,	Cayenne Isle,		South America	4-56 N.	52-10 W.
Cette,	Herault,	France,	Europe	43-23 N.	3-42 E.
Ceuta,	Fez,	Morocco,	Africa	35-04 N.	6-30 W.
Chalons,	Saone and Loire,	France,	Europe	46-46 N.	4-51 E.
Chandernagur,	Bengal,	East India,	Asia	22-51 N.	88-34 E.
Charleston,	South Carolina,		North America	32-45 N.	80-39 W.
Charlton Isle,		Hudson's Bay,	North America	52-03 N.	79-00 W.
Chartres,	Eure & Loire,	France,	Europe	48-26 N.	1-33 E.
Cherbourg,	Channel,	France,	Europe	49-38 N.	1-33 W.
Chester,	Cheshire,	England,	Europe	53-15 N.	0-03 W.
Christmas Sound,	Terra del Fu-ego,		South America	55-21 N.	69-57 W.
St. Christopher's Isle,		Caribbean Sea,	N. America	17-15 N.	62-38 W.
Civita Vecchia,	Patr. di S. Petro,	Italy,	Europe	42-05 N.	11-51 E.
Clerke's Isles,		Atlantic Ocean,	South America	55-05 S.	34-37 W.
Clermont,	Puyde Dome,	France,	Europe	45-46 N.	3-10 E.
Colmar,	Upper Rhine,	France,	Europe	48-04 N.	7-27 E.
Cologne,	Roer,	France,	Europe	50-55 N.	6-55 E.
Constance,	Suabia,	Germany,	Europe	47-37 N.	9-12 E.
CONSTANTINOPIE,	Romania,	Turkey,	Europe	41-01 N.	28-58 E.
COPENHAGEN	Zealand Isle,	Denmark,	Europe	55-40 N.	12-40 E.
Corinth,	Morea,	Turkey,	Europe	37-30 N.	23-00 E.
Cork,	Munster,	Ireland,	Europe	51-53 N.	8-23 W.
Coventry,	Warwickshire	England,	Europe	52-25 N.	1-25 W.
Cowes,	Isle of Wight,	England,	Europe	50-46 N.	1-14 W.
Cracow,	Gallicia,	Aust. Poland,	Europe	50-10 N.	19-55 E.
Cremsmunster	Austria,	Germany,	Europe	48-03 N.	14-12 E.
Cummin I.,		N. Pacific Ocean,	Asia	31-40 N.	121-09 E.
Curacao I.,		West India,	America	11-56 N.	68-20 W.
Cusco,	Peru,		South America	12-25 S.	70-00 W.
Dacca,	Bengal,	East India,	Asia	23-30 N.	89-20 E.
Damascus,	Syria,	Turkey,	Asia	33-15 N.	37-20 E.
Dantzic,		Polish Prussia,	Europe	54-22 N.	18-38 E.
Dax,	Landes,	France,	Europe	43-42 N.	0-58 W.
Delft,	Holland,	Netherlands,	Europe	52-06 N.	4-05 E.
Delhi,	Delhi,	East India,	Asia	29-00 N.	76-30 E.
Derbent,	Daghistan,	Persia,	Asia	41-41 N.	50-30 E.
Derby,	Derbyshire,	England,	Europe	52-58 N.	1-30 W.
Derry,	Ulster,	Ireland,	Europe	54-52 N.	7-40 W.
Dieppe,	Low. Seine,	France,	Europe	49-55 N.	0-59 E.

Lat. D. M.	Long. D. M.	Names of Places.	Provinces.	Countries, or Seas.	Quarter.	Lat. D. M.	Long. D. M.
51-19 N.	9-34 E.	Dijon,	Cote d'Or,	France,	Europe	47-19 N.	4-57 E.
43-37 N.	2-19 E.	Dilbingen,	Suabia,	Germany,	Europe	48-30 N.	10-19 E.
27-35 S.	49-12 W.	Diu,	Guzerat,	East India,	Asia	21-37 N.	69-30 E.
		Dol,	Isle & Vilaire,	France,	Europe	43-33 N.	1-41 W.
	Atlantic Ocean.	Doninica,	Wind. Islands,	West India,	America	15-18 N.	1-22 W.
54-51 N.	7-18 W.	Dover,	Kent,	England,	Europe	51-07 N.	1-13 E.
4-56 N.	52-10 W.	DRESDEN,	Saxony,	Germany,	Europe	51-00 N.	13-36 E.
43-23 N.	3-42 E.	Dreux,	Eure & Loire,	France,	Europe	48-44 N.	1-16 E.
35-04 N.	6-30 W.	DUBLIN,	Leinster,	Ireland,	Europe	53-21 N.	6-01 W.
46-46 N.	4-51 E.	Dumbarton,	Dumbartonsh.	Scotland,	Europe	55-44 N.	4-20 W.
		Dumfries,	Dumfriesshire,	Scotland,	Europe	55-03 N.	3-25 W.
22-51 N.	88-34 E.	Dunbar,	Haddington,	Scotland,	Europe	55-58 N.	2-25 W.
32-45 N.	80-39 W.	Dundee,	Forfar,	Scotland,	Europe	56-26 N.	2-48 W.
A-52-03 N.	79-00 W.	Dungeness,	Kent,	England,	Europe	50-52 N.	1-04 E.
		Dunkirk,	Flanders,	Netherlands,	Europe	51-02 N.	2-27 E.
48-26 N.	1-33 E.	Durham,	Durham,	England,	Europe	54-48 N.	1-25 W.
49-38 N.	1-33 W.						
53-15 N.	0-03 W.						
55-21 N.	69-57 W.						
		Eaooe I.,		Pacific Ocean, Asia		21-24 S.	174-25 W.
		Easter Isle,		Pacific Ocean, America		27-06 S.	109-41 W.
		Eastern Ocean,	betw. the N.W. of N. Am. and N.E. of Asia,	N. Pacific Ocean.			
17-15 N.	62-38 W.	Edinburgh,	Edinburghsh.	Scotland,	Europe	55-57 N.	3-07 W.
		Edystone,	Eng. Channel,	England,	Europe	50-03 N.	4-19 W.
42-05 N.	11-51 E.	Elbing,	Prussia,	Poland,	Europe	54-15 N.	20-00 E.
		Emden,	Westphalia,	Germany,	Europe	53-25 N.	7-10 E.
55-05 S.	34-37 W.	Embrun,	Upper Alps,	France,	Europe	44-34 N.	6-34 E.
		Enatum Isle,		Pacific Ocean, Asia		20-10 S.	169-59 E.
45-46 N.	3-10 E.	English Chan.	between Eng. and Fran.	Europe			Atlantic Ocean.
48-04 N.	7-27 E.	Ephesus,	Natolia,	Turkey,	Asia	38-01 N.	27-30 E.
50-55 N.	6-55 E.	Erramanago Isle		Pacific Ocean, Asia		18-46 S.	169-23 E.
47-37 N.	9-12 E.	Erzerum,	Turcomania,	Turkey,	Asia	39-56 N.	42-05 E.
41-01 N.	28-58 E.	Ethiopian Sea,	Coast of	Guinea,	Africa		Atlantic Ocean.
		Eustatius,	Carib. Sea,	West India,	N. Amer.	17-29 N.	63-05 W.
55-40 N.	12-40 F.	Evreux,	Eure,	France,	Europe	49-01 N.	1-13 E.
37-30 N.	23-00 E.	Exeter,	Devonshire,	England,	Europe	50-44 N.	3-59 W.
51-53 N.	8-23 W.						
52-25 N.	1-25 W.						
50-46 N.	1-14 W.						
50-10 N.	19-55 E.						
48-03 N.	14-12 E.						
31-40 N.	121-09 E.						
11-56 N.	68-20 W.						
12-25 S.	70-00 W.						
23-30 N.	89-20 E.						
33-15 N.	37-20 E.						
54-22 N.	18-38 E.						
43-42 N.	0-58 W.						
52-06 N.	4-05 E.						
29-00 N.	76-30 E.						
41-41 N.	50-30 F.						
52-58 N.	1-30 W.						
54-52 N.	7-40 W.						
49-55 N.	0-59 E.						
		Falkirk,	Stirling,	Scotland,	Europe	55-58 N.	3-48 W.
		Falmouth,	Cornwall,	England,	Europe	50-08 N.	4-57 W.
		Fayal Town,	Azores,	Atlant. Ocean,	Europe	38-32 N.	28-36 W.
		Ferdinand Nau- rouka,		Brasil,	South A- merica	3-56 S.	32-43 W.
		Ferrara,	Ferravese,	Italy,	Europe	44-54 N.	11-41 E.
		Ferro (Town),	Canaries,	Atlant. Ocean,	Africa	27-47 N.	17-40 W.
		Ferrol,	Galicia,	Spain,	Europe	43-30 N.	8-40 W.
		Fez,	Fez,	Morocco,	Africa	33-30 N.	6-00 W.
		Florence,	Tuscany,	Italy,	Europe	43-46 N.	11-07 E.
		Flores,	Azores,	Atlant. Ocean,	Europe	39-34 N.	30-51 W.
		St. Flour,	Cantal,	France,	Europe	45-01 N.	3-10 E.
		France (Isle of)		Indian Ocean,	Africa	10-09 S.	57-33 E.
		Franckfort	Main Franconia,	Germany,	Europe	49-55 N.	8-40 E.
		Frauenburg,	Polish Prussia,	Europe	54-22 N.	20-12 E.	
		Fuego Isle,	Cape Verd,	Atlant. Ocean,	Africa	14-56 N.	24-23 W.
		Funchal,	Madeira,	Atlant. Ocean,	Africa	32-37 N.	17-01 W.
		Furneaux Isle,		Pacific Ocean,	Asia	17-11 S.	143-01 W.

Names of Places.	Provinces.	Countries, or Seas.	Quarter.	Lat. Long.	
				D. M.	D. M.
G AP,	Upper Alps,	France,	Europe	44-33 N.	6-09 E.
Genes,	Savoy,	Italy,	Europe	44-25 N.	8-40 E.
Geneva,	Leinan,	France,	Europe	46-12 N.	6-05 E.
GENOA,	Genoa,	Italy,	Europe	44-25 N.	8-51 E.
St. Georg. Isle,	Azores,	Atlant. Ocean,	Europe	38-39 N.	27-55 W.
St. George To.	Bermudas,	Atlant. Ocean,	N. Amer.	32-45 N.	63-30 W.
St. Georg. Fort	Coromandel,	East India,	Asia	13-04 N.	80-33 E.
Ghent,	Flanders,	Netherlands,	Europe	51-03 N.	3-48 E.
Gibraltar,	Andalusia,	Spain,	Europe	36-05 N.	5-17 W.
Glasgow,	Lanerkshire,	Scotland,	Europe	55-51 N.	4-10 W.
Gloucester,	Gloucestersh.	England,	Europe	51-05 N.	2-16 W.
Goa,	Malabar,	East India,	Asia	15-31 N.	73-50 E.
Goat Isle,		Indian Ocean,	Asia	13-55 N.	120-07 E.
Gombroon,	Farsistan,	Persia,	Asia	27-30 N.	74-20 E.
Gomera Isle,	Canaries,	Atlant. Ocean,	Africa	28-05 N.	17-05 W.
Good Hope,	T. Cape T.	Caffraria,	Africa	33-55 S.	18-23 E.
Goree,		Atlantic Ocean,	Africa	14-40 N.	17-20 W.
Gottenburg,	Gothland,	Sweden,	Europe	57-42 N.	11-43 E.
Göttingen,	Hanover,	Germany,	Europe	51-51 N.	9-58 E.
Granville,	Channel,	France,	Europe	48-50 N.	1-32 W.
Gratiosa,	Azores,	Atlant. Ocean,	Europe	39-02 N.	27-53 W.
Gratz,	Stiria,	Germany,	Europe	47-04 N.	15-29 E.
Gravelines,	North,	France,	Europe	50-59 N.	2-13 E.
Greenock,	Renfrewshire,	Scotland,	Europe	55-52 N.	4-22 W.
Gryphiswald,	Pomerania,	Germany,	Europe	54-04 N.	13-43 E.
Guadaloupe,		Caribbean Sea,	N. Amer.	15-59 N.	61-54 W.
Guam,	Ladrone Isles,	East India,	Asia	14-00 N.	140-30 E.
Gulf of Bothnia,	Coast of Sweden,	Europe	Baltic Sea.		
— of California,	betw. Calif. & Mexico,	N. Amer.	Pacific Ocean.		
— of Finland,	betw. Swed. & Russia,	Europe	Baltic Sea.		
— of St. Lawr.	Coast of New Scotland,	N. Amer.	Atlantic Ocean.		
— of Mexico,	Coast of Mexico,	N. Amer.	Atlantic Ocean.		
— of Ormus,	betw. Persia & Arab,	Asia	Indian Ocean.		
— of Persia,	betw. Persia & Arab,	Asia	Indian Ocean.		
— of Venice,	betw. Italy & Turk.	Europe	Mediterranean Sea.		
H Aerlem,	Holland,	Netherlands,	Europe	52-20 N.	4-42 E.
Hague,	Holland,	Netherlands,	Europe	52-04 N.	4-22 E.
Halifax,	Yorkshire,	England,	Europe	53-45 N.	1-52 W.
HALIFAX,	Nova Scotia,	North America	44-40 N.	63-15 W.	
Hamburg,	Holstein,	Germany,	Europe	53-34 N.	9-55 E.
Hanover,	Saxony,	Germany,	Europe	52-22 N.	10-3 E.
Hastings,	Sussex,	England,	Europe	50-52 N.	0-40 E.
Havannah,		Cuba Island,	N. Amer.	23-11 N.	82-13 W.
Havre de Grace	Low. Seine,	France,	Europe	49-29 N.	1-10 E.
St. Helena,	South Atlant. Ocean,	Africa	15-55 S.	5-44 W.	
Ja. Town,					
Héllespont,	Med. & Bl. Sea,	Europe and Asia			
Hereford,	Herefordshire,	England,	Europe	52-06 N.	2-38 W.
Hernosand,	W. Bothnia,	Sweden,	Europe	62-38 N.	17-58 E.
Hervey's Isle,	South Pacific Ocean,	Asia	19-17 S.	158-43 W.	
Hoai-Nghan,	Kian-Nan,	China,	Asia	33-34 N.	118-54 E.
LaHoguc	Cape Normandy,	France,	Europe	49-44 N.	1-51 W.

<i>Lat.</i>	<i>Long.</i>	<i>Names of Places.</i>	<i>Provinces.</i>	<i>Countries, or Seas.</i>	<i>Quarter.</i>	<i>Lat.</i>	<i>Long.</i>
D. M.	D. M.					D. M.	D. M.
44-33 N.	6-09 E.	Hood's Isle,		South Pacific Ocean,	Asia	9-25 S.	138-47 W.
44-25 N.	8-40 E.	Hoogstraten,	Brabant,	Netherlands,	Europe	51-24 N.	4-52 E.
46-12 N.	6-05 E.	Howe's Isle,		South Pacific Ocean,	Asia	16-46 S.	154-01 W.
44-25 N.	8-51 E.	Huachine Isle,		South Pacific Ocean,	Asia	16-44 S.	151-01 W.
38-39 N.	27-55 W.	Hudson's Bay,		Coast of Labrador,	N. Amer.	N. Atlantic Ocean.	
32-45 N.	63-30 W.	Hull,	Yorkshire,	England,	Europe	53-45 N.	0-12 W.
13-04 N.	80-33 E.						
51-03 N.	3-48 E.						
36-05 N.	5-17 W.						
55-51 N.	4-10 W.						
51-05 N.	2-16 W.						
15-31 N.	73-50 E.						
13-55 N.	120-07 E.						
27-30 N.	74-20 E.						
28-05 N.	17-03 W.						
33-55 S.	18-28 E.						
14-40 N.	17-20 W.						
57-42 N.	11-43 E.						
51-31 N.	9-58 E.						
48-50 N.	1-32 W.						
39-02 N.	27-53 W.						
47-04 N.	15-29 E.						
50-59 N.	2-13 E.						
55-52 N.	4-22 W.						
54-04 N.	13-43 E.						
15-59 N.	61-54 W.						
14-00 N.	140-30 E.						
		Baltic Sea.					
		Pacific Ocean.					
		Baltic Sea.					
		Atlantic Ocean.					
		Indian Ocean.					
		Indian Ocean.					
		Mediterranean Sea.					
52-20 N.	4-42 E.						
52-04 N.	4-22 E.						
53-45 N.	1-52 W.						
44-40 N.	63-15 W.						
53-34 N.	9-55 E.						
52-22 N.	10-3 E.						
50-52 N.	0-40 E.						
23-11 N.	82-13 W.						
49-29 N.	1-10 E.						
15-55 S.	5-44 W.						
52-06 N.	2-38 W.						
62-38 N.	17-58 E.						
19-17 S.	158-43 W.						
33-34 N.	118-54 E.						
49-44 N.	1-51 W.						
		Janeiro Rio,		Brasil,	S. Amer.	22-54 S.	42-38 W.
		Jassy,	Moldavia,	Turkey,	Europe	47-03 N.	27-34 E.
		Java Head,	Java Isle,	East India,	Asia	6-49 S.	106-55 E.
		Jeddo,	Japan Isle,	East India,	Asia	36-20 N.	139-00 E.
		Jerusalem,	Palestine,	Turkey,	Asia	31-46 N.	35-25 E.
		Immer Isle,		South Pacific Ocean,	Asia	19-10 S.	169-51 E.
		Indian Ocean,		Coast of India,	Asia.		
		Ingolstadt,	Bavaria,	Germany,	Europe	48-45 N.	11-27 E.
		Inverness,	Invernesshire,	Scotland,	Europe	57-33 N.	4-02 W.
		St. John's To.	Antigua,	Leeward Isles,	N. Amer.	17-04 N.	62-04 E.
		St. John's To.	Newfoundland,	North America	47-32 N.	52-21 W.	
		St. Joseph's,	California,	Mexico,	N. Amer.	23-03 N.	109-37 W.
		Irish Sea,	between Great Britain and Ireland,	Europe,	Atlantic Ocean.		
		Irraname Isle,		South Pacific Ocean,	Asia	19-31 S.	170-26 E.
		ISPAHAN,	Irac Agem,	Persia,	Asia	32-25 N.	52-55 E.
		Iviga Isle,		Mediterr. Sea,	Italy,	Europe	38-50 N.
		Isthmus of Corinth,	joins the Morea to Greece,	Europe.			
		— of Malacca,	joins Malacca to Farther India,	Asia.			
		— of Panama,	joins North and South America.				
		— of Suez	joins Africa to Asia.				
		Islamabad,	Bengal,	East India,	Asia	22-20 N.	91-50 E.
		Judda,	Arabia Felix,	Arabia,	Asia	21-29 N.	49-27 E.
		Juthria,	Siam,	East India,	Asia	14-18 N.	100-55 E.
		K Elso,	Roxboroughs,	Scotland,	Europe	55-38 N.	02-12 W.
		Kilmarnock,	Ayrshire,	Scotland,	Europe	55-38 N.	00-30 W.
		KINGSTON,	Jamaica,	West India,	America	17-57 N.	76-38 W.
		Kinsale,	Munster,	Ireland,	Europe	51-32 N.	08-20 W.
		Kiow,	Ukraine,	Russia,	Europe	50-30 N.	31-12 E.
		Kola,	Lapland,	Russia,	Europe	68-52 N.	33-13 E.
		Konigsberg,	Prussia,	Poland,	Europe	54-43 N.	21-35 E.
		L Aguna,	Teneriffe,	Canaries,	A. Ocean	28-28 N.	16-13 W.
		Lahor,	Lahor,	East India,	Asia	32-40 N.	75-30 E.
		Lancaster,	Lancashire,	England,	Europe	54-05 N.	02-55 E.
		Landau,	Low Rhine,	France,	Europe	49-11 N.	08-02 E.
		Landscroon,	Schonen,	Sweden,	Europe	53-52 N.	12-51 E.
		Lausanne,	Cant. of Vaud,	Switzerland,	Europe	46-31 N.	06-50 E.
		Leeds,	Yorkshire,	England,	Europe	53-48 N.	01-20 W.
		Leicester,	Leicestershire,	England,	Europe	52-38 N.	01-03 W.
		Leipsic,	Saxony,	Germany,	Europe	51-19 N.	12-25 E.
		Leith,	Edinburghsh.	Scotland,	Europe	55-53 N.	03-00 W.
		Lepers' Island	S. Pacific Ocean,	Asia	15-23 S.	168-03 E.	
		Leskard,	Cornwall,	England,	Europe	50-26 N.	04-36 W.
		Lesparre,	Gironde,	France,	Europe	45-18 N.	00-52 W.

<i>Names of Places.</i>	<i>Provinces.</i>	<i>Countries, or Seas.</i>	<i>Quarter.</i>	<i>Lat. D. M.</i>	<i>Long. D. M.</i>
Leyden,	Holland,	Netherlands,	Europe	52-10 N.	04-32 E.
Liege,	Ourte,	Netherlands,	Europe	50-37 N.	05-40 E.
Lima,	Peru,	South America		12-01 S.	76-44 W.
Limerick,	Limerickshire,	Ireland,	Europe	52-35 N.	08-48 W.
Limoges,	Up. Vienne,	France,	Europe	45-49 N.	01-20 E.
Lincoln,	Lincolnshire,	England,	Europe	53-15 N.	00-27 W.
Linlithgow,	Linlithgowsh.	Scotland,	Europe	55-56 N.	03-30 W.
Lintz,	Austria,	Germany,	Europe	41-16 N.	13-57 E.
Lisbon,	Estremadura,	Portugal,	Europe	38-42 N.	09-04 W.
Lisle,	North	France,	Europe	50-37 N.	03-09 E.
Litchfield,	Staffordshire,	England,	Europe	52-43 N.	01-04 W.
Lizard Point,	Cornwall,	England,	Europe	49-57 N.	05-10 W.
LONDON,	Middlesex,	England,	Europe	51-31 N.	1st Merid.
Londonderry,	Londonderry,	Ireland,	Europe	55-00 N.	07-40 W.
Loretto,	Pope's Territ.	Italy,	Europe	43-15 N.	14-15 E.
Louisbourg,	C. Breton Isle,	North America		45-53 N.	59-48 W.
Louvain,	Brabant,	Netherlands,	Europe	50-53 N.	04-49 E.
Louveau,	Siam,	East India,	Asia	12-42 N.	100-56 E.
Luber,	Holstein,	Germany,	Europe	54-00 N.	11-40 E.
St. Lucia Isle,	Windward Isles	West Indies,	N. Amer.	13-24 N.	60-46 W.
Lunden,	Gothland,	Sweden,	Europe	55-41 N.	13-26 E.
Luneville,	Meurthe,	France,	Europe	48-35 N.	06-35 E.
Luxemburg,	Forests,	Netherlands,	Europe	49-37 N.	06-16 E.
Lyons,	Rhone & Loire,	France,	Europe	45-45 N.	04-54 E.
M acao,	Canton,	China,	Asia	22-12 N.	113-51 E.
Macassar,	Celebes Isle,	East India,	Asia	05-09 S.	119-53 E.
Madeira, I.	Atlantic Ocean,		Africa	32-37 N.	17-01 W.
Funchal,					
Madras,	Coromandel,	East India,	Asia	13-04 N.	80-33 E.
MADRID,	New Castile,	Spain,	Europe	40-25 N.	03-20 E.
Magdalena Isl.	South Pacific Ocean,	Asia		10-25 S.	138-44 W.
Mahon, Fort,	Minorca,	Mediterr. Sea,	Europe	39-50 N.	03-53 E.
Majorca Isle,		Mediterr. Sea,	Europe	39-35 N.	02-34 E.
Malacca,	Malacca,	East India,	Asia	02-12 N.	102-10 E.
Malines,	Brabant,	Netherlands,	Europe	51-01 N.	04-33 E.
Mallicola Isles,	South Pacific Ocean,	Asia		16-15 N.	167-44 E.
St. Maloes,	Morbihan	France,	Europe	48-38 N.	01-56 W.
Malta Isle,	Mediterranean Sea,		Africa	35-54 N.	14-33 E.
Manilla,	Luconia, Phi- lip. Isles,	East India,	Asia	14-36 N.	120-58 E.
MANTUA,	Mantua,	Italy,	Europe	45-20 N.	10-47 E.
Mariegalante Isle,	Atlantic Ocean,		S. Amer.	15-55 N.	61-06 W.
Marselles,	Mouths of the Rhone,	France,	Europe	43-17 N.	05-27 E.
St. Martha,	St. Martha,	Terra Firma,	America	11-26 N.	75-59 W.
St. Martin's Isle,	Caribbean Isl.,	West India,	America	18-04 N.	62-57 W.
Martinico Isle,	Caribbean Isl.,	West India,	America	14-44 N.	61-05 W.
St. Mary's Isle,	Scilly Isles,	Atlantic Ocean	Europe	49-57 N.	06-38 W.
St. Mary's T.,	Azores,	Atlantic Ocean	Europe	36-56 N.	25-06 W.
Maskelyne Isle,	South Pacific Ocean,	Asia		16-32 S.	168-04 E.

<i>Lat.</i>	<i>Long.</i>	<i>Names of Places. Provinces. Countries, or Seas.</i>	<i>Quarter.</i>	<i>Lat.</i>	<i>Long.</i>
D. M.	D. M.			D. M.	D. M.
2-10 N.	04-32 E.	Mauritius,	Indian Ocean,	Africa	20-09 S. 57-34 E.
2-37 N.	05-40 E.	Maurua Isle,	South Pacific Ocean,	Asia	16-25 S. 152-37 E.
2-01 S.	76-44 W.	Mayence,	Mont Tonnerre France,	Europe	49-54 N. 08-25 E.
2-35 N.	08-48 W.	Mayo Isle,	Cape Verd,	Atlantic Ocean	Africa 15-10 N. 23-00 W.
5-49 N.	01-20 E.	Mcaux,	Seine and Marne,	France,	Europe 48-57 N. 02-57 E.
3-15 N.	00-27 W.				
5-56 N.	03-30 W.				
1-16 N.	13-57 E.	Mecca,	Arabia Felix,	Arabia,	Asia 21-45 N. 41-00 E.
8-42 N.	09-04 W.	Medina,	Arabia Felix,	Arabia,	Asia 25-00 N. 39-33 E.
0-37 N.	03-09 E.	Mequinez,	Fez,	Barbary,	Africa 34-30 N. 06-00 E.
2-43 N.	01-04 W.	Mergui,	Siarn,	East India,	Asia 12-12 N. 98-13 E.
49-57 N.	05-10 W.	MESSINA,	Sicily Island,	Italy,	Europe 38-30 N. 15-40 E.
01-31 N.	1st Merid.	Mexico,	Mexico,	North America	19-54 N. 100-00 W.
00-00 N.	07-40 W.	St. Michael's Isle,	Azores,	Atlantic Ocean	Europe 57-47 N. 25-37 W.
43-15 N.	14-15 E.	Middleburg Isl.	South Pacific Ocean,	Asia	21-20 S. 174-29 W.
45-53 N.	59-48 W.	MILAN,	Milanese,	Italy,	Europe 45-28 N. 09-16 E.
50-53 N.	04-40 E.	Milford Haven,	Pembrokesh.	Wales,	Europe 51-43 N. 05-15 W.
12-42 N.	100-56 E.	Mitea Isles,	South Pacific Ocean,	Asia	17-52 S. 48-01 W.
54-00 N.	11-40 E.	Mocha,	Arabia Felix,	Arabia,	Asia 13-40 N. 43-50 E.
15-24 N.	60-46 W.	MODENA,	Modena,	Italy,	Europe 44-34 N. 11-17 E.
55-41 N.	13-26 E.	Montague Isle,	South Pacific Ocean,	Asia	17-26 S. 168-36 E.
48-35 N.	06-35 E.	Montpelier,	Herault,	France,	Europe 43-36 N. 03-37 E.
49-37 N.	06-16 E.	Montréal,	Canada,	North America	45-35 N. 73-11 W.
45-45 N.	04-54 E.	Montrose,	Forfar,	Scotland,	Europe 56-34 N. 0-20 W.
22-12 N.	113-51 E.	Montserrat Isle,	Caribbean Isles,	West India,	America 16-47 N. 62-12 W.
05-09 S.	119-53 E.	Morocco,	Morocco,	Barbary,	Africa 30-32 N. 06-10 W.
32-37 N.	17-01 W.	Moscow,	Moscow,	Russia,	Europe 55-45 N. 37-38 E.
13-04 N.	80-33 E.	Munich,	Bavaria,	Germany,	Europe 48-09 N. 11-35 E.
40-25 N.	03-20 E.	Munster,	Westphalia,	Germany,	Europe 52-00 N. 07-16 E.
10-25 S.	138-44 W.	Nagasaki,	Japan,	N. Pacific Oc.	Asia 32-32 N. 132-51 E.
39-50 N.	03-53 E.	Namur,	Sambre and Meuse,	Netherlands,	Europe 50-28 N. 04-49 E.
39-35 N.	02-34 E.	Nanci,	Meuthe,	France,	Europe 48-41 N. 06-10 E.
02-12 N.	102-10 E.	Nanking,	Kiangan,	China,	Asia 32-4 N. 113-52 E.
51-01 N.	04-33 E.	Nantes,	Low. Loire,	France,	Europe 47-13 N. 01-28 W.
16-15 N.	167-44 E.	Naples,	Naples,	Italy,	Europe 40-50 N. 14-18 E.
48-38 N.	01-56 W.	Narva,	Livonia,	Russia,	Europe 59-00 N. 27-35 E.
35-54 N.	14-33 E.	Newcastle,	Northumberl.	England,	Europe 55-03 N. 01-24 W.
14-36 N.	120-58 E.	Newport,	Rhode Island,	North America	41-35 N. 71-06 W.
45-20 N.	10-47 E.	New York,	New York,	North America	40-40 N. 74-06 W.
15-55 N.	61-06 W.	Nice,	Piedmont,	Italy,	Europe 43-41 N. 07-22 E.
43-17 N.	05-27 E.	St. Nicholas Mole,	Hispaniola,	West India,	America 19-49 N. 73-24 W.
11-26 N.	75-59 W.	Nieuport,	Flanders,	Netherlands,	Europe 51-07 N. 02-50 E.
18-04 N.	62-57 W.	Ningpo,	Shekiang,	China,	Asia 29-57 N. 120-23 E.
14-44 N.	61-05 W.	Norfolk Isle,	S. Pacific Ocean,	Asia	29-01 S. 163-15 E.
49-57 N.	06-38 W.	Noriton,	Pennsylvania,	North America	40-09 N. 75-18 W.
36-56 N.	25-06 W.	North Cape,	Wardhus,	Lapland,	Europe 71-10 N. 26-02 E.
16-32 S.	168-04 E.	Northampton,	Northampt. sh.	England,	Europe 52-15 N. 00-55 W.
		Norwich,	Norfolk,	England,	Europe 52-40 N. 01-25 E.
		Nottingham,	Nottinghamsh.	England,	Europe 53-00 N. 01-06 W.
		Nuremberg,	Franconia,	Germany,	Europe 49-27 N. 11-12 E.

<i>Names of Places.</i>	<i>Provinces.</i>	<i>Countries, or Seas.</i>	<i>Quarter.</i>	<i>Lat. D. M.</i>	<i>Long. D. M.</i>
O Chotsk, Siberia,		Russia,	Asia	59-20 N.	143-17 E.
Ohevahoa Isle,		South Pacific Ocean,	Asia	09-40 S.	138-50 W.
Ohitahoo Isle,		South Pacific Ocean,	Asia	09-55 S.	139-01 W.
Oleron Isle,	Low. Charente	France,	Europe	46-02 N.	01-20 W.
Olinde,	Brasil,		South America	08-13 S.	35-09 W.
Olmutz,	Moravia,	Bohemia,	Europe	49-30 N.	16-45 E.
St. Omer's,	Flanders,	Netherlands,	Europe	50-44 N.	02-19 E.
Onateayo Isl.,		South Pacific Ocean,	Asia	09-58 S.	138-40 W.
Oporto,	Douro,	Portugal,	Europe	41-10 N.	08-22 W.
Oran,	Algiers,	Barbary,	Africa	36-30 N.	00-05 E.
Orenburg,	Uta,	Russia,	Asia	51-46 N.	55-14 E.
L'Orient (Port)	Morbihan,	France,	Europe	47-45 N.	03-20 W.
Orleans,	Loiret,	France,	Europe	47-54 N.	01-59 E.
Orleans (New)	Louisiana,		North America	29-57 N.	89-53 W.
Ormus,	Ormicos Isle,	Persia,	Asia	26-50 N.	57-00 E.
Orotava,	Teneriffe,	Atlantic Ocean,	Africa	28-23 N.	16-19 W.
Orsk,	Ufa,	Russia,	Asia	51-12 N.	58-37 E.
Osnaburg Isle,		South Pacific Ocean,	Asia	17-52 S.	148-01 E.
Ostend.,	Flanders,	Netherlands,	Europe	51-13 N.	03-00 E.
Oxford Obser- vatory,	Oxfordshire,	England,	Europe	51-45 N.	01-10 W.
Pacific Ocean, between Asia and America					
Padua,	Paduano,	Italy,	Europe	45-22 N.	12-00 E.
Paisley,	Renfrewshire,	Scotland,	Europe	55-48 N.	04-08 W.
PALERMO,	Sicily Isle,	Italy,	Europe	38-30 N.	13-43 E.
Palliser's Isles,		South Pacific Ocean,	Asia	15-38 S.	146-25 W.
Palma Isle,	Canaries,	Atlantic Ocean,	Africa	28-36 N.	17-45 W.
Palmerston's I.,		South Pacific Ocean,	Asia	18-00 S.	162-52 W.
Palmyra,	Syria,	Turkey,	Asia	33-00 N.	39-00 E.
Panama,	Darien,	Terra Firma,	S. Amer.	08-47 N.	80-16 W.
Paoom Isle,		South Pacific Ocean,	Asia	16-30 S.	168-33 E.
PARIS Observa- tory,	Isle of France,	France,	Europe	48-50 N.	2-25 E.
Parma,	Parmesan,	Italy,	Europe	44-45 N.	10-51 E.
Patna,	Bengal,	East India,	Asia	25-45 N.	83-00 E.
Patrifjord,	Iceland,	N. Atl. Ocean,	Europe	65-35 N.	14-05 W.
Pau,	Low. Pyrenees,	France,	Europe	45-15 N.	00-04 W.
St. Paul's Isle,		South Indian Ocean,	Africa	37-51 S.	77-53 E.
Pegu,	Pegu,	East India,	Asia	17-00 N.	97-00 E.
Peking,	Peche-lee,	China,	Asia	39-54 N.	116-29 E.
Pembroke,	Pembrokesh.,	Wales,	Europe	51-45 N.	4-50 W.
PENSACOLA,	West Florida,		North America	30-22 N.	87-20 W.
Penzance,	Cornwall,	England,	Europe	50-08 N.	6-00 W.
Perigucux,	Dordogne,	France,	Europe	45-11 N.	0-48 E.
Perinaldi,	Genoa,	Italy,	Europe	43-53 N.	7-45 E.
Perth,	Perthshire,	Scotland,	Europe	56-22 N.	3-12 W.
Perth-amboy,	New York,		North America	40-30 N.	74-20 W.
PETERSBURG,	Ingria,	Russia,	Europe	59-56 N.	30-24 E.
St. Peter's Isle,		North Atlant. Ocean,	America	46-46 N.	56-12 W.
St. Peter's Fort,	Martinico,	W. India,	N. Amer.	14-44 N.	61-16 W.
Petropawloskoi,	Kamtschatka,	Russia,	Asia	53-01 N.	158-40 E.

Lat. D. M.	Long. D. M.
9-20 N.	143-17 E.
9-40 S.	138-50 W.
09-55 S.	139-01 W.
16-02 N.	01-20 W.
08-13 S.	35-09 W.
49-30 N.	16-45 E.
50-44 N.	02-19 E.
09-58 S.	138-40 W.
41-10 N.	08-22 W.
36-30 N.	00-05 E.
51-46 N.	55-14 E.
47-45 N.	03-20 W.
47-54 N.	01-59 E.
29-57 N.	89-53 W.
26-50 N.	57-00 E.
28-23 N.	16-19 W.
51-12 N.	58-37 E.
17-52 S.	148-01 E.
51-13 N.	03-00 E.
51-45 N.	01-10 W.
45-22 N.	12-00 E.
55-48 N.	04-08 W.
38-30 N.	13-43 E.
15-38 S.	146-25 W.
28-36 N.	17-45 W.
18-00 S.	162-52 W.
33-00 N.	39-00 E.
08-47 N.	80-16 W.
16-30 S.	168-33 E.
48-50 N.	2-25 E.
44-45 N.	10-51 E.
25-45 N.	83-00 E.
65-35 N.	14-05 W.
45-15 N.	00-04 W.
37-51 S.	77-53 E.
17-00 N.	97-00 E.
39-54 N.	116-29 E.
51-45 N.	4-50 W.
30-22 N.	87-20 W.
50-08 N.	6-00 W.
45-11 N.	0-48 E.
43-53 N.	7-45 E.
56-22 N.	3-12 W.
40-30 N.	74-20 W.
59-56 N.	30-24 E.
46-46 N.	56-12 W.
14-44 N.	61-16 W.
53-01 N.	153-40 E.

Names of Places.	Provinces.	Countries, or Seas.	Quarter.	Lat. D. M.	Long. D. M.
Philadelphia,	Pennsylvania,		North America	39-56 N.	75-09 W.
St. Philip's Fort,	Minorca,		Mediterr. Sea, Europe	39-50 N.	3-53 E.
Pickersgill Isle,		South Atlant Ocean,	America	54-42 S.	36-53 W.
Pico,	Azores,		Atlant. Ocean, Europe	38-28 N.	23-21 W.
Pines, Isle of,	N. Caledonia,		Pacific Ocean, Asia	22-38 S.	167-43 E.
Pisa,	Tuscauy,		Italy, Europe	43-43 N.	10-17 E.
Placentia,	Newfoundland Isle,		North America	47-26 N.	55-00 W.
Plymouth,	Devonshire,		England, Europe	50-22 N.	4-10 W.
Plymouth,	New England,		North America	41-48 N.	70-25 W.
Pollingen,	Suabia,		Germany, Europe	47-48 N.	10-48 E.
Pondicherry,	Coromandel,		East India, Asia	11-41 N.	79-57 E.
Ponoi,	Lapland,		Russia, Europe	67-06 N.	30-23 E.
Port Royal,	Jamaica,		West India, America	18-00 N.	76-40 W.
Port Royal,	Martinico,		West India, America	14-35 N.	61-04 W.
Porto Bello,	Terra Firina,		South America	9-33 N.	79-45 W.
Porto Santo I.,	Madeira,		Atlant. Ocean, Africa	32-51 N.	16-20 W.
Portland Isle,		South Pacific Ocean,	Asia	39-25 S.	178-17 E.
Portland Isle,		North Atlant. Ocean,	Europe	63-22 N.	18-49 W.
Portsmouth Town,	Hampshire,		England, Europe	50-47 N.	01-01 W.
— Academy,	Hampshire,		England, Europe	50-48 N.	01-01 W.
Portsmouth,	New England,		North America	53-10 N.	70-20 W.
Potosi,	Peru,		South America	21-00 S.	77-00 W.
Prague,		Bohemia,	Europe	50-04 N.	14-50 E.
Presburg,		Upper Hungary,	Europe	48-20 N.	17-30 W.
Preston,	Lancashire,		England, Europe	53-45 N.	2-50 W.
Prince of Wales Fort,	New N. Wales,		North America	58-47 N.	94-02 W.
Providence,	New England,		North America	41-50 N.	71-21 W.
Pulo Condor I.,	Indian Ocean,	East Indies,	Asia	23-40 N.	107-25 E.
Pulo Timor I.,	Gulf of Siam,	East India,	Asia	3-00 N.	104-30 E.
Pylestaart Isle,		South Pacific Ocean,	Asia	22-23 S.	175-26 W.
Quebec,	Canada,		North America	46-55 N.	69-48 W.
Queen Char- lotte's Isles,		South Pacific Ocean,	Asia	10-11 S.	164-35 E.
St. Quin- tin,	North,		France, Europe	49-50 N.	3-22 E.
Quito,	Peru,		South America	0-13 S.	77-50 W.
Ragusa,	Dakmatia,		Venice, Europe	42-45 N.	18-25 E.
Ramhead,	Cornwall,		England, Europe	50-18 N.	4-15 W.
Ratisbon,	Bavaria,		Germany, Europe	48-56 N.	12-05 E.
Recif,	Brasil,		South America	8-10 S.	35-30 W.
Rennes,	Isle & Vilaine,		France, Europe	48-06 N.	1-36 W.
Resolution Isle,		South Pacific Ocean,	Asia	17-23 S.	141-40 W.
Rhé Isle,	Low. Charente,		France, Europe	46-14 N.	1-20 W.
Rheims,	Marne,		France, Europe	49-14 N.	4-07 E.
Rhodes,	Rhodes Island,		Levant Sea, Asia	36-20 N.	23-00 E.
Riga,	Livonia,		Russia, Europe	56-55 N.	24-00 E.

998 A NEW GEOGRAPHICAL TABLE.

<i>Names of Places.</i>	<i>Provinces.</i>	<i>Countries, or Seas.</i>	<i>Quarter.</i>	<i>Lat. D. M.</i>	<i>Long. D. M.</i>
Rimini,	Romagna,	Italy,	Europe	44-03N.	12-39 E.
Rochelle,	Lo. Charente,	France,	Europe	46-09N.	1-04 W.
Rochfort,	Lo. Charente,	France,	Europe	46-02 N.	0-53 W.
Rock of Lis- bon,	Mouth of Ta- gus river,	Portugal,	Europe	38-45 N.	9-30W.
Rodez,	Aveiron,	France.	Europe	44-21N.	2-39 E.
Rodrigues Isle,		South Indian Ocean,	Africa	10-40N.	63-15 E.
Rome, (St. Peter's)	Pope's Terri- tory,	Italy,	Europe	41-53N.	12-34 E.
Rotterdam,	Holland,	Netherlands,	Europe	51-56N.	4-33 E.
Rotterdam Isle,		South Pacific Ocean,	Asia	20-16 N.	174-24W.
Rouen,	Low. Seine,	France,	Europe	49-26N.	1-00W.
S Aba Isle,	Carib. Sea,	West India,	America	17-39N.	63-12W.
Sagan,	Silesia,	Germany,	Europe	51-42N.	15-27 E.
St. Augustin,	East Florida,	North America	29-45N.	81-12W.	
—Domingo,	Carib. Sea,	West India,	America	18-20N.	70-00W.
—George's Channel,	between Ireland,	England and Ireland,	Atlantic Ocean	Europe.	
—Jago,	Chili,	South America	34-00 S.	77-00W.	
—Salvador,	Brasil,	South America	11-58 S.	38-00W.	
Salisbury,	Wiltshire,	England,	Europe	51-00N.	1-45W.
Sall Isle,		North Atlant. Ocean,	Africa	16-38N.	22-51W.
Salonichi,	Macedonia,	Turkey,	Europe	40-41N.	23-13 E.
Salvage Isles,		North Atlant. Ocean,	Africa	30-00N.	15-49W.
Samana,	Hispaniola,	West India,	America	19-15N.	69-11W.
Samarcand,	Usbec	Tartary,	Asia	40-40N.	69-00 E.
Sandwich Isles,		South Pacific Ocean,	Asia	17-41 S.	168-38 E.
Santa Cruz,	Teneriffe,	Atlant. Ocean,	Africa	28-27N.	16-11W.
Santa Fé,	New Mexico,	North America	36-00N.	105-00W.	
Saunders's Isle,	South Georgia,	S. Atlantic Ocean,	S. Ame- rica	58-00 S.	26-53W.
Savage Isle,		South Pacific Ocean,	Asia	19-02 S.	169-25W.
Savannah,	Georgia,	North America	31-55N.	80-20W.	
Sayd, or Thebes,		Upper Egypt,	Africa	27-00N.	32-20E.
Scarborough,	Yorkshire,	England,	Europe	54-18N.	0-10W.
Schwetzingen,	Lower Rhine,	Germany,	Europe	49-23N.	8-45 E.
Scone,	Perthshire,	Scotland,	Europe	56-24N.	3-10W.
Sea of Asoph,	Little Tartary,	Europe and Asia.			
—Marmora,		Turkey in Europe and Asia	Black Sea.		
—Ochotsk,		between Siberia & Kamtschatka,	Asia, N. Pacif. Ocean.		
—Yellow,		betw. Eastern Tartary, China, and Corea,	N. Pacif. Ocean.		
Sedan,	Ardennes,	France,	Europe	49-44N.	5-02 E.
Senegal,		Negroland,	Africa	15-53N.	16-26W.
Seville,	Andalusia,	Spain,	Europe	37-15N.	6-05W.
Sheerness,	Kent,	England,	Europe	51-25N.	0-50 E.
Shepherd's Isles,		South Pacific Ocean,	Asia	16-58 S.	168-47 E.
Shields (South),	Durham,	England,	Europe	55-02 N.	1-15 E.
Shrewsbury,	Shropshire,	England,	Europe	52-43 N.	2-46 W.

Lat. D. M.	Long. D. M.
4-03N.	12-39 E.
6-09N.	1-04 W.
5-02 N.	0-53 W.
8-45 N.	9-30W.
4-21N.	2-39 E.
0-40N.	63-15 E.
1-53N.	12-34 E.
51-56N.	4-33 E.
0-16 N.	174-24W.
49-26N.	1-00W.
17-39N.	63-12W.
51-42N.	15-27 E.
29-45N.	81-12W.
18-20N.	70-00W.
Ocean Europe.	
34-00 S.	77-00W.
11-58 S.	38-00W.
1-00N.	1-45W.
6-38N.	22-51W.
40-41N.	23-13 E.
30-00N.	15-49W.
19-15N.	69-11W.
40-40N.	69-00 E.
17-41 S.	168-38 E.
28-27N.	16-11W.
36-00N.	105-00W.
58-00 S.	26-53W.
19-02 S.	169-25W.
31-55N.	80-20W.
27-00N.	32-20 E.
54-18N.	0-10W.
49-23N.	8-45 E.
56-24N.	3-10W.
Black Sea.	
Asia, N. Pacif. Ocean.	
orea, N. Pacif. Ocean.	
49-44N.	5-02 E.
15-53N.	16-26W.
37-15N.	6-05W.
51-25N.	0-50 E.
16-58 S.	168-47 E.
55-02 N.	1-15 E.
52-43 N.	2-46 W.

Names of Places.	Provinces.	Countries, or Seas.	Quarter.	Lat. D. M.	Long. D. M.
Siam,	Siam,	East India,	Asia	14-18 N.	100-55 E.
Sidon,	Holy Land,	Turkey,	Asia	33-33 N.	36-15 E.
Si-gham-fu,	Shensi,	China,	Asia	34-16 N.	103-48 E.
Sisteron,	Low. Alps,	France,	Europe	44-11 N.	6-01W.
Smyrna,	Natolia,	Turkey,	Asia	38-28 N.	27-24 E.
Sombavera	Carib. Sea,	West India,	N. Ame-	18-38 N.	63-32W.
Isles,			rica		
Soolo Isle,	Philip. Isles,	East India,	Asia	5-57N.	121-20E.
Sound,	between	Denmark and	Europe	Baltic Sea.	
	Sweden,				
Southampton,	Hampshire,	England,	Europe	50-55N.	01-25W.
Spa,	Ourte,	France,	Europe	50-30N.	5-40 E.
Stafford,	Staffordshire,	England,	Europe	52-50N.	2-00W.
Stirling,	Stirlingshire,	Scotland,	Europe	56-10N.	3-50W.
Stockholm,	Upland,	Sweden,	Europe	59-20N.	18-08 E.
Straits of Babelmandel, between Africa and Asia, Red Sea.					
Straits of Dover, between England and France, English Channel.					
Straits of Gibraltar, between Europe and Africa, Mediterranean Sea.					
Straits of Magellan, between Terra del Fuego and Patagonia, South America.					
Straits of Le Maire, in Patagonia, South America, Atlantic and Pacific Oceans.					
Straits of Malacca, between Malacca and Sumatra, Asia, Indian Ocean.					
Straits of Ormus, between Persia and Arabia, Persian Gulf.					
Straits of Sunda, between Sumatra and Java, Indian Ocean, Asia.					
Straits of Waigats, between Nova Zembla and Russia, Asia.					
Stralsund,	Pomerania,	Germany,	Europe	54-23N.	13-22 E.
Strasburgh,	Low. Rhine,	France,	Europe	48-34N.	7-46 E.
Straumness,	Iceland,	N. Atlantic	Europe	65-39N.	24-24W.
		Ocean,			
Suez,	Suez,	Egypt,	Africa	29-50N.	33-27 E.
Sultz,	Upper Rhine,	France,	Europe	47-53N.	7-09W.
Sunderland,	Durham,	England,	Europe	54-55N.	1-10W.
Surat,	Guzerat,	East India,	Asia	21-10N.	72-27 E.
Surinam,	Surinam,	South	America	6-00N.	55-30W.
Syracuse,	Sicily Isle,	Italy,	Europe	36-58N.	5-05 E.
T able	New Hebrides,	South Pacific	Asia	15-38 S.	167-12 E.
Island,	Ocean,				
Tanjore,	Tanjore,	East India,	Asia	11-27N.	79-07 E.
Tanna Isle,	South Pacific	Ocean,	Asia	19-32 S.	169-46 E.
Taoukaa Isle,	South Pacific	Ocean,	Asia	14-30 S.	145-04 W.
Tauris,	Aderbeitzan,	Persia,	Asia	38-20N.	46-30 E.
Teflis,	Georgia,	Persia,	Asia	43-30 N.	47-00 E.
Temontengis,	Solo,	East India,	Asia	5-57N.	120-53 E.
Teneriffe Peak,	Canaries,	Atlant. Ocean,	Africa	28-12N.	16-24W.
Tercera Isle,	Azores,	Atlant. Ocean,	Europe	38-45N.	27-01W.
Tetuan,	Fez,	Barbary,	Africa	35-40N.	5-18W.
St. Thomas's I.,	Virgin Isles	West India,	America	18-21 N.	64-26W.
Thorn,	Prussia,	Europe	52-56 N.	19-09W.	
Timor, S. W.	Point,	East India,	Asia	10-23 S.	124-04 E.

1000 A NEW GEOGRAPHICAL TABLE:

Names of Places.	Provinces, or Seas.	Countries, or Seas.	Quarter.	Lat. D. M.	Long. D. M.
Timorland, S. Point,		East India,	Asia	8-15 S.	131-59 E.
Tobolsk,	Siberia,	Russia,	Asia	58-12 N.	68-17 E.
Toledo,	New Castile,	Spain,	Europe	39-50 N.	3-25 E.
Tomsk,	Siberia,	Russia,	Asia	56-29 N.	85-04 E.
Tonga Taboo Isle,		South Pacific Ocean,	Asia	21-09 S.	174-41 W.
Tornea,	Bothnia,	Sweden,	Europe	65-50 N.	24-17 E.
Toulon,	Var,	France,	Europe	43-07 N.	6-01 E.
Trapesond,	Natolia,	Turkey,	Asia	41-50 N.	40-30 E.
Trent,	Treat,	Germany,	Europe	46-05 N.	11-02 E.
Tripoli,	Tripoli,	Barbary,	Africa	32-53 N.	13-12 E.
Tripoli,	Syria,	Turkey,	Asia	34-30 N.	36-15 E.
Tunis,	Tunis,	Barbary,	Africa	36-47 N.	10-00 E.
Turin,	Piedmont,	Italy,	Europe	45-05 N.	7-45 E.
Turtle Isle,		South Pacific Ocean,	Asia	19-48 S.	178-02 W.
Tyre,	Palestine,	Turkey,	Asia	32-32 N.	36-00 E.
Tyrnaw,	Trentschin,	Hungary,	Europe	48-23 N.	17-38 E.
U Lietca I.,		South Pacific Ocean,	Asia	16-45 S.	151-26 W.
Upsal,	Upland,	Sweden,	Europe	59-51 N.	17-43 E.
Uraniberg,	Huen Isle,	Denmark,	Europe	55-54 N.	12-57 E.
Ushant Isle,	Finisterre,	France,	Europe	48-28 N.	4-59 W.
Utrecht,	Holland,	Netherlands,	Europe	52-07 N.	5-00 E.
Venice,	Venice,	Italy,	Europe	45-26 N.	11-59 E.
Vera Cruz,	Mexico,	North America	19-12 N.	97-25 W.	
Verona,	Veronese,	Italy,	Europe	45-26 N.	11-23 E.
Versailles,	Seine & Oise,	France,	Europe	48-48 N.	2-12 E.
VIENNA (Ob.)	Austria,	Germany,	Europe	48-12 N.	16-22 E.
Vigo,	Galicia,	Spain,	Europe	42-14 N.	8-23 W.
Vintimiglia,	Genoa,	Italy,	Europe	43-53 N.	7-42 E.
Virgin Gorda,	Virgin Isles,	West India,	America	18-18 N.	63-59 W.
W akefield, Yorkshire,		England,	Europe	53-41 N.	1-28 W.
Fort,	Pr. Wales	New N. Wales	North America	58-47 N.	94-02 W.
Wardhus,		Norwegian Lapland,	Europe	70-22 N.	31-11 E.
Warsaw,	Massovia,	Pr. Poland,	Europe	52-14 N.	21-05 E.
Warwick,	Warwickshire	England,	Europe	52-18 N.	1-32 W.
Waterford,	Munster,	Ireland,	Europe	52-12 N.	7-16 W.
Wells,	Somersetshire,	England,	Europe	51-12 N.	2-40 W.
Westman Isles,		North Atlant. Ocean,	Europe	63-20 N.	20-22 W.
Whitehaven,	Cumberland,	England,	Europe	54-38 N.	3-36 W.
Whitsuntide Isle,		South Pacific Ocean,	Asia	15-44 S.	168-25 E.
Williamsburg,	Virginia,	N. America	37-12 N.	76-48 W.	
Willes's Isles,	South Georgia,	Atlant. Ocean,	America	54-00 S.	58-24 W.
Wilna,	Lithuania,	Poland,	Europe	54-41 N.	25-32 E.
Winchester,	Hampshire,	England,	Europe	51-06 N.	1-15 W.
Wittenburg,	Upper Saxony,	Germany,	Europe	51-49 N.	12-46 E.
Wologda,	Wologda,	Russia,	Europe	59-19 N.	41-50 E.
Worms,	Mont Tonnerre,	France,	Europe	49-38 N.	8-05 E.
Worcester,	Worcestershire	England,	Europe	52-09 N.	2-00 W.

TABLE:

<i>Lat.</i> D. M.	<i>Long.</i> D. M.
8-15 S.	131-59 E.
58-12 N.	68-17 E.
49-50 N.	3-25 E.
56-29 N.	85-04 E.
21-09 S.	174-41 W.
55-50 N.	24-17 E.
43-07 N.	6-01 E.
41-50 N.	40-30 E.
46-05 N.	11-02 E.
32-53 N.	13-12 E.
34-30 N.	36-15 E.
36-47 N.	10-00 E.
45-05 N.	7-45 E.
19-48 S.	178-02 W.
32-32 N.	36-00 E.
48-23 N.	17-38 E.
16-45 S.	151-26 W.
59-51 N.	17-43 E.
55-54 N.	12-57 E.
48-28 N.	4-59 W.
52-07 N.	5-00 E.
45-26 N.	11-59 E.
19-12 N.	97-25 W.
45-26 N.	11-23 E.
48-48 N.	2-12 E.
48-12 N.	16-22 E.
42-14 N.	8-23 W.
43-53 N.	7-42 E.
48-18 N.	63-59 W.
53-41 N.	1-28 W.
58-47 N.	94-02 W.
70-22 N.	31-11 E.
52-14 N.	21-05 E.
52-18 N.	1-32 W.
52-12 N.	7-16 W.
51-12 N.	2-40 W.
53-20 N.	20-22 W.
54-38 N.	3-36 W.
15-44 S.	168-25 E.
37-12 N.	76-48 W.
54-00 S.	53-24 W.
54-41 N.	25-32 E.
51-06 N.	1-15 W.
51-49 N.	12-46 E.
49-19 N.	41-50 E.
49-38 N.	8-05 E.
2-09 N.	2-00 W.

A NEW GEOGRAPHICAL TABLE. 1001

<i>Names of Places. Provinces.</i>	<i>Countries, or Seas.</i>	<i>Quarter.</i>	<i>Lat.</i> D. M.	<i>Long.</i> D. M.
Woslak,	Russia,	Europe	61-15 N.	42-20 E.
Wurtzburg, Franconia,	Germany,	Europe	49-46 N.	10-18 E.
Y Akutsk, Siberia,	Russia,	Asia	62-01 N.	129-52 E.
Yarmouth, Norfolk,	England,	Europe	52-45 N.	1-48 E.
York, Yorkshire,	England,	Europe	53-59 N.	1-06 W.
Yorkminster, Terra del Fuego,	South America		55-26 N.	70-03 W.
Greenwich Observ. Kent, England,	Europe,		51° 28' 40" N.	0° 5' 37" E.
E. of St. Paul's, London.				

A

MODERN UNIVERSAL TABLE,

The most **COPIOUS** and **AUTHENTIC** yet published, of the present State of the **REAL** and **IMAGINARY MONIES** of the World.

Divided into four Parts, viz.

EUROPE, ASIA, AFRICA, AND AMERICA;

Which are subdivided into fifty-five Parts, containing the Names of the most capital Places, the Species whereof are inserted, shewing how the Monies are reckoned by the respective Nations; and the Figures standing against the Denomination of each foreign Piece give the English intrinsic Value thereof, according to the best Assays made at the Mint of the Tower of LONDON.

EXPLANATION.

By real Money is understood an effective Specie, representing in itself the Value denominated thereby, as a GUINEA, &c.

* This Mark is prefixed to the imaginary Money, which is generally made use of in keeping Accounts, signifying a fictitious Piece which is not in being, or which cannot be represented but by several other Pieces, as a Pound Sterling, &c.

All fractions in the Value English are parts of a Penny.

= This Mark signifies, *is, make, or equal to.*

Note, for all the Spanish, Portuguese, Dutch, and Danish Dominions, either on the Continent, or in the West Indies, see the Monies of the respective Nations.

ENGLAND AND SCOTLAND.

*London, Bristol, Liverpool, &c.
Edinburgh, Glasgow, Aberdeen, &c.*

Europe, Northern Parts.				£.	s.	d.
1 Farthing	=	—	—	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{4}$
2 Farthings	=	a Halfpenny	—	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{2}$
2 Halfpence	=	a Penny	—	0	0	1
4 Pence	=	a Groat	—	0	0	4
6 Pence	=	a Half Shilling	—	0	0	6
12 Pence	=	a Shilling	—	0	1	0
5 Shillings	=	a Crown	—	0	5	0
20 Shillings	=	a * Pound Sterling	—	1	0	0
21 Shillings	=	a Guinea	—	1	1	0

I R E L A N D.

Dublin, Cork, Londonderry, &c.

			£.	s.	d.	
A Farthing	=	—	0	0	0	1/4
2 Farthings	=	a Halfpenny	0	0	0	1/2
2 Halfpence	=	* a Penny	0	0	0	1/2
6 1/2 Pence	=	a Half Shilling	0	0	6	1/2
12 Pence	=	* a Shilling Irish	0	1	0	1/2
13 Pence	=	a Shilling	0	0	11	
65 Pence	=	a Crown	0	5	0	
20 Shillings	=	* a Pound Irish	0	18	5	1/2
22 1/2 Shillings	=	a Guinea	1	1	0	

F L A N D E R S AND B R A B A N T.

Ghent, Ostend, &c. Antwerp, Brussels, &c.

* A Pening	=	—	0	0	0	1/20
4 Penings	=	an Urche	0	0	0	1/5
8 Penings	=	* a Grote	0	0	0	1/10
2 Grotes	=	a Petard	0	0	0	1/10
6 Petards	=	* a Scalin	0	0	5	1/10
7 Petards	=	a Scalin	0	0	6	1/10
40 Grotes	=	* a Florin	0	1	6	
17 1/2 Scalins	=	a Ducat	0	9	3	
240 Grotes	=	* a Pound Flem.	0	9	0	

H O L L A N D AND Z E A L A N D.

Amsterdam, Rotterdam, Middleburg, Flushing, &c.

* Pening	=	—	0	0	0	3/20
8 Penings	=	* a Grote	0	0	0	1/10
2 Grotes	=	a Stiver	0	0	1	1/10
6 Stivers	=	a Scalin	0	0	6	1/10
20 Stivers	=	a Guilder	0	1	9	
3 Florins 10 Stivers	=	a Rix-dollar	0	4	6	
60 Stivers	=	a Dry Guilder	0	5	4	1/10
3 Florins 3 Stivers	=	a Silver Ducatoon	0	5	8	1/10
6 Guilders	=	* a Pound Flem.	0	10	6	
20 Florins	=	a Gold Ducat, or Ducatoon	1	16	0	
15 Florins	=	a Ducatoon, another sort, called a Sovereign	1	7	0	

H A M B U R G, Altona, Lubec, Bremen, &c.

* A Tryling	=	—	0	0	0	1/20
2 Trylings	=	* a Sexling	0	0	0	1/10
2 Sexlings	=	a Fening	0	0	0	1/10
12 Fenings	=	a Shilling Lub.	0	0	0	1/10
16 Shillings	=	* a Marc	0	1	6	
2 Marcs	=	a Sutch-dollar	0	3	0	
3 Marcs	=	a Rix-dollar	0	4	6	
4 Marcs	=	a Silver Ducatoon	0	6	0	
120 Shillings	=	* a Pound Flem.	0	11	3	

EUROPE, Northern Parts.

TABLE,

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MONIES of the

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N D.

£.	s.	d.
0	0	0 1/4
0	0	0 1/2
0	0	1
0	0	4
0	0	6
0	1	0
0	5	0
1	0	0
1	1	0

EUROPE, Northern Parts.
GERMANY.

HANOVER, Lunenburg, Zell, &c.

			£.	s.	d.	
* A Fening	==	---	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{16}$
3 Fenings	==	a Dreyer	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{16}$
8 Fenings	==	a Marien	0	0	1	$\frac{1}{16}$
12 Fenings	==	a Grosh	0	0	1	$\frac{1}{16}$
8 Groshen	==	a Half Gulden	0	1	2	
16 Groshen	==	a Gulden	0	2	4	
24 Groshen	==	* a Rix-dollar	0	2	6	
32 Groshen	==	a Double Gulden	0	4	8	
4 Guldens	==	a Ducat	0	9	2	

SAXONY AND HOLSTEIN.

Dresden, Leipsic, &c. Wismar, Keil, &c.

* An Heller	==	---	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{16}$
2 Hellers	==	a Fening	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{16}$
6 Hellers	==	a Dreyer	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{16}$
16 Hellers	==	a Marien	0	0	1	$\frac{1}{16}$
12 Fenings	==	a Grosh	0	0	1	$\frac{1}{16}$
16 Groshen	==	a Gould	0	2	4	
24 Groshen	==	* a Rix dollar	0	3	6	
32 Groshen	==	a Specie Dollar	0	4	8	
4 Goulds	==	a Ducat	0	9	4	

BRANDENBURG AND POMERANIA.

Berlin, Potsdam, &c. Stetin, &c.

* A Denier	==	---	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{16}$
9 Deniers	==	a Polchen	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{16}$
18 Deniers	==	a Grosh	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{16}$
3 Polchens	==	an Abrass	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{16}$
20 Groshen	==	* a Marc	0	0	9	$\frac{1}{16}$
30 Groshen	==	a Florin	0	1	2	
90 Groshen	==	* a Rix-dollar	0	3	6	
108 Groshen	==	an Albertus	0	4	2	
8 Florins	==	a Ducat	0	9	4	

COLOGN, Montz, Triers, Liege, Munich, Munster, Paderborn, &c.

A Dute	==	---	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{16}$
3 Dutes	==	a Cruitzer	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{16}$
2 Cruitzers	==	an Alb	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{16}$
8 Dutes	==	a Stiver	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{16}$
3 Stivers	==	a Plapert	0	0	2	$\frac{1}{16}$
4 Plaperts	==	a Copstuck	0	0	8	$\frac{1}{16}$
4 Stivers	==	a Guilder	0	2	4	
2 Guilders	==	a Hard Dollar	0	4	8	
4 Guilders	==	a Ducat	0	9	4	

ABLE.

	<i>L.</i>	<i>s.</i>	<i>d.</i>	
	0	0	0	$\frac{7}{8}$
—	0	0	0	$\frac{7}{8}$
—	0	0	1	$\frac{7}{8}$
—	0	0	1	$\frac{7}{8}$
ten	0	1	2	$\frac{7}{8}$
—	0	2	4	$\frac{7}{8}$
r	0	2	6	$\frac{7}{8}$
lden	0	4	8	$\frac{7}{8}$
—	0	9	2	$\frac{7}{8}$

FEIN.
Keil, &c.

	<i>L.</i>	<i>s.</i>	<i>d.</i>	
	0	0	0	$\frac{7}{8}$
—	0	0	0	$\frac{7}{8}$
—	0	0	0	$\frac{7}{8}$
—	0	0	1	$\frac{7}{8}$
—	0	0	1	$\frac{7}{8}$
—	0	2	4	$\frac{7}{8}$
—	0	3	6	$\frac{7}{8}$
llar	0	4	8	$\frac{7}{8}$
—	0	9	4	$\frac{7}{8}$

FRANIA.
&c.

	<i>L.</i>	<i>s.</i>	<i>d.</i>	
	0	0	0	$\frac{7}{8}$
—	0	0	0	$\frac{7}{8}$
—	0	0	0	$\frac{7}{8}$
—	0	0	0	$\frac{7}{8}$
—	0	0	9	$\frac{7}{8}$
—	0	1	2	$\frac{7}{8}$
r	0	3	6	$\frac{7}{8}$
s	0	4	2	$\frac{7}{8}$
—	0	9	4	$\frac{7}{8}$

unich, Munster,

	<i>L.</i>	<i>s.</i>	<i>d.</i>	
	0	0	0	$\frac{7}{8}$
—	0	0	0	$\frac{7}{8}$
—	0	0	0	$\frac{7}{8}$
—	0	0	0	$\frac{7}{8}$
—	0	0	2	$\frac{7}{8}$
—	0	0	8	$\frac{7}{8}$
—	0	2	4	$\frac{7}{8}$
r	0	4	8	$\frac{7}{8}$
—	0	9	4	$\frac{7}{8}$

EUROPE, Northern Parts.

GERMANY.

A MODERN UNIVERSAL TABLE. 1005

BOHEMIA, SILESIA, AND HUNGARY.
Prague, Breslau, Presburg, &c.

	<i>L.</i>	<i>s.</i>	<i>d.</i>	
A Fening	=	—	—	0 0 0 $\frac{7}{8}$
2 Fenings	=	a Dreyer	—	0 0 0 $\frac{7}{8}$
3 Fenings	=	a Grosh	—	0 0 0 $\frac{7}{8}$
4 Fenings	=	a Cruitzer	—	0 0 0 $\frac{7}{8}$
2 Cruitzers	=	a White Grosh	—	0 0 0 $\frac{7}{8}$
60 Cruitzers	=	a Gould	—	0 2 4
90 Cruitzers	=	* a Rix-dollar	—	0 3 6
2 Goulds	=	a Hard Dollar	—	0 4 8
4 Goulds	=	a Ducat	—	0 9 4

AUSTRIA AND SWABIA,

Vienna, Trieste, &c. Augsburg, Blenheim, &c.

	<i>L.</i>	<i>s.</i>	<i>d.</i>	
A Fening	=	—	—	0 0 0 $\frac{7}{8}$
2 Fenings	=	a Dreyer	—	0 0 0 $\frac{7}{8}$
4 Fenings	=	a Cruitzer	—	0 0 0 $\frac{7}{8}$
14 Fenings	=	a Grosh	—	0 0 1 $\frac{7}{8}$
4 Cruitzers	=	a Batzen	—	0 0 1 $\frac{7}{8}$
15 Batzen	=	a Gould	—	0 2 4
90 Cruitzers	=	* a Rix-dollar	—	0 3 6
2 Florins	=	a Specie dollar	—	0 4 6
60 Batzen	=	a Ducat	—	0 9 4

FRANCONIA, Franckfort, Nuremburg, Dettingen, &c.

	<i>L.</i>	<i>s.</i>	<i>d.</i>	
A Fening	=	—	—	0 0 0 $\frac{7}{8}$
4 Fenings	=	a Cruitzer	—	0 0 0 $\frac{7}{8}$
3 Cruitzers	=	a Keyser Grosh	—	0 0 1 $\frac{7}{8}$
4 Cruitzers	=	a Batzen	—	0 0 1 $\frac{7}{8}$
15 Cruitzers	=	an Ort Gold	—	0 0 7
60 Cruitzers	=	a Gould	—	0 2 4
90 Cruitzers	=	* a Rix-dollar	—	0 3 6
2 Goulds	=	a Hard Dollar	—	0 4 8
240 Cruitzers	=	a Ducat	—	0 9 4

POLAND AND PRUSSIA.

Cracow, Warsaw, &c. Dantzic, Konigsberg, &c.

	<i>L.</i>	<i>s.</i>	<i>d.</i>	
A Shelon	=	—	—	0 0 0 $\frac{7}{8}$
3 Shelons	=	a Grosh	—	0 0 0 $\frac{7}{8}$
5 Groshen	=	a Coustic	—	0 0 2
3 Coustics	=	a Tinse	—	0 0 7
18 Groshen	=	an Ort	—	0 0 8 $\frac{7}{8}$
30 Groshen	=	a Florin	—	0 1 2
90 Groshen	=	* a Rix-dollar	—	0 3 6
8 Florins	=	a Ducat	—	0 9 4
5 Rix-dollars	=	a Frederic d'Or	—	0 17 6

EUROPE, Northern Parts.

LIVONIA: *Riga, Revel, Narva, &c.*

			£.	s.	d.	
A Blacken	=	—	0	0	0	36
6 Blackens	=	a Grosh	0	0	0	72
9 Blackens	=	a Vording	0	0	0	72
2 Groshen	=	a Whiten	0	0	0	14
6 Groshen	=	a Marc	0	0	2	4
30 Groshen	=	a Florin	0	1	2	
90 Groshen	=	* a Rix-dollar	0	3	6	
108 Groshen	=	an Albertus	0	4	2	14
64 Whitens	=	a Copper-plate Dollar	0	5	0	

DENMARK, ZEALAND, AND NORWAY.

Copenhagen, Sound, &c. Bergen, Drontheim, &c.

			0	0	0	
A Skilling	=	—	0	0	0	2
6 Skillings	=	a Duggen	0	0	3	12
16 Skillings	=	* a Marc	0	0	9	24
20 Skillings	=	a Rix-marc	0	0	11	44
24 Skillings	=	a Rix-ort	0	1	1	48
4 Marcs	=	a Crown	0	3	0	12
6 Marcs	=	a Rix-dollar	0	4	6	18
11 Marcs	=	a Ducat	0	8	3	33
14 Marcs	=	a Hat Ducat	0	10	6	42

SWEDEN AND LAPLAND.

Stockholm, Upsal, &c. Thorn, &c.

			0	0	0	
* A Runstick	=	—	0	0	0	24
2 Runsticks	=	a Stiver	0	0	0	48
8 Runsticks	=	a Copper Marc	0	0	1	192
3 Copper Marcs	=	a Silver Marc	0	0	4	72
4 Copper Marcs	=	a Copper Dollar	0	0	6	96
9 Copper Marcs	=	a Caroline	0	1	2	108
3 Copper Dollars	=	a Silver Dollar	0	1	6	36
3 Silver Dollars	=	a Rix-dollar	0	4	6	108
2 Rix-dollars	=	a Ducat	0	9	4	188

RUSSIA AND MUSCOVY.

Petersburg, Archangel, &c. Moscow, &c.

			0	0	0	
A Polusca	=	—	0	0	0	36
2 Poluscas	=	a Denusca	0	0	0	72
2 Denuscas	=	* a Copec	0	0	0	72
3 Copecs	=	an Altin	0	0	1	144
10 Copecs	=	a Grievener	0	0	5	180
25 Copecs	=	a Polpotin	0	1	1	225
50 Copecs	=	a Poltin	0	2	3	450
100 Copecs	=	a Ruble	0	4	6	900
2 Rubles	=	a Xervonitz	0	9	0	1800

TABLE.

rua, &c.	£.	s.	d.
0	0	0	9
0	0	0	17
0	0	0	17
0	0	0	14
0	0	2	4
0	1	2	
0	3	6	
0	4	2	4
0	5	0	

ERWAY. onthheim, &c.	£.	s.	d.
0	0	0	10
0	0	3	
0	0	9	
0	0	11	
0	1	1	
0	3	0	
0	4	6	
0	8	3	
0	10	6	

&c.	£.	s.	d.
0	0	0	7
0	0	0	17
0	0	1	17
0	0	4	3
0	0	6	3
0	1	2	3
0	1	6	3
0	4	6	
0	9	4	

&c.	£.	s.	d.
0	0	0	17
0	0	0	17
0	0	0	17
0	0	1	17
0	0	5	17
0	1	1	17
0	2	3	
0	4	6	
0	9	0	

A MODERN UNIVERSAL TABLE. 1007

EUROPE, Southern Parts.

SWITZERLAND.

BASIL.		Zurich, Zug, &c.		£.	s.	d.
A Rap	=			0	0	0
3 Rapen	=	a Fening	—	0	0	0
4 Fenings	=	a Cruitzer	—	0	0	0
12 Fenings	=*	a Sol	—	0	0	1
15 Fenings	=	a Coarse Batzen	—	0	0	1
18 Fenings	=	a Good Batzen	—	0	0	2
20 Sols	=*	a Livre	—	0	2	6
60 Cruitzers	=	a Gulden	—	0	2	6
108 Cruitzers	=	a Rix-dollar	—	0	4	6

ST. GALL.		Appenzel, &c.		£.	s.	d.
A Heller	=			0	0	0
2 Hellers	=	a Fening	—	0	0	0
4 Fenings	=	a Cruitzer	—	0	0	1
12 Fenings	=*	a Sol	—	0	0	1
4 Cruitzers	=	a Coarse Batzen	—	0	0	2
5 Cruitzers	=	a Good Batzen	—	0	0	2
20 Sols	=*	a Livre	—	0	2	6
60 Cruitzers	=	a Gould	—	0	2	6
102 Cruitzers	=	a Rix-dollar	—	0	4	3

BERN.		Lucerne, Neuchatel, &c.		£.	s.	d.
A Denier	=			0	0	0
4 Deniers	=	a Cruitzer	—	0	0	0
3 Cruitzers	=	* a Sol	—	0	0	1
4 Cruitzers	=	a Plapert	—	0	0	1
5 Cruitzers	=	a Gros	—	0	0	2
6 Cruitzers	=	a Batzen	—	0	0	2
20 Sols	=	* a Livre	—	0	2	0
75 Cruitzers	=	a Gulden	—	0	2	6
125 Cruitzers	=	a Crown	—	0	4	6

GENEVA.		Pekay, Bonne, &c.		£.	s.	d.
A Denier	=			0	0	0
2 Deniers	=	a Denier current	—	0	0	0
12 Deniers	=	a Small Sol	—	0	0	0
12 Deniers current	=	a Sol current	—	0	0	0
12 Small Sols	=	* a Florin	—	0	0	4
20 Sols current	=	* a Livre current	—	0	1	3
10 1/2 Florins	=	a Patacoon	—	0	3	11
15 1/2 Florins	=	a Croisade	—	0	5	10
24 Florins	=	a Ducat	—	0	9	0

EUROPE, Southern Parts.

FRANCE and NAVARRE.

Lisle, Cambray, Valenciennes, &c.

			£.	s.	d.	
A Denier	=	—	0	0	0	1 4 1 5 1 0 1 0
12 Deniers	=	a Sol	0	0	0	
15 Deniers	=	* a Patard	0	0	0	
15 Patards	=	* a Piette	0	0	9	
20 Sols	=	a Livre Tournois	0	0	10	
20 Patards	=	* a Florin	0	1	0	
60 Sols	=	an Ecu of Ex.	0	2	6	
10½ Livres	=	a Ducat	0	9	3	
24 Livres	=	a Louis d'Or	1	0	0	

Dunkirk, St. Omer's, St. Quintin, &c.

A Denier	=	—	0	0	0	1 4 1 5 1 0 1 0
12 Deniers	=	a Sol	0	0	0	
15 Deniers	=	* a Patard	0	0	0	
15 Sols	=	* a Pietre	0	0	7	
20 Sols	=	* a Livre Tournois	0	0	10	
3 Livres	=	an Ecu of Ex.	0	2	6	
24 Livres	=	a Louis d'Or	1	0	6	
24 Livres	=	a Guinea	1	1	0	
30½ Livres	=	a Moeda	1	7	0	

Paris, Lyons, Marseilles, &c. Bourdeaux, Bayonne, &c.

A Denier	=	—	0	0	0	1 4 1 5 1 0 1 0
3 Deniers	=	a Liard	0	0	0	
2 Liards	=	a Dardene	0	0	0	
12 Deniers	=	½ Sol	0	0	0	
20 Sols	=	* a Livre Tournois	0	0	10	
60 Sols	=	an Ecu of Ex.	0	2	6	
6 Livres	=	an Ecu	0	5	0	
10½ Livres	=	* a Pistole	0	8	4	
24 Livres	=	a Louis d'Or	1	0	0	

PORTUGAL, *Lisbon, Oporto, &c.*

* A Re	=	—	0	0	0	1 4 1 5 1 0 1 0
10 Rez	=	a Half Vintin	0	0	0	
20 Rez	=	a Vintin	0	0	1	
5 Vintins	=	a Testoon	0	0	6	
4 Testoons	=	a Crusade of Ex.	0	2	3	
24 Vintins	=	a New Crusade	0	2	8	
10 Testoons	=	* a Milre	0	5	7	
48 Testoons	=	a Moidore	1	7	0	
64 Testoons	=	a Joannes	1	16	0	

TABLE.

es, &c.	£.	s.	d.
—	0	0	0
—	0	0	0
—	0	0	0
ois	0	0	10
—	0	1	0
—	0	2	6
—	0	9	3
—	1	0	0

lin, &c.	£.	s.	d.
—	0	0	0
—	0	0	0
—	0	0	0
—	0	0	7
nois	0	0	10
x.	0	2	6
—	1	0	6
—	1	1	0
—	1	7	0

aux, Bayonne, &c.	£.	s.	d.
—	0	0	0
—	0	0	0
—	0	0	0
—	0	0	0
nois	0	0	10
x.	0	2	6
—	0	5	0
—	0	8	4
r	1	0	0

&c.	£.	s.	d.
—	0	0	0
—	0	0	0
—	0	0	1
—	0	0	6
—	0	2	3
—	0	2	8
—	0	5	7
—	1	7	0
—	1	16	0

A MODERN UNIVERSAL TABLE. 1009

Madrid, Cadiz, Seville, &c. New Plate.

	£.	s.	d.
A Maravedie	=	—	0 0 0
2 Maravedies	=	a Quartil	0 0 0
54 Maravedies	=	a Rial	0 0 5
2 Rials	=	a Pistarine	0 0 10
8 Rials	=	* a Piastre of Ex.	0 3 7
10 Rials	=	a Dollar	0 4 6
375 Maravedies	=	* a Ducat of Ex.	0 4 11
32 Rials	=	* a Pistole of Ex.	0 14 4
36 Rials	=	a Pistole	0 16 9

Gibraltar, Malaga, &c. Velon.

	£.	s.	d.
* A Maravedie	=	—	0 0 0
2 Maravedies	=	an Ochavo	0 0 0
4 Maravedies	=	a Quatril	0 0 0
34 Maravedies	=	* a Rial Velon	0 0 2
15 Rials	=	* a Piastre of Ex.	0 3 7
512 Maravedies	=	a Piastre	0 3 7
60 Rials	=	* a Pistole of Ex.	0 14 4
2048 Maravedies	=	a Pistole of Ex.	0 14 4
70 Rials	=	a Pistole	0 16 9

Barcelona, Saragossa, Valencia, &c. Old Plate.

	£.	s.	d.
A Marvedie	=	—	0 0 0
16 Marvedies	=	a Soldo	0 0 3
2 Soldos	=	a Rial Old Plate	0 0 6
16 Soldos	=	* a Dollar	0 4 6
20 Soldos	=	* a Libra	0 5 7
21 Soldos	=	* a Ducat	0 5 10
22 Soldos	=	* a Ducat	0 6 2
24 Soldos	=	* a Ducat	0 6 9
60 Soldos	=	a Pistole	0 16 9

GENOA. Novi, St. Remo, &c. CORSICA. Bastia, &c.

	£.	s.	d.
A Denari	=	—	0 0 0
12 Denari	=	a Soldi	0 0 0
4 Soldi	=	a Chevalet	0 0 0
20 Soldi	=	* a Lire	0 0 8
3 Soldi	=	a Testoon	0 1 0
5 Lires	=	a Croisade	0 3 7
115 Soldi	=	* a Pezzo of Ex.	0 4 2
6 Testoons	=	a Genouine	0 6 2
20 Lires	=	a Pistole	0 14 4

EUROPE. Southern Parts. SPAIN and CATALONIA.

ITALY.

PIEDMONT, SAVOY, AND SARDINIA.

Turin, Chamberry, Cagliari, &c.

			£.	s.	d.		
A Denari	=	—	—	0	0	0	1
3 Denari	=	a Quatrini	—	0	0	0	4
12 Denari	=	a Soldi	—	0	0	0	4
12 Soldi	=	* a Florin	—	0	0	9	
20 Soldi	=	* a Lire	—	0	1	3	
6 Florins	=	a Scudi	—	0	4	6	
7 Florins	=	a Ducatoon	—	0	5	3	
13 Lires	=	a Pistole	—	0	16	3	
16 Lires	=	a Louis d'Or	—	1	0	0	

Milan, Modena, Parma, Pavia, &c.

A Denari	=	—	—	0	0	0	1
3 Denari	=	a Quatrino	—	0	0	0	4
12 Denari	=	a Soldi	—	0	0	0	4
20 Soldi	=	* a Lire	—	0	0	8	1
115 Soldi	=	a Scudi current	—	0	4	2	1
117 Soldi	=	* a Scudi of Ex.	—	0	4	3	1
6 Lires	=	a Phillip	—	0	4	4	1
22 Lires	=	a Pistole	—	0	16	0	2
23 Lires	=	a Spanish Pistole	—	0	16	9	

Leghorn, Florence, &c.

A Denari	=	—	—	0	0	0	1
4 Denari	=	a Quatrini	—	0	0	0	4
12 Denari	=	a Soldi	—	0	0	0	4
5 Quatrini	=	a Craca	—	0	0	0	3
8 Cracas	=	a Quilo	—	0	0	5	3
20 Soldi	=	* a Lire	—	0	0	8	3
6 Lires	=	a Piastre of Ex.	—	0	4	2	1
7½ Lires	=	a Ducat	—	0	5	2	1
22 Lires	=	a Pistole	—	0	15	6	

ROME. *Civita Vecchia, Ancona, &c.*

A Quatrini	=	—	—	0	0	0	1
5 Quatrini	=	a Bayoc	—	0	0	0	4
8 Bayocs	=	a Julio	—	0	0	6	
10 Bayoc	=	a stamped Julio	—	0	0	7½	
24 Bayocs	=	a Testoon	—	0	1	6	
10 Julios	=	a Crown current	—	0	5	0	
12 Julios	=	* a Crown stamp	—	0	6	0	
18 Julios	=	a Chequin	—	0	9	0	
31 Julios	=	a Pistole	—	0	15	6	

EUROPE, Southern Parts.

ITALY.

TABLE.

SARDINIA.

		L. s. d.			
—		0	0	0	1/2
—		0	0	0	1/2
—		0	0	0	1/2
—		0	0	9	1/2
—		0	1	3	1/2
—		0	4	6	1/2
—		0	5	3	1/2
—		0	16	3	1/2
Dr	—	1	0	0	1/2

Pavia, &c.

—		0	0	0	1/2
—		0	0	0	1/2
—		0	0	0	1/2
—		0	0	8	1/2
rent	—	0	4	2	1/2
Ex.	—	0	4	3	1/2
—		0	4	4	1/2
—		0	16	0	1/2
stole	—	0	16	9	1/2

&c.

—		0	0	0	1/2
—		0	0	0	1/2
—		0	0	0	1/2
—		0	0	0	1/2
—		0	0	5	1/2
—		0	0	8	1/2
Ex.	—	0	4	2	1/2
—		0	5	2	1/2
—		0	15	6	1/2

Incona, &c.

—		0	0	0	1/2
—		0	0	0	1/2
—		0	0	6	1/2
alio	—	0	0	7 1/2	1/2
—		0	1	6	1/2
rent	—	0	5	0	1/2
mp	—	0	6	0	1/2
—		0	9	0	1/2
—		0	15	6	1/2

A MODERN UNIVERSAL TABLE. 1011

NAPLES. *Gaieta, Capua, &c.*

		L. s. d.					
A	Quatrini	—	—	0	0	0	1/2
3	Quatrini	—	a Grain	—	0	0	0
10	Grains	—	a Carlin	—	0	0	4
40	Quatrini	—	a Paulo	—	0	0	5
20	Grains	—	a Tarin	—	0	0	8
40	Grains	—	a Testoon	—	0	1	4
100	Grains	—	a Ducat of Ex.	—	0	3	4
23	Tarins	—	a Pistole	—	0	15	4
25	Tarins	—	a Spanish Pistole	—	0	16	9

SICILY AND MALTA. *Palermo, Messina, &c.*

A	Pichila	—	—	0	0	0	1/2
6	Pichili	—	a Grain	—	0	0	0
8	Pichili	—	a Ponti	—	0	0	0
10	Grains	—	a Carlin	—	0	0	1
20	Grains	—	a Tarin	—	0	0	3
6	Tarins	—	* a Florin of Ex.	—	0	1	6
13	Tarins	—	a Ducat of Ex.	—	0	3	4
60	Carlins	—	* an Ounce	—	0	7	8
2	Ounces	—	a Pistole	—	0	15	4

Bologna, Ravenna, &c.

A	Quatrini	—	—	0	0	0	1/2
6	Quatrini	—	a Bayoc	—	0	0	0
10	Bayocs	—	a Julio	—	0	0	6
20	Bayocs	—	* a Lire	—	0	1	0
3	Julios	—	a Testoon	—	0	1	6
85	Bayocs	—	a Scudi of Ex.	—	0	4	3
100	Bayocs	—	a Crown	—	0	5	0
105	Bayocs	—	a Ducatoon	—	0	5	3
31	Julios	—	a Pistole	—	0	15	6

VENICE. *Bergamo, &c.*

A	Picoli	—	—	0	0	0	1/2
12	Picoli	—	a Soldi	—	0	0	0
6 1/2	Soldi	—	* a Gros	—	0	0	2
18	Soldi	—	a Jule	—	0	0	6
20	Soldi	—	* a Lire	—	0	0	6
3	Jules	—	a Testoon	—	0	1	6
124	Soldi	—	a Ducat current	—	0	3	5
24	Gros	—	* a Ducat of Ex.	—	0	4	4
17	Lires	—	a Chequin	—	0	9	3

EUROPE, Southern Parts.

ITALY.

		TURKEY. <i>Morea, Candia, Cyprus, &c.</i>			£.	s.	d.	
EUROPE, S. Paris.	A Mangar	=	—	—	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{10}$
	4 Mangars	=	an Asper	—	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{10}$
	3 Aspers	=	a Parac	—	0	0	1	$\frac{1}{10}$
	5 Aspers	=	a Bestic	—	0	0	3	$\frac{1}{10}$
	10 Aspers	=	an Ostic	—	0	0	6	
	20 Aspers	=	a Solota	—	0	1	0	
	80 Aspers	=	*a Piastre	—	0	4	0	
	100 Aspers	=	a Caragrouch	—	0	5	0	
	10 Solotas	=	a Xeriff	—	0	10	0	

		ARABIA. <i>Medina, Mecca, Mocba, &c.</i>			£.	s.	d.	
	A Carret	=	—	—	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{10}$
	5 $\frac{1}{4}$ Carrets	=	a Caveer	—	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{10}$
	7 Carrets	=	*a Comashee	—	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{10}$
	80 Carrets	=	a Larin	—	0	0	10	$\frac{1}{10}$
	18 Comashees	=	an Abyss	—	0	1	4	$\frac{1}{10}$
	60 Comashees	=	*a Piastre	—	0	4	6	
	80 Caveers	=	a Dollar	—	0	4	6	
	100 Comashees	=	a Sequin	—	0	7	6	
	80 Larins	=	*a Tomond	—	3	7	6	

		PERSIA. <i>Ispahan, Ormus, Gombroon, &c.</i>			£.	s.	d.	
ASIA.	A Coz	=	—	—	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{10}$
	4 Coz	=	a Bisti	—	0	0	1	$\frac{1}{10}$
	10 Coz	=	a Shahee	—	0	0	4	$\frac{1}{10}$
	20 Coz	=	a Mamooda	—	0	0	8	$\frac{1}{10}$
	25 Coz	=	a Larin	—	0	0	10	$\frac{1}{10}$
	4 Shahees	=	an Abashee	—	0	1	4	
	5 Abashees	=	an Or	—	0	6	8	
	12 Abashees	=	a Bovello	—	0	16	0	
	50 Abashees	=	*a Tomond	—	3	6	8	

		GUZURAT. <i>Surat, Cambay, &c.</i>			£.	s.	d.	
MOEUR.	A Pecka	=	—	—	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{10}$
	2 Peckas	=	a Pice	—	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{10}$
	4 Pices	=	a Fanam	—	0	0	1	$\frac{1}{10}$
	5 Pices	=	a Viz	—	0	0	2	$\frac{1}{10}$
	16 Pices	=	an Ana	—	0	0	7	$\frac{1}{10}$
	4 Anas	=	a Rupee	—	0	2	6	
	2 Rupees	=	an English Crown	—	0	5	0	
	14 Anas	=	a Pagoda	—	0	8	9	
4 Pagodas	=	a Gold Rupee	—	1	15	0		

L TABLE.

Cyprus, &c.

	£.	s.	d.	
—	0	0	0	10
—	0	0	0	20
—	0	0	1	30
—	0	0	3	40
—	0	0	6	50
—	0	1	0	60
—	0	4	0	70
—	0	5	0	80
—	0	10	0	90

Mocha, &c.

	£.	s.	d.	
—	0	0	0	10
—	0	0	0	20
—	0	0	0	30
—	0	0	10	40
—	0	1	4	50
—	0	4	6	60
—	0	4	6	70
—	0	7	6	80
—	3	7	6	90

Gombroon, &c.

	£.	s.	d.	
—	0	0	0	10
—	0	0	1	20
—	0	0	4	30
—	0	0	8	40
—	0	0	10	50
—	0	1	4	60
—	0	6	8	70
—	0	16	0	80
—	3	6	8	90

Bombay, &c.

	£.	s.	d.	
—	0	0	0	10
—	0	0	0	20
—	0	0	1	30
—	0	0	2	40
—	0	0	7	50
—	0	2	6	60
—	0	5	0	70
—	0	8	9	80
—	1	15	0	90

A MODERN UNIVERSAL TABLE. 1013

Bombay, Dabul, &c.

	£.	s.	d.	
* A Budgroom	—	0	0	0
2 Budgrooms	—	0	0	0
5 Rez	—	0	0	0
10 Pices	—	0	0	0
20 Pices	—	0	0	6
240 Rez	—	0	1	4
4 Quarters	—	0	2	3
14 Quarters	—	0	8	0
60 Quarters	—	1	15	0

MALABAR.

Goa, Visapour, &c.

	£.	s.	d.	
* A Re	—	0	0	0
2 Rez	—	0	0	0
2 Bazaracas	—	0	0	0
20 Rez	—	0	0	1
4 Vintins	—	0	0	5
3 Larees	—	0	1	4
42 Vintins	—	0	4	6
4 Tangus	—	0	18	0
8 Tangus	—	1	15	0

ASIA.

Mogul.

COROMANDEL. Madras, Pondicherry, &c.

	£.	s.	d.	
A Cash	—	0	0	0
5 Cash	—	0	0	0
2 Viz	—	0	0	0
6 Pices	—	0	0	2
18 Pices	—	0	0	3
10 Fanams	—	0	2	6
2 Rupees	—	0	5	0
6 Fanams	—	0	8	9
4 Pagodas	—	1	15	0

BENGAL. Calicut, Calcutta, &c.

	£.	s.	d.	
A Pice	—	0	0	0
4 Pices	—	0	0	0
6 Pices	—	0	0	0
12 Pices	—	0	0	1
10 Anas	—	0	1	6
16 Anas	—	0	2	6
2 Rupees	—	0	5	0
2 Rupees	—	0	5	0
56 Anas	—	0	8	6

* Major Rennell says, that we may with ease reduce any large sum in rupees to sterling, by calculating roundly at the rate of a lack of rupees to ten thousand pounds, and that a crore of rupees is equal to a million sterling.

SIAM. *Pegu, Malacca, Cambodia, Sumatra, Java, Borneo, &c.*

			£.	s.	d.	
A Cori	=	—	0	0	0	$\frac{2}{3}$ 0
10 Cori	=	a Fettee	0	0	0	$\frac{5}{8}$ 0
125 Fettees	=	a Sataleer	0	0	7	$\frac{1}{2}$
250 Fettees	=	a Sooco	0	1	3	
500 Fettees	=	a Tical	0	2	6	
900 Fettees	=	a Dollar	0	4	6	
2 Ticals	=	a Rial	0	5	0	
4 Soocos	=	an Ecu	0	5	0	
8 Sataleers	=	a Crown	0	5	0	

CHINA. *Pekin, Canton, &c.*

A Caja	=	—	0	0	0	$\frac{2}{3}$
10 Caja	=	a Candereen	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{3}$
10 Candereens	=	a Mace	0	0	8	
35 Candereens	=	a Rupee	0	2	6	
2 Rupees	=	a Dollar	0	4	6	
70 Candereens	=	a Rix-dollar	0	4	4	$\frac{1}{2}$
7 Maces	=	an Ecu	0	5	0	
2 Rupees	=	a Crown	0	6	0	
10 Maces	=	a Tale	0	6	8	

ASIA.

JAPAN. *Jeddo, Meaco, &c.*

A Piti	=	—	0	0	0	$\frac{2}{3}$
20 Pitis	=	a Mace	0	0	4	$\frac{1}{3}$
15 Maces	=	an Ounce Silver	0	4	10	$\frac{1}{3}$
20 Maces	=	a Tale	0	6	8	
30 Maces	=	an Ingot	0	9	8	$\frac{2}{3}$
13 Ounces Silver	=	an Ounce Gold	3	3	0	
2 Ounces Gold	=	a Japanese	6	6	0	
2 Japaneses	=	a Double	12	12	0	
21 Ounces Gold	=	*a Cattee	66	3	0	

EGYPT. *Old and New Cairo, Alexandria, Sayde, &c.*

An Asper	=	—	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{3}$
3 Aspers	=	a Medin	0	0	1	$\frac{1}{3}$
24 Medins	=	an Italian Ducat	0	3	4	$\frac{1}{3}$
80 Aspers	=	*a Piastre	0	4	0	
30 Medins	=	a Dollar	0	4	6	
96 Aspers	=	an Ecu	0	5	0	
32 Medins	=	a Crown	0	5	0	
200 Aspers	=	a Sultanin	0	10	0	
70 Medins	=	a Pargo Dollar	0	10	6	

AFRICA.

L TABLE.

a, Java, Borneo, &c.

	£.	s.	d.	
—	0	0	0	$\frac{2}{5}$ 0
—	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{5}$ 0
—	0	0	7	$\frac{1}{2}$
—	0	1	3	
—	0	2	6	
—	0	4	6	
—	0	5	0	
—	0	5	0	
—	0	5	0	

n, &c.

	£.	s.	d.	
—	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{2}$
—	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{2}$
—	0	0	8	
—	0	2	6	
—	0	4	6	
—	0	4	4	$\frac{1}{2}$
—	0	5	0	
—	0	6	0	
—	0	6	8	

&c.

	£.	s.	d.	
—	0	0	0	$\frac{2}{5}$
—	0	0	4	$\frac{1}{5}$
—	0	4	10	$\frac{1}{5}$
—	0	6	8	
—	0	9	8	$\frac{2}{5}$
—	3	3	0	
—	6	6	0	
—	12	12	0	
—	66	3	0	

ndria, Sayde, &c.

	£.	s.	d.	
—	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{5}$
—	0	0	1	$\frac{1}{5}$
—	0	3	4	
—	0	4	0	
—	0	4	6	
—	0	5	0	
—	0	5	0	
—	0	10	0	
—	0	10	6	

A MODERN UNIVERSAL TABLE.

BARBARY. Algiers, Tunis, Tripoli, Una, &c.

	£.	s.	d.	
An Asper =	—	0	0	0
3 Aspers =	a Medin	—	0	0
10 Aspers =	a Rial Old Plate	—	0	0
2 Rials =	a Double	—	0	1
4 Doubles =	a Dollar	—	0	4
24 Medins =	a Silver Chequin	—	0	3
30 Medins =	a Dollar	—	0	4
150 Aspers =	a Zequin	—	0	8
15 Doubles =	a Pistole	—	0	16

AFRICA.

MOROCCO. Santa Cruz, Mequinez, Fez, Tangier, Sallee, &c.

	£.	s.	d.	
A Fluce =	—	0	0	0
24 Fluces =	a Blanquil	—	0	0
4 Blanquils =	an Ounce	—	0	0
7 Blanquils =	an Octavo	—	0	1
14 Blanquils =	a Quarto	—	0	2
2 Quartos =	a Medio	—	0	4
28 Blanquils =	a Dollar	—	0	4
54 Blanquils =	a Xequin	—	0	9
100 Blanquils =	a Pistole	—	0	16

AMERICA.

WEST INDIES.

ENGLISH. Jamaica, Barbadoes, &c.

	£.	s.	d.	
* A Halfpenny =	—	0	0	0
2 Halfpence =	*a Penny	—	0	0
7½ Pence =	a Bit	—	0	0
12 Pence =	*a Shilling	—	0	0
75 Pence =	a Dollar	—	0	4
7 Shillings =	a Crown	—	0	5
20 Shillings =	*a Pound	—	0	14
24 Shillings =	a Pistole	—	0	16
30 Shillings =	a Guinea	—	1	1

FRENCH. St. Domingo, Martinico, &c.

	£.	s.	d.	
* A Half Sol =	—	0	0	0
2 Half Sols =	*a Sol	—	0	0
7½ Sols =	a Half Scalin	—	0	0
15 Sols =	a Scalin	—	0	0
20 Sols =	*a Livre	—	0	0
7 Livres =	a Dollar	—	0	4
8 Livres =	an Ecu	—	0	4
26 Livres =	a Pistole	—	0	16
32 Livres =	a Louis d'Or	—	1	0

ENGLISH. *Nova Scotia, New England, Virginia, &c.*

			£.	s.	d.
* A Penny	=	—	—	0	0
12 Pence	=	* a Shilling	—	0	1
20 Shillings	=	* a Pound	—	1	0
2 Pounds					
3 Pounds					
4 Pounds					
5 Pounds					
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7 Pounds					
8 Pounds					
9 Pounds					
10 Pounds					

* AMERICA.

CONTINENT.

The Value of the Currency alters according to the Plenty or Scarcity of Gold and Silver Coins that are imported.

FRENCH. *Canada, Florida, Cayenne, &c.*

A Denier					
12 Deniers	=	* a Sol			
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The Value of the Currency alters according to the Plenty or Scarcity of Gold and Silver Coins that are imported.

Note. For all the *Spanish, Portuguese, Dutch, and Danish* Dominions, either on the Continent, or in the *WEST INDIES*, see the *Monies* of the respective Nations.

Virginia, &c.

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nd *Danish* Dominions,
see the *Monies* of the

A NEW
CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE

OF

REMARKABLE EVENTS,
DISCOVERIES, AND INVENTIONS;

ALSO,

THE ERA, THE COUNTRY, AND WRITINGS, OF LEARNED MEN:

The whole comprehending, in one View, the Analysis or Outlines of
General History, from the Creation to the present Time.

=====
Bef. Christ.

- 4004 THE creation of the world, and Adam and Eve.
 3017 Enoch, for his piety, is translated to Heaven.
 2348 The whole world is destroyed by a deluge, which continued 377 days.
 2247 The tower of Babel is built about this time by Noah's posterity, upon which
 God miraculously confounds their language, and thus disperses them into
 different nations.
 About the same time, Noah is, with great probability, supposed to have part-
 ed from his rebellious offspring, and to have led a colony of some of the
 more tractable into the East, and there either he, or one of his successors,
 to have founded the ancient Chinese monarchy.
 2234 The celestial observations are begun at Babylon, the city which first gave birth
 to learning and the sciences.
 2188 Misraim, the son of Ham, founds the kingdom of Egypt, which lasted 1663
 years, down to its conquest by Cambyses, in 525 before Christ.
 2059 Ninus, the son of Belus, founds the kingdom of Assyria, which lasted above
 1000 years, and out of its ruins were formed the Assyrians of Babylon,
 those of Nineveh, and the kingdom of the Medes.
 1921 The covenant of God made with Abram, when he leaves Haran to go into Can-
 naan, which begins the 430 years of sojourning.
 1897 The cities of Sodom and Gomorrah are destroyed for their wickedness, by fire
 from Heaven.
 1856 The kingdom of Argos, in Greece, begins under Inachus.
 1822 Memnon, the Egyptian, invents letters.
 1715 Prometheus first struck fire from flint.
 1635 Joseph dies in Egypt, which concludes the book of Genesis, containing a pe-
 riod of 2369 years.
 1574 Aaron born in Egypt; 1490, appointed by God first high-priest of the Israelites.
 1571 Moses, brother to Aaron, born in Egypt, and adopted by Pharaoh's daughter,
 who educates him in all the learning of the Egyptians.
 1556 Cærops brings a colony of Saïtes from Egypt into Attica, and founds the king-
 dom of Athens, in Greece.
 1546 Scamander comes from Crete into Phrygia, and founds the kingdom of Troy.
 1493 Cadmus carried the Phœnician letters into Greece, and built the citadel of
 Thebes.
 1491 Moses performs a number of miracles in Egypt, and departs from that king-
 dom, together with 600,000 Israelites, besides children; which completed
 the 430 years of sojourning. They miraculously pass through the Red Sea,
 and come to the Desert of Sinai, where Moses receives from God, and deli-
 vers to the people, the Ten Commandments, and the other laws, and sets
 up the Tabernacle, and in it the ark of the covenant.

- 1485 The first ship that appeared in Greece was brought from Egypt by Danaus, who arrived at Rhodes, and brought with him his fifty daughters.
- 1459 The first Olympic games celebrated at Olympia, in Greece.
- 1452 The Pentateuch, or five books of Moses, are written in the land of Moab, where he died in the year following, aged 120.
- 1451 The Israelites, after sojourning in the Wilderness forty years, are led under Joshua into the land of Canaan, where they fix themselves, after having subdued the natives: and the period of the sabbatical year commences.
- 1406 Iron is found in Greece, from the accidental burning of the woods.
- 1198 The rape of Helen by Paris, which, in 1193, gave rise to the Trojan war and siege of Troy by the Greeks, which continued ten years, when that city was taken and burnt.
- 1048 David is sole king of Israel.
- 1004 The temple is solemnly dedicated by Solomon.
- 896 Elijah, the prophet, is translated to Heaven.
- 894 Money first made of gold and silver at Argos.
- 869 The city of Carthage, in Africa, founded by queen Dido.
- 814 The kingdom of Macedon begins.
- 776 The first Olympiad begins.
- 753 Æra of the building of Rome, in Italy, by Romulus, first king of the Romans.
- 720 Samaria taken, after three years' siege, and the kingdom of Israel finished, by Salmanasar, king of Assyria, who carried the ten tribes into captivity.
- The first eclipse of the moon on record.
- 658 Byzantium (now Constantinople) built by a colony of Athenians.
- 604 By order of Necho, king of Egypt, some Phœnicians sailed from the Red Sea round Africa, and returned by the Mediterranean.
- 600 Thales, of Miletus, travels into Egypt, consults the priests of Memphis, acquires the knowledge of geometry, astronomy, and philosophy, returns to Greece, calculates eclipses, gives general notions of the universe, and maintains that one supreme intelligence regulates all its motions.
- Maps, spheres and sun-dials invented by Anaximander, the scholar of Thales.
- 597 Jehoiakin, king of Judah, carried away captive by Nebuchadnezzar, to Babylon.
- 587 The city of Jerusalem taken, after a siege of 18 months.
- 562 The first comedy at Athens acted upon a moveable scaffold.
- 559 Cyrus, the first king of Persia.
- 538 The kingdom of Babylon finished, that city being taken by Cyrus, who, in 536, issues an edict for the return of the Jews.
- 534 The first tragedy was acted at Athens, on a waggon, by Thespis.
- 526 Learning is greatly encouraged at Athens, and a public library first founded.
- 515 The second temple at Jerusalem is finished under Darius.
- 509 Tarquin, the seventh and last king of the Romans, is expelled, and Rome is governed by two consuls, and other republican magistrates, till the battle of Pharsalia, being a space of 461 years.
- 504 Sardis taken and burnt by the Athenians, which gave occasion to the Persian invasion of Greece.
- 486 Æschylus, the Greek poet, first gains the prize of tragedy.
- 481 Xerxes the Great, king of Persia, begins his expedition against Greece.
- 458 Ezra is sent from Babylon to Jerusalem, with the captive Jews, and the vessels of gold and silver, &c. being seventy weeks of years, or 490 years, before the crucifixion of our Saviour.
- 454 The Romans send to Athens for Solon's laws.
- 451 The Decemvirs created at Rome, and the laws of the twelve tables compiled and ratified.
- 430 The history of the Old Testament finishes about this time.
- Malachi, the last of the prophets.
- 401 Retreat of 10,000 Greeks under Xenophon.
- 400 Socrates, the founder of moral philosophy among the Greeks, believes the immortality of the soul, and a state of rewards and punishments, for which, and other sublime doctrines, he is put to death by the Athenians, who soon after repent, and erect to his memory a statue of brass.
- 331 Alexander the Great, king of Macedon, conquers Darius, king of Persia, and various nations of Asia.
- 323 Dies at Babylon, and his empire is divided by his generals into four kingdoms.
- 285 Dionysius of Alexandria began his astronomical æra on Monday June 26, being the first who found the exact solar year to consist of 365 days, 5 hours, and 49 minutes.

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284 Ptolemy Philadelphus, king of Egypt, employs seventy-two interpreters to translate the Old Testament into the Greek language, which is called the Septuagint.

269 The first coining of silver at Rome.

264 The first Punic war begins, and continues 23 years. The chronology of the Arundelian marble, called the Parian Chronicle, composed.

260 The Romans first apply themselves to naval affairs, and defeat the Carthaginians at sea.

237 Hamilcar, the Carthaginian, causes his son Hannibal, at nine years old, to swear eternal enmity to the Romans.

218 The second Punic war begins, and continues 17 years. Hannibal passes the Alps, and defeats the Romans in several battles, but does not improve his victories by the storming of Rome.

190 The first Roman army enters Asia, and, from the spoils of Antiochus, brings the Asiatic luxury first to Rome.

168 Perseus defeated by the Romans, which ends the Macedonian kingdom.

167 The first library erected at Rome, of books brought from Macedonia.

165 The government of Judea under the Maccabees begins, and continues 125 years.

146 Carthage, the rival of Rome, razed to the ground by the Romans.

135 The history of the Apocrypha ends.

52 Julius Cæsar makes his first expedition into Britain.

47 The battle of Pharsalia between Cæsar and Pompey, in which the latter is defeated.

The Alexandrian library, consisting of 400,000 valuable books, burnt by accident.

45 The war of Africa, in which Cato kills himself.

The solar year introduced by Cæsar.

44 Cæsar, the greatest of the Roman conquerors, after having fought fifty pitched battles, and slain 1,192,000 men, and overturned the liberties of his country, is killed in the senate-house.

51 The battle of Actium fought, in which Mark Antony and Cleopatra are totally defeated by Octavius, nephew to Julius Cæsar.

50 Alexandria, in Egypt, is taken by Octavius, upon which Antony and Cleopatra put themselves to death, and Egypt is reduced to a Roman province.

27 Octavius, by a decree of the senate, obtains the title of Augustus Cæsar, and an absolute exemption from the laws, and is properly the first Roman emperor.

8 Rome at this time is fifty miles in circumference, and contains 463,000 men fit to bear arms.

1 The temple of Janus is shut by Augustus, as an emblem of universal peace; and JESUS CHRIST is supposed to have been born in September, or on Monday, December 25.

A. C.

12 CHRIST hears the doctors in the temple, and asks them questions.

27 ----- is baptized in the wilderness by John.

33 ----- is crucified on Friday, April 3, at 3 o'clock P. M.

His resurrection on Sunday, April 5: his ascension, Thursday, May 14.

36 St. Paul converted.

39 St. Matthew writes his Gospel.

Pontius Pilate kills himself.

40 The name of Christians first given at Antioch to the followers of Christ.

43 Claudius Cæsar's expedition into Britain.

44 St. Mark writes his Gospel.

49 London is founded by the Romans: 368, surrounded by ditto with a wall, some parts of which are still observable.

51 Caractacus, the British king, is carried in chains to Rome.

52 The council of the Apostles at Jerusalem.

55 St. Luke writes his Gospel.

59 The emperor Nero puts his mother and brothers to death.

61 Boadicea, the British queen, defeats the Romans, but is conquered soon after by Suetonius, governor of Britain.

62 St. Paul sent in bonds to Rome--writes his epistles between 51 and 66.

63 The Acts of the Apostles written.

Christianity is supposed to be introduced into Britain by St. Paul, or some of his disciples, about this time.

64 Rome set on fire, and burned for six days! upon which began (under Nero) the first persecution against the Christians.

70 St. Peter and St. Paul put to death.

67 Whilst the factious Jews are destroying one another with mutual fury, Titus, the

- Roman general, takes Jerusalem, which is razed to the ground, and the plough made to pass over it.
- 79 Herculaneum overwhelmed by an eruption of Mount Vesuvius.
- 85 Julius Agricola, governor of South Britain, defeats the Caledonians under Galgacus, on the Grampian hills; and first sails round Britain, which he discovers to be an island.
- 96 St. John the Evangelist wrote his Revelations—his Gospel in 97.
- 121 The Caledonians reconquer from the Romans all the southern parts of Scotland.
- 135 The second Jewish war ends, when they were all banished Judea.
- 139 Justin writes his first Apology for the Christians.
- 152 The emperor Antoninus Pius stops the persecution against the Christians.
- 222 About this time the Roman empire begins to sink under its own weight. The Barbarians begin their eruptions, and the Goths have annual tribute not to molest the empire.
- 260 Valerius is taken prisoner by Sapor, king of Persia, and flayed alive.
- 274 Silk first brought from India; the manufactory of it introduced into Europe by some Monks, 531; first worn by the clergy in England, 1534.
- 306 Constantine the Great begins his reign.
- 308 Cardinals first created.
- 313 The tenth persecution ends by an edict of Constantine, who favours the Christians, and gives full liberty to their religion.
- 314 Three bishops, or fathers, are sent from Britain to assist at the council of Arles.
- 325 The first general council at Nice, when 318 fathers attended against Arius, where was composed the famous Nicene creed, which we attribute to them.
- 328 Constantine removes the seat of empire from Rome to Byzantium, which is thenceforward called Constantinople.
- 331 ——— orders all the heathen temples to be destroyed.
- 363 The Roman emperor Julian, surnamed the Apostate, endeavours in vain to rebuild the temple of Jerusalem.
- 364 The Roman empire is divided into the eastern (Constantinople the capital) and western (of which Rome continued to be the capital), each being now under the government of different emperors.
- 400 Bells introduced by bishop Paulinus, of Campania.
- 404 The kingdom of Caledonia or Scotland revives under Fergus.
- 406 The Vandals, Alans, and Suevi, spread into France and Spain, by a concession of Honorius, emperor of the West.
- 410 Rome taken and plundered by Alaric, king of the Visi-Goths.
- 412 The Vandals begin their kingdom in Spain.
- 420 The kingdom of France begins upon the Lower Rhine, under Pharamond.
- 426 The Romans, reduced to extremities at home, withdraw their troops from Britain, and never return; advising the Britons to arm in their own defence, and trust to their own valour.
- 446 The Britons, now left to themselves, are greatly harassed by the Scots and Picts; upon which they once more make their complaint to the Romans, but receive no assistance from that quarter.
- 447 Attila (surnamed the Scourge of God) with his Huns ravages the Roman empire.
- 449 Vortigern, king of the Britons, invites the Saxons into Britain, against the Scots and Picts.
- 455 The Saxons, having repulsed the Scots and Picts, invite over more of their countrymen, and begin to establish themselves in Kent, under Hengist.
- 476 The western empire ends, 523 years after the battle of Pharsalia; upon the ruins of which, several new states arise in Italy and other parts, consisting of Goths, Vandals, Huns, and other barbarians, under whom literature is extinguished, and the works of the learned destroyed.
- 496 Clovis, king of France, baptized, and Christianity begins in that kingdom.
- 508 Prince Arthur begins his reign over the Britons.
- 513 Constantinople besieged by Vitellianus, whose fleet is burned by a speculum of brass.
- 516 The computing of time by the Christian era introduced by Dionysius the monk.
- 529 The code of Justinian, the eastern emperor, published.
- 557 A terrible plague all over Europe, Asia, and Africa, which continues near 50 years.
- 581 Latin ceased to be spoken about this time in Italy.
- 596 Augustine the monk comes into England, with forty monks.
- 606 The power of the popes begins, by the concession of Phocas, emperor of the East.

A NEW CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE.

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622 Mahomet flies from Mecca to Medina, in Arabia, in the 54th year of his age and the tenth of his ministry, when he laid the foundation of the Saracene empire, and from whom the Mahometan princes to this day claim their descent. His followers compute their time from this era, which in Arabic is called Hegira, i. e. the flight.

637 Jerusalem taken by the Saracens, or followers of Mahomet.

640 Alexandria in Egypt taken by the same, and the grand library there burnt by order of Omar, their caliph or prince.

643 The Saracens extend their conquests on every side, and retaliate the barbarities of the Goths and Vandals upon their posterity.

664 Glass introduced into England by Benalt, a monk.

685 The Britons, after a brave struggle of near 150 years, are totally expelled by the Saxons, and driven into Wales and Cornwall.

713 The Saracens conquer Spain.

726 The controversy about images begins, and occasions many insurrections in the eastern empire.

748 The computing of years from the birth of Christ began to be used in history.

749 The race of Abbas become caliphs of the Saracens, and encourage learning.

762 The city of Bagdad upon the Tigris is made the capital for the caliphs of the house of Abbas.

800 Charlemagne, king of France, begins the empire of Germany, afterwards called the western empire; gives the present names to the days and months; endeavours to restore learning in Europe; but mankind are not yet disposed for it, being solely engrossed in military enterprises.

826 Harold, king of Denmark, dethroned by his subjects for being a Christian.

828 Egbert, king of Wessex, unites the Heptarchy, by the name of England.

838 The Scots and Picts have a decisive battle, in which the former prevail, and both kingdoms are united by Kenneth; which begins the second period of the Scottish history.

867 The Danes begin their ravages in England.

896 Alfred the Great, after subduing the Danish invaders (against whom he fought 56 battles by sea and land), composed his body of laws: divides England into counties, hundreds, tythings; erects county-courts, and founds the university of Oxford about this time.

915 The university of Cambridge founded.

936 The Saracene empire is divided by usurpation into seven kingdoms.

975 Pope Boniface VIII. is deposed and banished for his crimes.

979 Coronation oaths said to be first used in England.

991 The figures in arithmetic are brought into Europe by the Saracens from Arabia. Letters of the alphabet were hitherto used.

996 Otho III. makes the empire of Germany elective.

999 Boleslaus, the first king of Poland.

1000 Paper made of cotton rags was in use; that of linen rags in 1170: the manufactory introduced into England at Dartford, 1588.

1005 All the old churches are rebuilt about this time in a new manner of architecture.

1015 Children forbidden by law to be sold by their parents in England.

1017 Canute, king of Denmark, gets possession of England.

1040 The Danes, after several engagements with various success, are about this time driven out of Scotland, and never again return in a hostile manner.

1041 The Saxon line restored under Edward the Confessor.

1043 The Turks (a nation of adventurers from Tartary, serving hitherto in the armies of contending princes) become formidable, and take possession of Persia.

1054 Leo. IX. the first pope that maintained an army.

1057 Malcolm III., king of Scotland, kills the tyrant Macbeth at Dunsinane, and marries the princess Margaret, sister to Edgar Atheling.

1065 The Turks take Jerusalem from the Saracens.

1066 The battle of Hastings fought between Harold and William (surnamed the Bastard) duke of Normandy, in which Harold is conquered and slain, after which William becomes king of England.

1070 William introduces the feudal law.

Musical notes invented.

1075 Henry IV. emperor of Germany, and the pope, quarrel about the nomination of the German bishops. Henry, in penance, walks bare-footed to the pope towards the end of January.

1076 Justices of the peace first appointed in England.

1080 Doomsday book began to be compiled by order of William, from a survey of all the estates in England, and finished in 1086.

- The Tower of London built by William, to curb his English subjects: numbers of whom fly to Scotland, where they introduce the English or Saxon language, are protected by Malcolm, and have lands given them.
- 1091 The Saracens in Spain being hard pressed by the Spaniards, call to their assistance Joseph, king of Morocco; by which the Moors gain possession of all the Saracen dominions in Spain.
- 1096 The first crusade to the Holy Land is begun under several Christian princes, to drive the infidels from Jerusalem.
- 1110 Edgar Atheling, the last of the Saxon princes, dies in England, where he had been permitted to reside as a subject.
- 1118 The order of the Knights Templars instituted, to defend the sepulchre at Jerusalem, and to protect Christian strangers.
- 1151 The canon law collected by Gratian, a monk of Bologna.
- 1163 London bridge, consisting of 19 small arches, first built of stone.
- 1164 The Teutonic order of religious knights begins in Germany.
- 1172 Henry II. king of England (and first of the Plantagenets) takes possession of Ireland, which, from that period, has been governed by an English viceroy, or lord lieutenant.
- 1176 England is divided by Henry into six circuits, and justice is dispensed by itinerant judges.
- 1180 Glass windows began to be used in private houses in England.
- 1181 The laws of England are digested about this time by Glanville.
- 1182 Pope Alexander III. compelled the kings of England and France to hold the stirrups of his saddle when he mounted his horse.
- 1186 The great conjunction of the sun and moon and all the planets in Libra, in September.
- 1192 The battle of Ascalon, in Palestine, in which Richard, king of England, defeats Saladin's army, consisting of 300,000 combatants.
- 1194 *Dieu et mon Droit* first used as a motto by Richard, on a victory over the French.
- 1200 Chimneys were not known in England.
Surnames now began to be used; first among the nobility.
- 1208 London incorporated, and obtained the first charter for electing the lord-mayor and other magistrates, from king John.
- 1215 Magna Charta signed by king John and the barons of England.
Court of Common Pleas established.
- 1227 The Tartars, under Gengis Khan, emerge from the northern parts of Asia, over-run all the Saracen empire; and, in imitation of former conquerors, carry death and desolation wherever they march.
- 1233 The Inquisition, begun in 1204, is now committed to the Dominicans.
The houses of London, and other cities in England, France, and Germany, still thatched with straw.
- 1253 The famous astronomical tables are composed by Alphonso, king of Castile.
- 1258 The Tartars take Bagdad, which finishes the empire of the Saracens.
- 1263 Acho, king of Norway, invades Scotland with 160 sail, and lands 20,000 men at the mouth of the Clyde, who are cut to pieces by Alexander III., who recovers the Western Isles.
- 1264 According to some writers, the commons of England were not summoned to parliament till this period.
- 1269 The Hamburgh company incorporated in England.
- 1273 The empire of the present Austrian family begins in Germany.
- 1282 Llewellyn, prince of Wales, defeated and killed by Edward I., who unites that principality to England.
- 1284 Edward II., born at Caernarvon, is the first prince of Wales.
- 1285 Alexander III., king of Scotland, dies, and that kingdom is disputed by twelve candidates, who submit their claims to the arbitration of Edward king of England; which lays the foundation of a long and desolating war between both nations.
- 1293 There is a regular succession of English parliaments from this year, being the 29d of Edward I.
- 1298 The present Turkish empire begins in Bithynia, under Ottoman.
Silver-hafted knives, spoons, and cups, a great luxury.
Tallow candles so great a luxury, that splinters of wood were used for lights
Wine sold by apothecaries as a cordial.
- 1302 The mariner's compass invented, or improved, by Givias, of Naples.
- 1307 The beginning of the Swiss cantons.
- 1308 The popes remove to Avignon in France for 70 years.
- 1310 Lincoln's Inn society established.

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- 1314 The battle of Bannockburn between Edward II. and Robert Bruce, which establishes the latter on the throne of Scotland.
 The cardinals set fire to the conclave, and separate. A vacancy in the papal chair for two years.
- 1336 Two Brabant weavers settle at York, which, says Edward III., may prove of great benefit to us and our subjects.
- 1337 The first comet whose course is described with astronomical exactness.
- 1340 Gunpowder and guns first invented by Swartz, a monk of Cologne; 1346, Edward III. had four pieces of cannon, which contributed to gain him the battle of Cressy; 1346, bombs and mortars were invented.
 Oil painting first made use of by John Vanneck.
 Heralds' college instituted in England.
- 1341 Gold first coined in England.
 The first creation to titles by patent used by Edward III.
- 1346 The battle of Durham, in which David king of Scots is taken prisoner.
- 1349 The order of the Garter instituted in England by Edward III. altered in 1557, and consists of 26 knights.
- 1352 The Turks first enter Europe.
- 1354 The money in Scotland till now the same as in England.
- 1356 The battle of Poitiers, in which king John of France and his son are taken prisoners by Edward the black prince.
- 1357 Coals first brought to London.
- 1358 Arms of England and France first quartered by Edward III.
- 1362 The law pleadings in England changed from French to English, as a favour of Edward III., to his people.
 John Wickliffe, an Englishman, begins about this time to oppose the errors of the church of Rome with great acuteness and spirit. His followers are called Lollards.
- 1396 A company of linen-weavers from the Netherlands established in London.
 Windsor castle built by Edward III.
- 1388 The battle of Otterburn between Hotspur and the earl of Douglas; on this is founded the battle of Chevy Chase.
- 1391 Cards invented in France for the king's amusement.
- 1399 Westminster abbey rebuilt and enlarged—Westminster hall ditto.
 Order of the Bath instituted at the coronation of Henry IV.; renewed in 1725; consisting of 38 knights.
- 1410 Guildhall, London, built.
- 1411 The university of St. Andrew's in Scotland founded.
- 1415 The battle of Agincourt gained over the French by Henry V. of England.
- 1428 The siege of Orleans, the first blow to the English power in France.
- 1430 About this time Laurentius of Haarlem invented the art of printing which he practised with wooden types. Guttenburgh afterwards invented cut metal types; but the art was carried to perfection by Peter Schoeffer, who invented the mode of casting the types in matrices. Frederic Cor-sellis began to print in Oxford, in 1468, with wooden types; but it was William Caxton, who introduced into England the art of printing with fusile types in 1474.
- 1446 The Vatican library founded at Rome.
 The sea breaks in at Dort, in Holland, and drowns 100,000 people.
- 1453 Constantinople taken by the Turks, which ends the eastern empire, 1123 years from its dedication by Constantine the Great, and 2206 years from the foundation of Rome.
- 1454 The university of Glasgow, in Scotland, founded.
- 1460 Engraving and etching on copper invented.
- 1477 The university of Aberdeen, in Scotland, founded.
- 1483 Richard III., king of England, and the last of the Plantagenets, is defeated and killed at the battle of Bosworth, by Henry (Fudor) VII.; which puts an end to the civil wars between the houses of York and Lancaster, after a contest of 30 years, and the loss of 100,000 men.
- 1488 Henry establishes fifty yeomen of the guards, the first standing army.
- 1489 Maps and sea charts first brought to England by Barth. Columbus.
- 1491 William Groeyn publicly teaches the Greek language at Oxford.
 The Moors, hitherto a formidable enemy to the native Spaniards, are entirely subdued by Ferdinand, and become subjects to that prince on certain conditions, which are ill observed by the Spaniards, whose clergy employ the powers of the Inquisition, with all its tortures: and in 1609, near one million of the Moors are driven from Spain to the opposite coast of Africa, from whence they originally came.

- 1492 America first discovered by Colon, or Columbus, a Genoese, in the service of Spain.
- 1494 Algebra first known in Europe.
- 1497 The Portuguese first sail to the East Indies by the Cape of Good Hope. South America discovered by Americus Vespusius, from whom it has its name.
- 1499 North America discovered for Henry VII. by Cabot.
- 1500 Maximilian divides the empire of Germany into six circles, and adds four more in 1512.
- 1505 Shillings first coined in England.
- 1509 Gardening introduced into England from the Netherlands, from whence vegetables were imported hitherto.
- 1513 The battle of Flowden, in which James IV. of Scotland is killed, with the flower of his nobility.
- 1617 Martin Luther began the Reformation.
- Egypt conquered by the Turks.
- 1518 Magellan, in the service of Spain, first discovers the straits of that name in South America.
- 1520 Henry VIII., for his writings in favour of popery, receives the title of Defender of the Faith from the Pope.
- 1529 The name of Protestant takes its rise from the Reformed protesting against the church of Rome, at the diet of Spires in Germany.
- 1534 The Reformation takes place in England under Henry VIII.
- 1537 Religious houses dissolved by Henry VIII.
- 1539 The first English edition of the Bible authorised; the present translation finished 1611.
- About this time cannon began to be used in ships.
- 1543 Silk stockings first worn by the French king; first worn in England by queen Elizabeth, 1561; the steel frame for weaving invented by the Rev. Mr. Lee, of St. John's College, Cambridge, 1589.
- Pins first used in England, before which time the ladies used skewers.
- 1544 Good lands let in England at one shilling per acre.
- 1545 The famous council of Trent begins, and continues 18 years.
- 1546 First law in England establishing the interest of money at ten per cent.
- 1549 Lord lieutenants of counties instituted in England.
- 1550 Horse-guards instituted in England.
- 1555 The Russian company established in England.
- 1558 Queen Elizabeth begins her reign.
- 1560 The Reformation in Scotland completed by John Knox.
- 1563 Knives first made in England.
- 1569 Royal Exchange first built.
- 1572 The great massacre of Protestants at Paris.
- 1579 The Dutch shake off the Spanish yoke, and the republic of Holland begins. English East-India company incorporated—established in 1600. English Turkey company incorporated.
- 1580 Sir Francis Drake returns from his voyage round the world, being the first English circumnavigator.
- Parochial register first appointed in England.
- 1582 Pope Gregory introduces the New Style in Italy; the 5th of October being counted the 15th.
- 1583 Tobacco first brought from Virginia into England.
- 1587 Mary queen of Scots is beheaded by order of Elizabeth, after 18 years imprisonment.
- 1588 The Spanish Armada destroyed by Drake and other English admirals. Henry IV. passes the edict of Nantz tolerating the Protestants.
- 1589 Coaches first introduced into England; hackney act 1693; increased to 1000 in 1770, and to 1200 in 1801.
- 1590 Band of pensioners instituted in England.
- 1591 Trinity college, Dublin, founded.
- 1597 Watches first brought into England from Germany.
- 1602 Decimal arithmetic invented at Bruges.
- 1603 Queen Elizabeth (the last of the Tudors) dies, and nominates James VI. of Scotland (and first of the Stuarts) as her successor; which unites both kingdoms under the name of Great Britain.
- 1604 The Gunpowder plot discovered at Westminster: being a project of the Roman Catholics to blow up the king and both houses of parliament.
- 1606 Oaths of allegiance first administered in England.
- 1603 Galileo, of Florence first discovers the satellites about the planet Jupiter, by the telescope, then just invented in Holland.

- 1610 Henry IV. is murdered at Paris by Ravaillac, a priest.
- 1611 Baronets first created in England, by James I.
- 1614 Napier of Merchiston, in Scotland, invents the logarithms.
Sir Hugh Middleton brings the New River to London from Ware.
- 1616 The first permanent settlement in Virginia.
- 1619 Dr. W. Harvey, an Englishman, discovers the doctrine of the circulation of the blood.
- 1620 The broad silk manufactory from raw silk introduced into England.
- 1621 New England planted by the Puritans.
- 1625 King James dies, and is succeeded by his son, Charles I.
The island of Barbadoes, the first English settlement in the West Indies, is planted.
- 1626 The barometer invented by Torricelli.
- 1627 The thermometer invented by Drabellius.
- 1632 The battle of Lutzen, in which Gustavus Adolphus, king of Sweden, and head of the Protestants in Germany, is killed.
- 1635 Province of Maryland planted by lord Baltimore.
Regular posts established from London to Scotland, Ireland, &c.
- 1640 King Charles disobliges his Scottish subjects; on which their army under general Lesley enters England, and takes Newcastle, being encouraged by the mal-contents in England.
The massacre in Ireland, when 40,000 English protestants were killed.
- 1642 King Charles impeaches five members, who had opposed his arbitrary measures; which begins the civil war in England.
- 1643 Excise on beer, ale, &c. first imposed by parliament.
- 1646 Episcopacy abolished in England.
- 1649 Charles I. beheaded at Whitehall, January 30, aged 49.
- 1654 Cromwell assumes the protectorship.
- 1665 The English, under admiral Penn, take Jamaica from the Spaniards.
- 1658 Cromwell dies, and is succeeded in the protectorship by his son Richard.
- 1660 King Charles II. is restored by Monk, commander of the army, after an exile of twelve years in France and Holland.
Episcopacy restored in England and Scotland.
The people of Denmark, being oppressed by the nobles, surrender their privileges to Frederick III. who becomes absolute.
- 1662 The Royal Society established in London by Charles II.
- 1663 Carolina planted; in 1728, divided into two separate governments.
- 1664 The New Netherlands, in North America, conquered from the Swedes and Dutch, by the English.
- 1665 The plague rages in London, and carries off 68,000 persons.
- 1666 The great fire of London began Sept. 2, and continued three days, in which were destroyed 13,000 houses, and 400 streets.
Tea first used in England.
- 1667 The peace of Breda, which confirms to the English the New Netherlands, now known by the names of Pennsylvania, New York, and New Jersey.
- 1668 The peace of Aix-la-Chapelle.
St. James's park planted, and made a thoroughfare for public use, by Charles II.
- 1670 The English Hudson's Bay company incorporated.
- 1672 Louis XIV. overruns great part of Holland, when the Dutch open their sluices, being determined to drown their country, and retire to their settlements in the East Indies.
African company established.
- 1676 The peace of Nimeguen.
The habeas corpus act.
- 1680 A great comet appeared; and continued visible from Nov. 3 to March 9.
William Penn, a quaker, receives a charter for planting Pennsylvania.
- 1683 India stock sold from 360 to 500 per cent.
- 1685 Charles II. dies, aged 55, and is succeeded by his brother, James II.
The duke of Monmouth, natural son to Charles II. raises a rebellion, but is defeated at the battle of Sedgemoor, and beheaded.
The edict of Nantz infamously revoked by Louis XIV. and the Protestants cruelly persecuted.
- 1687 The palace of Versailles, near Paris, finished by Louis XIV.
- 1688 The revolution in Great Britain begins Nov. 5; king James abdicates, and retires to France, December 3.
- 1689 King William and queen Mary, daughter and son-in-law to James, are proclaimed February 16.
Viscount Dundee stands out for James in Scotland, but is killed by general

- Mackey, at the battle of Killycrankie; upon which the Highlanders, wearied with repeated misfortunes, disperse.
 The land-tax passed in England.
 The toleration act passed in ditto.
 Several bishops are deprived for not taking the oath to king William.
- 1690 The battle of the Boyne, gained by William against James, in Ireland.
- 1691 The war in Ireland finished, by the surrender of Limerick to William.
- 1692 The English and Dutch fleets, commanded by admiral Russel, defeat the French fleet off La Hogue.
- 1693 Bayonets at the end of loaded muskets first used, by the French against the confederates, in the battle of Turin.
 The duchy of Hanover made the ninth electorate.
 Bank of England established by king William.
 The first public lottery was drawn this year.
 Massacre of Highlanders at Glencoe by king William's troops.
- 1694 Queen Mary dies at the age of 33, and William reigns alone.
 Stamp duties instituted in England.
- 1695 The peace of Ryswyck.
- 1699 The Scots settled a colony at the isthmus of Darien, in America, and called it Caledonia.
- 1700 Charles XII. of Sweden begins his reign.
 King James II. dies at St. Germain, in the 68th year of his age.
- 1701 Prussia erected into a kingdom.
 Society for the propagation of the gospel in foreign parts established.
- 1702 King William dies, aged 50, and is succeeded by queen Anne, daughter to James II. who with the emperor, and States General, renews the war against France and Spain.
- 1704 Gibraltar taken from the Spaniards by admiral sir George Rooke.
 The battle of Blenheim won by the duke of Marlborough and allies, against the French.
 The court of exchequer instituted in England.
- 1706 The treaty of union betwixt England and Scotland signed July 22.
 The battle of Ramillies won by Marlborough and the allies.
- 1707 The first British parliament.
- 1708 Minorca taken from the Spaniards by general Stanhope.
 The battle of Oudenarde won by Marlborough and the allies.
 Sardinia erected into a kingdom, and given to the duke of Savoy.
- 1709 Peter the Great, czar of Muscovy, defeats Charles XII. at Pultowa, who flies to Turkey.
 The battle of Malplaquet won by Marlborough and the allies.
- 1710 Queen Anne changes the Whig ministry for others more favourable to the interest of her supposed brother, the late Pretender.
 The cathedral church of St. Paul, London, rebuilt by Sir Christopher Wren, in 37 years, at one million expense, by a duty on coals.
 The English South-Sea company began.
- 1712 The duke of Hamilton and lord Mohun killed in a duel in Hyde-Park.
- 1713 The peace of Utrecht, by which Newfoundland, Nova-Scotia, New Britain, and Hudson's Bay, in North America, were yielded to Great Britain; Gibraltar and Minorca, in Europe, were also confirmed to the said crown by this treaty.
- 1714 Queen Anne dies at the age of 50, and is succeeded by George I.
 Interest reduced to five per cent.
- 1715 Louis XIV. dies, and is succeeded by his great-grandson, Louis XV.
 The rebellion in Scotland begins in September, under the earl of Mar, in favour of the Pretender. The action of Sheriff-muir, and the surrender of Preston, both in November, when the rebels disperse.
- 1716 The Pretender married to the princess Sobieski, grand-daughter of John Sobieski, late king of Poland.
 An act passed for septennial parliaments.
- 1719 The Mississippi scheme at its height in France.
 Lombe's silk-throwing machine, containing 26,586 wheels, erected at Derby; takes up one eighth of a mile; one water-wheel moves the rest; and in 24 hours it works 318,504,960 yards of organzine silk thread.
- 1720 The South-Sea scheme in England, begun April 7, was at its height at the end of June, and quite sunk about September 29.
- 1727 King George dies, in the 68th year of his age; and is succeeded by his only son, George II.
 Inoculation first tried on criminals with success.
 Russia, formerly a dukedom, is now established as an empire.

- 1732 Kouli Khan usurps the Persian throne, conquers the Mogul empire, and returns with 291,000,000*l.* sterling.
Several public-spirited gentlemen begin the settlement of Georgia, in North America.
- 1736 Captain Porteus having ordered his soldiers to fire upon the populace at the execution of a smuggler, is himself hung by the mob at Edinburgh.
- 1738 Westminster-bridge, consisting of fifteen arches, begun; finished in 1750, at the expense of 389,000*l.* defrayed by parliament.
- 1739 War declared against Spain.
- 1743 The battle of Dettingen won by the English and allies, in favour of the queen of Hungary.
- 1744 War declared against France. Commodore Anson returns from his voyage round the world.
- 1745 The allies lose the battle of Fontenoy.
The rebellion breaks out in Scotland, and the Pretender's army defeated by the duke of Cumberland, at Culloden, April 16, 1746.
- 1746 British Linen Company erected.
- 1748 The peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, by which, a restitution of all places taken during the war was to be made on all sides.
- 1749 The interest of the British funds reduced to three per cent.
British herring fishery incorporated.
- 1750 Frederick, prince of Wales, father to his present majesty, died.
Antiquarian society at London incorporated.
- 1752 The new style introduced into Great Britain; the third of September being counted the fourteenth.
- 1753 The British museum erected at Montagu-house.
Society of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce instituted in London.
- 1755 Lisbon destroyed by an earthquake, Nov. 1.
- 1756 One hundred and forty-six Englishmen confined in the black hole at Calcutta, in the East Indies, by order of the nabob, and 123 found dead next morning.
Marine Society established at London.
- 1757 Damien attempted to assassinate the French king.
- 1759 General Wolfe is killed in the battle of Quebec, which is gained by the English.
- 1760 King George II. dies October 25, in the 77th year of his age, and is succeeded by his present majesty, who, on the 22d of September 1761, married the princess Charlotte of Mecklenburgh Strelitz.
Blackfriars bridge, consisting of nine arches, begun; finished 1770, at the expense of 152,840*l.* to be discharged by a toll.
- 1762 War declared against Spain.
Peter III. emperor of Russia, is deposed, imprisoned, and murdered.
American philosophical society established in Philadelphia.
George Augustus Frederick, prince of Wales, born Aug. 12.
- 1763 The definitive treaty of peace between Great Britain, France, Spain, and Portugal, concluded at Paris February 10, which confirmed to Great Britain the extensive provinces of Canada, East and West Florida, and part of Louisiana, in North America; also the islands of Grenada, St. Vincent's, Dominica, and Tobago, in the West Indies.
- 1764 The parliament granted 10,000*l.* to Mr. Harrison, for his discovery of the longitude by his time-piece.
- 1765 His majesty's royal charter passed for incorporating the society of artists.
An act passed annexing the sovereignty of the island of Man to the crown of Great Britain.
- 1768 Academy of painting established in London.
The Turks imprison the Russian ambassador, and declare war against that empire.
- 1771 Dr. Solander and Mr. Banks, in his majesty's ship the Endeavour, lieut. Cook, return from a voyage round the world, having made several important discoveries in the South Seas.
- 1772 The king of Sweden changes the constitution of that kingdom.
The emperor of Germany, empress of Russia, and the king of Prussia, strip the king of Poland of great part of his dominions, which they divide among themselves, in violation of the most solemn treaties.
- 1773 Captain Phipps is sent to explore the north pole; but, having made eighty-one degrees, is in danger of being locked up by the ice, and his attempt to discover a passage in that quarter proves fruitless.
The Jesuits expelled from the Pope's dominions, and suppressed by his bull, August 25.

- 1773 The English East India Company having, by conquest or treaty, acquired the extensive provinces of Bengal, Orixá, and Bahar, containing fifteen millions of inhabitants, great irregularities are committed by their servants abroad; upon which government interferes, and sends out judges, &c. for the better administration of justice.
The war between the Russians and Turks proves disgraceful to the latter, who lose the islands in the Archipelago, and by sea are every where unsuccessful.
- 1774 Peace concluded between the Russians and Turks.
The British parliament having passed an act, laying a duty of three-pence per pound upon all teas imported into America, the colonists, considering this as a grievance, deny the right of a British parliament to tax them.
Deputies from the several American colonies meet at Philadelphia, as the first general congress, September 5.
First petition of congress to the king. November.
- 1775 April 19, the first action happens in America between the king's troops and the provincials at Lexington.
May 20, Articles of confederation and perpetual union between the American provinces.
June 17, A bloody action at Bunker's Hill, between the royal troops and the Americans.
- 1776 March 17, The town of Boston evacuated by the king's troops.
An unsuccessful attempt, in July, made by commodore Sir Peter Parker, and lieutenant-general Clinton, upon Charles Town, in South Carolina.
The congress declare the American colonies free and independent states, July 4.
The Americans are driven from Long Island, New York, in August, with great loss, and great numbers of them taken prisoners; and the city of New York is afterwards taken possession of by the king's troops.
December 25, General Washington takes 900 of the Hessians prisoners, at Trenton.
Torture abolished in Poland.
- 1777 General Howe takes possession of Philadelphia.
Lieutenant-general Burgoyne is obliged to surrender his army, at Saratoga, in Canada, by convention, to the American army, under the command of the generals Gates and Arnold, Oct. 17.
- 1778 A treaty of alliance concluded at Paris between the French king and the thirteen united American colonies, in which their independence is acknowledged by the court of France, February 6.
The remains of the earl of Chatham interred at the public expense in Westminster Abbey, June 9, in consequence of a vote of parliament.
The earl of Carlisle, William Eden, esq. and George Johnstone, esq. arrive at Philadelphia, the beginning of June, as commissioners for restoring peace between Great Britain and America.
Philadelphia evacuated by the king's troops, June 18.
The congress refuse to treat with the British commissioners, unless the independence of the American colonies were first acknowledged, or the king's fleets and armies withdrawn from America.
An engagement fought off Brest between the English fleet, under the command of admiral Keppel, and the French fleet under the command of count d'Orvilliers, July 27.
- 1780 Torture in courts of justice abolished in France.
The Inquisition abolished in the duke of Modena's dominions.
Admiral Rodney takes twenty-two sail of Spanish ships, January 8.
The same admiral also engages a Spanish fleet under the command of Don Juan de Langara, near Cape St. Vincent, and takes five ships of the line, one more driven on shore, and another blown up, January 16.
Charles Town, South Carolina, surrenders to Sir Henry Clinton, May 4.
Pensacola, and the whole province of West Florida, surrender to the arms of the king of Spain, May 9.
The pretended Protestant Association, to the number of 50,000, go up to the House of Commons, with their petition for the repeal of an act passed in favour of the Papists, June 2.
That event followed by the most daring riots in the city of London and in Southwark, for several successive days, in which some Popish chapels are destroyed, together with the prisons of Newgate, the King's Bench, the Fleet, several private houses, &c. These alarming riots are at length suppressed, by the interposition of the military, and many of the rioters are tried and executed for felony.

- Five English East-Indiamen, and fifty English merchant ships bound for the West Indies, taken by the combined fleets of France and Spain, August 8.
- Mr. Laurens, late president of the Congress, taken in an American packet, near Newfoundland, September 3.
- General Arnold deserts the service of the Congress, escapes to New York, and is made a brigadier-general in the royal service, September 24.
- Major André, adjutant-general to the British army, hanged as a spy at Tappan, in the province of New York, October 2.
- Mr. Laurens is committed prisoner to the Tower, on a charge of high treason, Oct. 4.
- Dreadful hurricanes in the West Indies, by which great devastation is made in Jamaica, Barbadoes, St. Lucia, Dominica, and other islands, Oct. 3 and 10.
- A declaration of hostilities published against Holland, December 20.
- 1781 The Dutch island of St. Eustatia, taken by admiral Rodney and general Vaughan, February 3, retaken by the French, November 27.
- A bloody engagement fought between an English squadron under the command of admiral Parker, and a Dutch squadron under the command of admiral Zootunan, off the Dogger Bank, August 5.
- Earl Cornwallis, with a considerable British army, surrendered prisoners of war to the American and French troops, under the command of general Washington and count Rochambeau, at York-town in Virginia, Oct. 19.
- 1782 The house of commons address the king against any further prosecution of offensive war on the continent of North America, March 4.
- Admiral Rodney obtains a signal victory over the French fleet, under the command of count de Grasse, near Dominica in the West Indies, April 12.
- The resolution of the house of commons relating to John Wilkes, esq. and the Middlesex election, passed Feb. 17, 1769, rescinded May 3.
- The bill to repeal the declaratory act of George I. relative to the legislation of Ireland, received the royal assent, June 20.
- The Spaniards defeated in their grand attack on Gibraltar, Sept. 13.
- Treaty concluded betwixt the republic of Holland and the United States of America, October 8.
- Provisional articles of peace signed at Paris between the British and American commissioners, by which the thirteen United American Colonies are acknowledged by his Britannic majesty to be free, sovereign, and independent states, November 30.
- 1783 Preliminary articles of peace between his Britannic majesty and the kings of France and Spain signed at Versailles, January 20.
- The order of St. Patrick instituted, February 5.
- Three earthquakes in Calabria Ulterior and Sicily, destroying a great number of towns and inhabitants, February 5, 7, and 28.
- Armistice between Great Britain and Holland, February 10.
- Ratification of the definitive treaty of peace between Great Britain, France, Spain, and the United States of America, September 3.
- 1784 The great seal stolen from the chancellor's house in Great Ormond-street, March 24.
- The ratification of the peace with America arrived, April 7.
- The definitive treaty of peace between Great Britain and Holland, May 24.
- The memory of Handel commemorated by a grand jubilee, at Westminster-Abbey, May 26.
- Mr. Lunardi ascended in a balloon from the Artillery-ground, Moorfields, the first attempt of the kind in England, September 15.
- The bull feasts abolished in Spain, except for pious or patriotic uses, by edict, November 14.
- 1785 Mr. Blanchard and Dr. Jefferies went from Dover to Calais in an air balloon, in about two hours, January 7.
- M. de Resier and M. Romain ascended at Boulogne, intending to cross the channel; in twenty minutes the balloon took fire, and the aeronauts came to the ground and were killed on the spot.
- 1786 The king of Sweden prohibited the use of torture in his dominions.
- Cardinal Turlone, high inquisitor at Rome, was publicly dragged out of his carriage by an incensed multitude for his cruelty, and hung on a gibbet fifty feet high.
- Commercial treaty signed between England and France, September 26.
- 1787 Mr. Burke at the bar of the house of lords, in the name of all the commons of Great Britain, impeached Warren Hastings, late governor-general of Bengal, of high crimes and misdemeanors, May 21.
- 1788 In the early part of October, the first symptoms appeared of a severe disorder which afflicted our gracious sovereign. On the sixth of November they

- were very alarming, and on the thirteenth a form of prayer for his recovery was ordered by the privy council.
- 1789 His majesty was pronounced to be in a state of convalescence, February 17; and to be free from complaint, February 26.
A general thanksgiving for the king's recovery, who attended the service at St. Paul's, with a great procession, April 23.
Revolution in France, capture of the Bastile, execution of the governor, &c. July 14.
- 1790 Grand confederation in the champ de Mars, July 14.
- 1791 Riots at Birmingham: the meeting houses, and houses of Dr. Priestley and others, destroyed by the mob, July 14.
- 1792 The definitive treaty of peace was signed between the British and their allies, the Nizam and Mahrattas on one part, and Tippoo Sultan on the other, March 19, by which he ceded one half of his territorial possessions, and delivered up two of his sons to lord Cornwallis, as hostages for the fulfilment of the treaty.
Gustavus III. king of Sweden, died on the 29th of March, in consequence of being assassinated by Ankerstroom.
- 1793 Louis XVI. after having received innumerable indignities from his people, was brought to the scaffold, January 21, and had his head severed by the guillotine, contrary to the express laws of the new constitution, which had declared the person of the king inviolable.
On the 25th of March, lord Grenville and count Woronzow signed a convention at London on behalf of his Britannic majesty and the empress of Russia, to employ their forces, conjointly, in a war against France. Treaties were also entered into with the king of Sardinia and the prince of Hesse Cassel.
The unfortunate queen of France, on the 16th of October, was conducted to the spot where Louis had previously met his fate, and beheaded by the guillotine in the thirty-eighth year of her age.
- 1794 On the first of June, the British fleet under the command of admiral earl Howe obtained a signal victory over that of the French, in which two ships were sunk, one burnt, and six brought into Portsmouth harbour.
- 1795 In consequence of the rapid progress of the French arms in Holland, the Princess of Orange, the hereditary princess, and her infant son, arrived at Yarmouth on the 19th of January. The Stadtholder landed at Harwich on the 20th.
George prince of Wales married to the princess Caroline of Brunswick, Apr. 8.
The trial of Warren Hastings concluded on the 23d of April, when he was acquitted of the charges brought against him by the house of commons.
- 1796 Lord Malmsbury went to Paris in October, to open negotiations for a general peace; but returned Dec. 29 without having effected the object of his mission.
- 1797 A signal victory gained over the Spanish fleet by sir John Jervis, since created earl St. Vincent, February 14.
An alarming mutiny on board the Channel fleet at Spithead, April 15.
The nuptials of the prince of Wirtemberg and the princess royal celebrated at St. James's May 18.
Another alarming mutiny on board the fleet at Sheerness.
Parker, the chief leader in this mutiny, executed on board the Sandwich at Blackstake, June 30.
Lord Malmsbury arrived at Lisle July 4, and opened a negotiation for a peace between England and the French Republic, but again returned without effecting the object of his mission, September 19.
A signal victory gained over the Dutch fleet by admiral Duncan, Oct. 11.
Peace between France and Austria definitively signed at Campo Formio, October 17.
A general thanksgiving for the late great naval victories. The king and the members of both houses of parliament attended divine service at St. Paul's in grand procession, December 19.
- 1798 A dreadful rebellion in Ireland, which was quelled, after several battles with the insurgents, and much bloodshed.
The glorious victory of admiral Nelson at Aboukir, near the mouth of the Nile, in which nine French ships of the line were taken, and two burnt; only two escaping; which were afterwards taken, August 1.
- 1799 The war against France recommenced by the emperor; and the French driven out of almost all their conquests in Italy, by the Austrians and Russians under Suwarrow.

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- 1799 Seringapatam taken by lieut.-general Harris, and Tippoo Sultan killed, May 4.
 The directorial government abolished in France, and a new constitution framed, according to which Bonaparte was to be first consul for ten years.
- 1800 A horrid attempt made on the life of his majesty by James Hadfield, a lunatic, who fired a pistol at him from the pit of Drury-lane theatre, May 15.
 The battle of Marengo gained by Bonaparte, and followed by an armistice, and the surrender of all the strong places held by the Austrians in Italy, June 15.
 The bill for a union with Ireland signed, July 2.
- 1801 The union with Ireland took place, Jan. 1.
 The right hon. Wm. Pitt sent in to his majesty his resignation of the offices of chancellor of the exchequer and first lord of the treasury, after having been minister 17 years, Feb. 6.
 The peace of Luneville, between France and Austria, signed February 9.
 Mr. Pitt delivered to his majesty the seals of his office, which were immediately delivered to Mr. Addington, March 14.
 The battle of Alexandria in Egypt gained by the British troops, in which the brave general Abercrombie was mortally wounded, March 21.
 The death of the emperor Paul of Russia, March 24.
 The battle of Copenhagen, in which 13 Danish ships were taken or destroyed by lord Nelson, April 2.
 Preliminaries of peace signed between England and France, October 1.
 An attempt made to assassinate Bonaparte, by exploding a barrel of gunpowder, called by the French the *infernal-machine*.
- 1802 The Definitive Treaty of Peace between Great Britain and the French Republic signed at Amiens, March 27.
 Peace between England and France proclaimed, April 29.
 A general thanksgiving observed for the restoration of peace, June 1.
 The foundation of the London docks at Wapping, laid by the chancellor of the exchequer, June 26.
 The West India docks at Blackwall opened August 27.
- 1803 A message from his majesty delivered to both houses of parliament, announcing the military preparations that were carrying on in the ports of France and Holland.—Press warrants issued, March 8.
 A message from his majesty to both houses of parliament, announcing the termination of the discussion between his majesty and the French Republic, and that his majesty had recalled his ambassador from Paris.
 The French ambassador left London, May 16.
 The French army under general Mortier took possession of the city and electorate of Hanover, June 5.
 An insurrection in Dublin, in which lord Kilwarden, chief justice of the court of king's bench in Ireland, and his nephew, Mr. Wolfe, were inhumanly murdered, July 23.
 Official returns laid on the table of the house of commons, stating the number of volunteers in Great Britain, at 379,943, December 9.
- 1804 The duke d'Enghien seized by Bonaparte on a neutral territory, April 3; shot in the night in the wood of Vincennes, April 11.
 Mr. Pitt again appointed to the office of chancellor of the exchequer, May 10.
 Bonaparte proclaimed emperor of the French, May 30.
 Francis II. emperor of Germany and king of Hungary assumes the title of emperor of Austria, September 5.
 Sir George Rumbold, the English resident at Hamburgh, seized by a party of French soldiers, and sent to Hanover, and thence to Paris, November 2.
 Bonaparte crowned emperor of the French by the Pope at Paris, December 2.
- 1805 A flag of truce came out of Bonlogne and delivered to captain Owen of the *Immortalité*, dispatches containing a letter from Bonaparte to his majesty, (dated January 1), expressing in general terms, a wish to put an end to the calamities of war, January 7.
 The Italian Republic declared an hereditary monarchy, by the title of the Kingdom of Italy.—Bonaparte accepts the crown, March 17.
 The London docks opened, May 25.
 Bonaparte crowned king of Italy at Milan, May 26.

MEN OF LEARNING AND GENIUS.

N. B. By the Dates is implied the Time when the above Writers died; but when that Period happens not to be known, the Age in which they flourished is signified by A. The Names in Italics are those who have given the best English Translations, inclusive of School Books.

Bef. Ch.

- 907 **H**OMER, the first profane writer and Greek poet, flourished. *Pope. Cowper.*
 Hesiod, the Greek poet, supposed to live near the time of Homer. *Cook.*
- 884 Lycurgus, the Spartan lawgiver.
- 600 Sappho, the Greek lyric poetess, fl. *Fawkes.*
- 558 Solon, lawgiver of Athens.
- 556 Æsop, the first Greek fabulist. *Crowal.*
- 548 Thales, the first Greek astronomer and geographer.
- 497 Pythagoras, founder of the Pythagorean philosophy in Greece. *Rowe.*
- 474 Anacreon, the Greek lyric poet. *Fawkes. Addison.*
- 456 Æschylus, the first Greek tragic poet. *Potter.*
- 435 Pindar, the Greek lyric poet. *West.*
- 413 Herodotus of Greece, the first writer of profane history. *Lüslebury. Beloe.*
- 407 Aristophanes, the Greek comic poet, fl. *White.*
 Euripides, the Greek tragic poet. *Woodbull.*
- 406 Sophocles, ditto. *Franklin. Potter.*
 Confucius, the Chinese philosopher, fl.
- 400 Socrates, the founder of moral philosophy in Greece.
- 391 Thucydides, the Greek historian. *Smith. Hobbes.*
- 361 Hippocrates, the Greek physician. *Clifton.*
 Democritus, the Greek philosopher:
- 359 Xenophon, ditto, and historian. *Smith. Spelman. Aaby. Fielding.*
- 348 Plato, the Greek philosopher, and disciple of Socrates. *Sydenham.*
- 336 Isocrates, the Greek orator. *Gillies.*
- 332 Aristotle, the Greek philosopher, and disciple of Plato. *Hobbes.*
- 313 Demosthenes, the Athenian orator, poisoned himself. *Leland. Francis.*
- 288 Theophrastus, the Greek philosopher, and scholar of Aristotle. *Budget.*
- 285 Theocritus, the first Greek pastoral poet, fl. *Fawkes.*
- 277 Euclid, of Alexandria in Egypt, the mathematician, fl. *R. Simson.*
- 270 Epicurus, founder of the Epicurean philosophy in Greece.
- 264 Xeno, founder of the stoic philosophy in ditto.
- 244 Callimachus, the Greek elegiac poet. *Tytler.*
- 208 Archimedes, the Greek geometrician.
- 184 Plautus, the Roman comic poet. *Thornton.*
- 159 Terence, of Carthage, the Latin comic poet. *Colman.*
- 155 Diogenes, of Babylon, the stoic philosopher.
- 194 Polybius, of Greece, the Greek and Roman historian. *Hampton.*
- 54 Lucretius, the Roman poet. *Creech.*
- 44 Julius Cæsar, the Roman historian and commentator, killed. *Duncan.*
 Diodorus Siculus, of Greece, the universal historian, fl. *Booth.*
 Vitruvius, the Roman architect, fl.
- 43 Cicero, the Roman orator and philosopher, put to death. *Guttrie. Melmoth.*
 Cornelius Nepos, the Roman biographer, fl. *Rowe.*
- 34 Sallust, the Roman historian. *Gordon. Rowe.*
- 30 Dionysius of Halicarnassus, the Roman historian, fl. *Spelman.*
- 19 Virgil, the Roman epic poet. *Dryden. Pitt. Warton.*
- 11 Catullus, Tibullus, and Propertius. Roman poets. *Grainger. Dart.*
- 8 Horace, the Roman lyric and satiric poet. *Francis.*
- A. C.
- 17 Livy, the Roman historian. *Hay.*
- 19 Ovid, the Roman elegiac poet. *Gartb.*
- 20 Celsus, the Roman philosopher and physician, fl. *Grivoe.*
- 25 Strabo, the Greek geographer.
- 33 Phædrus, the Roman fabulist. *Smart.*
- 45 Paterculus, the Roman historian, fl. *Newcome.*
- 62 Persius, the Roman satiric poet. *Brewster.*
- 64 Quintus Curtius, a Roman historian of Alexander the Great, fl. *Digby.*
 Seneca, of Spain, the philosopher and tragic poet, put to death. *L'Estrange.*
- 65 Lucan, the Roman epic poet, ditto. *Rowe.*
- 79 Pliny the elder, the Roman natural historian. *Holland.*

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to death. *L'Estrange.*

- 93 Josephus, the Jewish historian. *Whiston.*
94 Epictetus, the Greek stoic philosopher, fl. *Mrs. Carter.*
95 Quintilian, the Roman orator and advocate. *Gutbrie.*
96 Stadius, the Roman epic poet. *Lewis.*
98 Lucius Florus, of Spain, the Roman historian, fl.
99 Tacitus, the Roman historian. *Gordon. Murphy.*
104 Martial, of Spain, the epigrammatic poet. *Hay.*
Valerius Flaccus, the Roman epic poet.
116 Pliny the younger, historical letters. *Melmoth. Orrery.*
117 Suetonius, the Roman historian. *Hughes. Thomson.*
119 Plutarch, of Greece, the biographer. *Dryden. Langborne.*
128 Juvenal, the Roman satiric poet. *Dryden.*
140 Ptolemy, the Egyptian geographer, mathematician, and astronomer, fl.
150 Justin, the Roman historian, fl. *Turnbull.*
161 Arrian, the Roman historian and philosopher, fl. *Roche.*
167 Justin, of Samaria, the oldest Christian author after the apostles.
180 Lucian, the Roman philologer. *Dimsdale. Dryden. Franklin. Carr.*
Marcus Aur. Antonius, Roman emperor and philosopher. *Collier. Elphinstone.*
193 Galen, the Greek philosopher and physician.
200 Diogenes Laertius, the Greek biographer, fl.
229 Dion Cassius, of Greece, the Roman historian, fl.
254 Origen, a Christian father, of Alexandria.
Herodian, of Alexandria, the Roman historian, fl. *Hart.*
258 Cyprian, of Carthage, suffered martyrdom. *Marsbal.*
273 Longinus, the Greek orator, put to death by Aurelian. *Smith.*
320 Lactantius, a father of the church, fl.
336 Arius, a priest of Alexandria, founder of the sect of Arians.
342 Eusebius, the ecclesiastical historian and chronologer. *Hunter.*
379 Basil, bishop of Cæsarea.
389 Gregory Nazianzen, bishop of Constantinople.
397 Ambrose, bishop of Milan.
415 Macrobius, the Roman grammarian.
428 Eutropius, the Roman historian.
524 Boetius, the Roman poet and Platonic philosopher. *Bellamy. Preston. Redpath.*
529 Procopius, of Casarea, the Roman historian. *Holcroft.*

Here ends the illustrious list of ancient, or, as they are styled, Classic authors, for whom mankind are indebted to Greece and Rome, those two theatres of human glory; but it will ever be regretted, that a small part only of their writings have come to our hands. This was owing to the barbarous policy of those illiterate pagans, who, in the fifth century, subverted the Roman empire, and in which practices they were joined soon after by the Saracens, or followers of Mahomet. Constantinople alone had escaped the ravages of the barbarians; and to the few literati who sheltered themselves within its walls, is chiefly owing the preservation of those valuable remains of antiquity. To learning, civility, and refinement, succeeded worse than Gothic ignorance—the superstition and buffoonery of the church of Rome; Europe therefore produces few names worthy of record during the space of a thousand years; a period which historians, with great propriety, denominate the dark or Gothic ages.

The invention of printing contributed to the revival of learning in the sixteenth century, from which memorable æra a race of men have sprung up in a new soil, France, Germany, and Britain; who, if they do not exceed, at least equal, the greatest geniuses of antiquity. Of these our own countrymen have the reputation of the first rank, with whose names we shall finish our list.

A. C.

- 735 Bede, a priest of Northumberland; History of the Saxons, Scots, &c.
901 King Alfred; history, philosophy, and poetry.
1259 Matthew Paris, monk of St. Alban's; History of England.
1292 Roger Bacon, Somersetshire; natural philosophy.
1308 John Fordun, a priest of Mearns-shire; History of Scotland.
1400 Geoffry Chaucer, London; the father of English poetry.
1402 John Gower, Wales; the poet.
1535 Sir Thomas More, London; history, politics, divinity.
1552 John Leland, London; lives and antiquities.
1568 Roger Ascham, Yorkshire; philology and polite literature.
1572 Rev. John Knox, the Scotch reformer; History of the church of Scotland.
1582 George Buchanan, Dumbartonshire; History of Scotland, Psalms of David, politics, &c.

- 1598 Edmund Spenser, London; Fairy Queen, and other poems.
 1615—25 Beaumont and Fletcher; 53 dramatic pieces.
 1616 William Shakespeare, Stratford; 42 tragedies and comedies.
 1622 John Napier, of Marcheston, Scotland; discoverer of logarithms.
 1623 William Camden, London; history and antiquities.
 1626 Lord Chancellor Bacon, London; natural philosophy and literature in general.
 1634 Lord Chief Justice Coke, Norfolk; laws of England.
 1638 Ben Jonson, London; 53 dramatic pieces.
 1641 Sir Henry Spelman, Norfolk; laws and antiquities.
 1654 John Selden, Sussex; antiquities and laws.
 1657 Dr. William Harvey, Kent; discovered the circulation of the blood.
 1667 Abraham Cowley, London; miscellaneous poetry.
 1674 John Milton, London; Paradise Lost, Regained, and various other pieces in verse and prose.
 1674 Hyde, earl of Clarendon, Wiltshire; History of the Civil Wars in England.
 1675 James Gregory, Aberdeen; mathematics, geometry, and optics.
 1677 Reverend Dr. Isaac Barrow, London; natural philosophy, mathematics, and sermons.
 1680 Samuel Butler, Worcestershire; Hudibras, a burlesque poem.
 1685 Thomas Otway, London; 10 tragedies and comedies, with other poems.
 1687 Edmund Waller, Bucks; poems, speeches, letters, &c.
 1688 Dr. Ralph Cudworth, Somersetshire; Intellectual System.
 1689 Dr. Thomas Sydenham, Dorsetshire; History of Physic.
 1690 Nathaniel Lee, London; 11 tragedies.
 Robert Barclay, Edinburgh; Apology for the Quakers.
 1691 Honourable Robert Boyle; natural and experimental philosophy and theology.
 Sir George M'Kenzie, Dundee; Antiquities and laws of Scotland.
 1694 John Tillotson, archbishop of Canterbury, Halifax; 254 sermons.
 1697 Sir William Temple, London; politics and polite literature.
 1701 John Dryden, Northamptonshire; 27 tragedies and comedies, satiric poems, Virgil.
 1704 John Locke, Somersetshire; philosophy, government, and theology.
 1705 John Ray, Essex; botany, natural philosophy, and divinity.
 1707 George Farquhar, Londonderry; eight comedies.
 1713 Ant. Ash. Cooper, earl of Shaftesbury; Characteristics.
 1714 Gilbert Burnet, Edinburgh, bishop of Salisbury; history, biography, divinity, &c.
 1718 Nicholas Rowe, Devonshire; seven tragedies, translation of Lucan's Pharsalia.
 1719 Rev. John Flamsteed, Derbyshire; mathematics and astronomy.
 Joseph Addison, Wiltshire; Spectator, Guardian, poems, politics.
 Dr. John Keil, Edinburgh; mathematics and astronomy.
 1721 Matthew Prior, poems and politics.
 1724 William Wollaston, Staffordshire; Religion of Nature delineated.
 1727 Sir Isaac Newton, Lincolnshire; mathematics, geometry, astronomy, optics.
 1729 Rev. Dr. Samuel Clarke, Norwich; mathematics, divinity, &c.
 Sir Richard Steele, Dublin; four comedies, papers in Tatler, &c.
 William Congreve, Staffordshire; seven dramatic pieces.
 1732 John Gay, Exeter; poems, fables, and eleven dramatic pieces.
 1734 Dr. John Arbuthnot, Meath-shire; medicine, coins, politics.
 1742 Dr. Edmund Halley, natural philosophy, astronomy, navigation.
 Dr. Richard Bentley, Yorkshire; classical learning, criticism.
 1744 Alexander Pope, London; poems, letters, translation of Homer.
 1745 Rev. Dr. Jonathan Swift, Dublin; poems, politics, and letters.
 1746 Colin M'Laurin, Argyleshire; algebra, view of Newton's philosophy.
 1748 James Thomson, Roxburghshire; Seasons, and other poems, five tragedies.
 Reverend Dr. Isaac Watts, Southampton; logic, philosophy, psalms, hymns, sermons, &c.
 Dr. Francis Hutcheson, Ayrshire; system of moral philosophy.
 1750 Reverend Dr. Conyers Middleton, Yorkshire; Life of Cicero, &c.
 Andrew Baxter, Old Aberdeen; metaphysics, and natural philosophy.
 1751 Henry St. John, lord Bolingbroke, Surrey; philosophy, metaphysics, and politics.
 Dr. Alexander Monro, Edinburgh; anatomy of the human body.
 1754 Dr. Richard Mead, London; on poisons, plague, small-pox, medicine.
 Henry Fielding, Somersetshire; Tom Jones, Joseph Andrews, &c.
 1757 Colley Cibber, London; 25 tragedies and comedies.
 1761 Thomas Sherlock, bishop of London; 69 sermons, &c.

- 1761 Benjamin Hoadly, bishop of Winchester; sermons and controversy. Samuel Richardson, London; Grandison, Clarissa, Pamela.
Reverend Dr. John Leland, Lancashire; Answer to Deistical Writers.
- 1765 Reverend Dr. Edward Young; Night Thoughts, and other poems, three tragedies.
Robert Simpson, Glasgow; Conic Sections, Euclid, Apollonius.
- 1768 Reverend Lawrence Sterne; 45 Sermons, Sentimental Journey, Tristram Shandy.
- 1769 Robert Smith, Lincolnshire; harmonics and optics.
- 1770 Rev. Dr. Jortin; Life of Erasmus, Ecclesiastical History, and sermons.
Dr. Mark Akenside, Newcastle upon Tyne; poems.
Dr. Tobias Smollet, Dumbartonshire; History of England, novels, translations.
- 1771 Thomas Gray, professor of Modern History, Cambridge; poems.
- 1773 Philip Dormer Stanhope, earl of Chesterfield; letters.
George lord Lyttleton, Worcestershire; History of England.
- 1774 Oliver Goldsmith; poems, essays, and other pieces.
Zachary Pearce, bishop of Rochester; Annotations on the New Testament, &c.
- 1775 Dr. John Hawkesworth; essays.
- 1776 David Hume, Merse; History of England, and essays.
James Ferguson, Aberdeenshire; astronomy.
- 1777 Samuel Foote, Cornwall; plays.
- 1779 David Garrick, Hereford; plays, &c.
William Warburton, bishop of Gloucester; Divine Legation of Moses, and various other works.
- 1780 Sir William Blackstone, Judge of the Court of Common Pleas, London; Commentaries on the Laws of England.
Dr. John Fothergill, Yorkshire; philosophy and medicine.
James Harris; Hermes, Philological Inquiries, Philosophical Arrangements.
- 1782 Thomas Newton, bishop of Bristol, Lichfield; Discourses on the Prophecies, and other works.
Sir John Pringle, Bart. Roxburghshire; Diseases of the army.
Henry Home, lord Kaimes, Scotland; Elements of Criticism, Sketches of the History of Man.
- 1783 Dr. William Hunter, Lanerkshire; anatomy.
Dr. Benjamin Kennicott, Devonshire; Hebrew Bible, Dissertations, &c.
- 1784 Dr. Samuel Johnson, Lichfield; English Dictionary; biography, essays, poetry; died December 13, aged 71.
- 1785 William Whitehead, poet-laureat; poems and plays.
Reverend Richard Burn, LL. D. author of the Justice of Peace, Ecclesiastical Law, &c.; died November 20.
Richard Glover, esq. Leonidas, Medea, &c. died Nov. 25.
- 1786 Jonas Hanway, esq. travels, miscellanies; died September 5, aged 74.
- 1787 Dr. Robert Lowth, bishop of London; criticism, divinity, grammar; died November 3.
Soame Jenyns, esq. Internal Evidence of the Christian Religion, and other pieces; died December 18.
- 1788 James Stuart, esq. celebrated by the name of "Athenian Stuart," died Feb. 1.
Thomas Gainsborough, esq. the celebrated painter; died August 2.
Thomas Sheridan, esq. English Dictionary, works on education, elocution, &c.; died August 14.
- 1789 William Julius Mickle, esq. Cumberland; translator of the Lusiad; died October 15.
- 1790 Dr. Will. Cullen, Scotland; Practice of Physic, Materia Medica, &c.; died February 5.
Benjamin Franklin, esq. Boston, New England; Electricity, Natural Philosophy, miscellanies; died April 17.
Dr. Adam Smith, Scotland; Moral Sentiments, Inquiry into the Wealth of Nations; died April 17.
John Howard, esq. Middlesex; Account of Prisons and Lazarettos, &c.
Reverend Thomas Warton, B. D. poet-laureat; History of English Poetry, Poems; died April 21.
- 1791 Reverend Dr. Richard Price, Glamorganshire; on Morals, Providence, Civil Liberty, Annuities, Reversionary Payments, Sermons, &c.; died February 19, aged 68.
Dr. Thomas Blacklock, Annandale; Poems, Consolations from Natural and Revealed Religion; died July, aged 70.
- 1792 Sir Joshua Reynolds, Devonshire; President of the Royal Academy of

- Painting; Discourses on Painting delivered before the Academy; died February 19, aged 68.
- 1793 Reverend Dr. William Robertson, Principal of the University of Edinburgh, and Historiographer to his majesty for Scotland; History of Scotland, of the Reign of Charles V. History of America, and Historical Disquisition concerning India; died June 11; aged 72.
- 1794 Edward Gibbon, esq. Surry; History of the Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire; died January 16.
- 1795 Sir William Jones, one of the judges of India, and president of the Asiatic Society; several law tracts, translation of Ixus, and of the Moallakat, or seven Arabian poems, and many valuable papers in the Asiatic Researches.
- 1797 Edmund Burke, esq. Sublime and Beautiful, Tracts on the French Revolution.
- 1799 W. Melmoth; Translations of Pliny's and Cicero's Letters, Fitzosborne's Letters, &c.
Lord Monboddo; Origin and Progress of Language.
- 1800 Rev. Dr. Joseph Warton; Poetry, Miscellaneous Literature.
William Cowper, esq.; Poetry.
Reverend Dr. Hugh Blair; Sermons, Lectures on Rhetoric.
- 1802 Dr. Erasmus Darwin; Botanic Garden, Zoonomia.
- 1804 Dr. Joseph Priestley; Natural Philosophy, Theological and Political Tracts.

F I N I S.

ERRATA.

- Page 595 line 5. for *in Calabria*, read *at Catania*, in *Sicily*.
 659 line 20. for *Vingapatam* read *Visagapatam*.
 664 line 1. for *Jumna* read *Jumna*.
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